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ABSTRACT

This journal is intended to assist language educators in Hong Kong schools in developing and maintaining high standards of instruction in both English and Chinese. The 11 issues presented here contain articles, some in English and some in Chinese, on a variety of language education topics, including: language education planning; instructional methods and approaches; grammar; peer teaching; language teacher education; computer literacy and teacher education; dictionaries and dictionary use; cross-cultural issues in language teaching and learning; language of instruction; ethnocentrism and cross-cultural communication; first language interference; standardized language testing; listening comprehension; instructional improvement; computers in language instruction; reading instruction; student perceptions of good teaching; code-switching; reading instruction; writing instruction; drama in the classroom; literature appreciation; grading methods; teaching cultural context; reflective teaching; teacher attitudes; learning motivation; instructional materials; innovative programs; curricular reform; teacher education curriculum reform; and learner differentiation in the classroom. In later volumes, classroom research and curriculum development projects are also reported. (MSE)

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The articles in this Journal record the personal views of the contributors and should not be taken as expressing the official views of the Education Department, Hong Kong

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本期學報承蒙香港大學中文系趙令揚教授、香港英國文化協會莫禮遜先生慨允出任顧問，謹致謝意。

FOREWORD

In this the first issue of the ILEJ we should like to explain our objective in establishing this journal. The Institute of Language in Education was established in 1982 by the Hong Kong Government. One of the main reasons for its establishment was the concern of the Government that the quality of the language-teaching in Hong Kong schools should be maintained at a high standard.

In the unique linguistic situation of Hong Kong, language teaching refers to both Chinese and English. For this reason, ILEJ is in two languages. Articles written in English have an abstract in Chinese; articles written in Chinese have an abstract in English.

It is our hope that the ILEJ will be a forum for the exchange of ideas on language teaching both in Hong Kong and abroad. In particular, we hope that it will be of interest to those who are not familiar with the situation of language in education in Hong Kong.

We are privileged to be able to publish articles by leaders in the fields of English and Chinese language teaching. By their contributions to this our first issue they are expressing their support for the goals of the Institute of Language in Education and we thank them.

發刊詞

香港是個雙語社會，中英語文教學向受政府及各界人士所關注。香港政府爲了要提高本港中英語文教學水平，也爲了要加強學童的雙語能力，因而在一九八二年成立語文教育學院。

語文教育學院除了爲中英語文教師開辦復修課程外，還就語文的學習及教學，進行研究和出版。《語文教育學院學報》的出版，就是爲語文教學和語文研究的工作者，提供經驗、心得的交流機會，希望藉此推動本港語文教育的發展。

本刊每篇文章，都附有中文或英文提要，方便讀者參考。各篇文章的意見，無疑有很大的啓發性和參考性，但不一定代表教育署及本院的觀點，這是要特別說明的。

本刊能順利出版，實有賴學術通人、教育先進給予支持、指導，本院同人謹致謝意。

CONTENTS 目錄

Verner Bickley: Planning for Language Use in Hong Kong 7

陳志誠：怎樣看待香港的當代漢語詞匯問題 17

鄧仕樑：邏輯與寫文章的關係 22

Keith Johnson: Method in ELT Madness 27

李家樹：從語詞的彈性談到詞與詞之間的搭配規律 33

William T. Littlewood: Learning Grammar 40

羅忼烈：談"多讀" 49

Michael Milanovic: English Language Testing in Hong Kong Primary Schools and the Communicative Syllabus 54

Theodore S. Rodgers: Children Teach Children: an Educational Experiment in Rural South-East Asia 78

Peter Strevens: Twenty Propositions on Teacher Training: Towards a Philosophy of Teacher Preparation 83

王培光：普通話學習階段的探索研究 94

葉漢明、蔣英豪：粵音正讀字表 99

PLANNING FOR LANGUAGE USE IN HONG KONG

Verner Bickley

'Language planning' has been justified by the recognition of language as a societal resource and defined as a process of orderly decision-making to solve language problems in society (Jernudd and Das Gupta, 1971). This definition is much less restrictive than that used by some linguists who believe that the term should be confined to the choice and standardisation of linguistic codes.

The broader definition will serve for the purposes of this article which offers brief descriptions of some of the most important measures that have been taken in Hong Kong in planning for language use since formal education was first introduced.

THE SYSTEMATISATION OF EDUCATION IN HONG KONG AND BRITAIN

The early progress of education in Hong Kong reflected the expansion and gradual systematisation of education in Britain where it was sensitive to the ebb and flow of economic affairs and owed as much to private enterprise as it did to government control.

It was not until 1833 that the British Government modified its non-interventionist policy in education and made its first grant of £20,000 to be divided equally between two non-secular societies, the National Society and the British and Foreign School Society, in order to supply them with half the cost of building new school houses.

This precedent was followed in Hong Kong 1842, when the first Governor, Sir Henry Pottinger, approved a request from the Morrison Education Society for a grant of land upon which to build a school.[1] In the following year, James Legge re-established in Hong Kong the Anglo-Chinese School founded originally in Malacca by the missionary and East India Company translator, Robert Morrison. Other missionary-supported schools opened in 1843 and 1844 but, in 1845, only the Morrison Anglo-Chinese School and the Anglo-Chinese College remained and the Morrison School was obliged to close in 1849.

In 1847, the period of tentative State aid to education ended in both Britain and Hong Kong when commitments were made to definite policies in educational administration. On 18 April 1847, Thomas Macaulay summed up the position in Parliament. Arguing that it was the duty of every Government to provide security for the persons and property of the members of the community, he considered that a popular system of education would be the best means of achieving this.[2] Following the debate and Macaulay's speech, an education vote of £100,000 was passed by a large majority.

In August 1847, the Governor of Hong Kong's recommendation that some assistance should be given to existing schools was accepted by the

8

British Government and the Governor was instructed that educational grants could be given to a number of village schools in which reading, writing and arithmetic should be taught through the medium of Chinese.

On 3 March 1849, C. B. Hiller, V. Stanton and A. L. Inglis were able to report to the Colonial Secretary that:

> 'Ninety-five boys are in course of education at the three schools—forty at Victoria, twenty-five at Stanley, and thirty at Aberdeen. Over the schools at Stanley and Aberdeen we have been unable as yet to exercise any very effectual supervision. The school at Victoria has been visited at least once-a-month, and the progress of the scholars is as great as can be reasonably expected.'[3]

Support for English Language Teaching

Education in the English language in Hong Kong was first provided in the Anglo-Chinese College and in St. Paul's College, both of which were founded in 1843 to train ministers for the London Missionary Society and the Anglican Church. English teaching in schools was introduced in 1853 on the recommendation of James Legge who became a member in that year of the Education Committee established in 1850. In 1854, the Committee proposed that assistant masters should be appointed to teach English but, in 1860, accepted Legge's suggestion that several small government schools should be merged into one larger school which, under a European headmaster, could give English a more prominent place in the curriculum. The school opened in 1862 as the Central School, and Frederick Stewart was recruited from Scotland to fill the post of headmaster and, later, Inspector of Schools.

Following the Sino-British war that broke out in 1856 and the consequent growth of Hong Kong as a trading centre, a demand was created for bilingual clerks, compradores and interpreters to work not only in business houses in Hong Kong but also in the Treaty Ports and in other countries. Stewart found that English in the Central School was valued largely because it could lead to employment in commercial situations although opportunities for these decreased in the late 1860's and increasing numbers of students began to leave the school before they had completed the required studies. By 1871, however, the school had been able to halt the rapid turnover and new buildings became necessary to accommodate increasing numbers of pupils.[4]

The 1873 Code of Aid

Until 1873, government support for education in Hong Kong was limited to the Central School and twenty-nine village schools, including fourteen described as 'aided'. In that year, however, Stewart was largely responsible for the introduction of a grant code which extended government aid and inspection to mission and other voluntary schools. Although objections were raised to the scheme because of its 'secularism',[5] the Code and its successors encouraged the growth of the mission schools and the eventual development of Anglo-Chinese schools, providing primary and secondary education through the medium of English.

Committee on English in Hong Kong

One of the sharpest critics of the grant-in-aid scheme and of the progress of the Central School was Sir John Pope-Hennessey, appointed Governor of Hong Kong in 1877. Following a visit to the school shortly after assuming office, he declared himself to be dissatisfied with the standard of English taught and instructed the Colonial Secretary to prepare a report on the language learning and teaching situation. Before the report had been completed, the Governor appointed a committee to consider the teaching of English in Hong Kong. The committee recommended that the teaching of English should be the primary concern of the Government and that, to this end, entry requirements in Chinese should be raised so that more time could be devoted to English (five hours a day for instruction in English and two and a half hours for Chinese), all English lessons should be made compulsory, increased accommodation should be provided, more English-speaking masters should be appointed and smaller classes should be arranged. The committee also recommended that English should be taught in all schools appointed by the Government.[6]

The recommendations of this committee were of considerable significance for the future of primary and secondary education in Hong Kong, not only because they laid more emphasis on English language teaching, but because they drew attention to the need for trained teachers, in particular, for the village schools, re-named District Schools in 1882.

The Increased Involvement of Government in Educational Provision and Language Planning

After 35 years of gradually increasing participation in educational provision for schools, the government had now also to consider ways and means of providing support for the professional education of teachers. That its role in language planning and implementation was expanding can be seen by reference to its own reports and papers as well as those of committees and commissions. Several of the most significant of these are now summarised here.

Teacher Education

Until 1906, following the practice introduced in Britain in the mid-nineteenth century, the monitorial system and, later, the pupil-teacher system were used for training teachers in Hong Kong. A year before, in Kuala Lumpur, an English schoolmaster named Howard Tyte formed a 'Normal' class in his school, the Victoria Institution, to train teachers already employed in the Institution and in the Methodist Boys' school. The system was a distinct improvement on the pupil-teacher form of instruction and in 1906, the Director of Education decided that it should be introduced in all the main centres in the Federated Malay States and in Singapore.[7]

In the same year, in Hong Kong, a Normal class was started at Queen's College (formerly the Central School) as one of a number of Evening Continuation Classes. By 1913, there were five such classes in the Education Department—at the College, the Technical Institute (founded in 1907) and the Belilios Public School.

The Lindsell Teacher Training Committee

The Normal Class system continued in Hong Kong in one form or another until 1939. In that year, Northcote Teacher Training College was opened in temporary premises, after the Government had modified a recommendation of the Lindsell Teacher Training Committee that a teacher training organisation be established as a department of a government school.

Formed in 1938 to review and report on teacher training systems in operation at the University of Hong Kong and in the Normal Classes at the Evening Institute, the Committee made some important suggestions for the development of English language learning and teaching, in particular, that an oral test in English should be part of the annual teacher training course examination and that more emphasis should be placed on the teaching of English as a foreign language.[8]

The Lindsell Committee's recommendations lost much of their impact because of the outbreak of the Second World War. Northcote Teacher Training College did, however, establish itself and remained open until 1941. It re-opened in 1946.

Proposed Expansion of Chinese-Medium Education

The immediate post-war Report (1946–47) of the Education Department dealt mainly with the devastation caused by the conflict. One section, however, had to do with future policy and planning for education. In particular, the Report pointed out that in the past the system of education had directed government aid towards education in English, and stated that future developments must be in the direction of greater participation by government in the provision of primary and secondary education in Chinese. The measures to be taken to achieve this proposed expansion of Chinese-medium education included increasing the scope and content of teacher training and giving local officers opportunities to reach higher grades in the education service.

PLANNING FOR LANGUAGE EDUCATION 1949–1984

Substantial changes took place in language education in schools during the period from 1949 to 1984.

In 1949, the number of students enrolled in Hong Kong schools had risen from a pre-war figure of 110 000 (dropping by 1945 to just over 4 000) to 130 000. These students attended, on a voluntary basis, Government Schools, Grant-in-Aid and Subsidised Schools assisted by the Government to a greater or lesser degree, and Private Schools which received no assistance. Many of these schools offered a primary as well as a secondary education for their pupils and out of seventeen grant schools, sixteen used English as the medium of instruction.

Students attending Government and Grant secondary schools were prepared for the Hong Kong School Certificate examination held annually in June. The examination had been regarded as a stepping stone to University matriculation but in 1949 a major revision was carried out so that English was made the only compulsory subject and a number of new subjects were added to give candidates a wider choice than in the past. The only secondary school which did not offer the Hong Kong School Certificate examination was the King George V school which was recognised as an 'approved' school by the Cambridge University Board of Examiners and entered candidates for the Board's School Certificate.

The 1949 Education Department Report expressed satisfaction with progress in the teaching of English in the Anglo-Chinese schools despite the problems that had resulted from the War. The standard of English was said to be rising steadily, with the greatest improvement taking place in the oral work.

The Fisher Report

In 1950, Mr. N. G. Fisher, Chief Education Officer of Manchester, England, was invited by the government to visit Hong Kong to examine its expenditures on Education. An important recommendation in his report was that which suggested that two hundred places should be provided for student teachers by building a new College.[9] As the result of this suggestion, Grantham Teacher Training College was opened in 1951 to train primary school teachers who would teach through the medium of Chinese.

The Committee on Higher Education

The favourable English language learning situation noted in the Education Department's 1949 *Report* appears to have changed radically by 1951. In that year, a Committee on Higher Education appointed by the Government found that there were serious weaknesses in English teaching in the schools. As remedies, the Committee suggested that two kinds of course for teachers were needed, the first to improve the teachers' own language proficiency and the second to instruct them in methodology.[10]

Reacting to the Committee's Report, the government introduced a number of measures to strengthen English teaching and teacher training, in particular, a merger of the Education Department's Syllabuses and Textbooks Committees and the design and distribution of model syllabuses (see Bickley, 1985, forthcoming).

The Education Commission, 1963

In 1963, an Education Commission appointed by the Government made recommendations on the needs of the territory in respect of education. The Commission itself did not comment on the extent or quality of English language education in the Schools or Colleges. However, a Working Party established to consider these recommendations urged that standards of Chinese Studies in Anglo-Chinese schools and of English Studies in Chinese secondary schools should be improved, and endorsed the Commission's recommendation that the minimum period of training for student teachers should be extended to a full-time, two-year course, or a three-year part-time course.

Following the Working Party's *Report*, several steps were taken to strengthen English language teaching, for example, the establishment of an English Language Teaching Centre which was to provide in-service courses for teachers and produce language teaching material for schools.[11] A British Council officer appointed on agreement under the 'Aid for Commonwealth English' scheme was made the Head of the Centre at the beginning of 1965.

The 'Language Package'

Two decades after the publication of the Education Commission's 1963 Report, significant changes had taken place in education. Immigrants from China who had begun to enter Hong Kong from 1949 had contributed to the rapid growth of the educational system so that the government, aided and private schools were now catering for over 1.4 million pupils.

By 1971, primary school education had been made free and compulsory for every child and in 1978 universal junior secondary education was introduced. The Secondary Schools Entrance Examination was abolished and a Junior Secondary Assessment System (JSEA) was established to allocate students to subsidised Form IV places.

After the introduction of nine years' free schooling, it was anticipated that the consequent increase in the number of mixed ability classes might have a significant effect on language attainment.

To provide for this situation, certain measures—the so-called 'language package'—were planned to raise the standards of English and Chinese in schools. This package was approved by the Governor-in-Council in June, 1980 and in April 1981 and referred to in the *Report of a Visiting Panel* published in November 1982.

The Panel drew attention to the need to improve the language competency of teachers and made a number of other observations about language in education, for example, it argued for a shift towards the universal use of the mother tongue in the formative years accompanied by the formal teaching of English as a first foreign language, believing that this would lead progressively to 'genuine bilingualism' in the senior secondary years. The Panel also proposed that the use of Chinese be encouraged through a scheme of 'positive discrimination' in favour of schools which used Chinese as the medium of instruction.[12]

These observations by the Visiting Panel were considered by an Education Commission appointed on 2 April 1984 to (*a*) define overall educational objectives, formulate educational policy and recommend priorities for im-

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plementation, (*b*) co-ordinate and monitor the planning and development of education at all levels; and (*c*) initiate education research.

Noting in its first report that it had taken into account pedagogical considerations as well as political, social and economic developments, the Commission expressed support for a bilingual education policy, whilst agreeing with the Visiting Panel that Chinese language teaching in the schools should be strengthened.

The Commission referred to a number of language research projects being conducted by the Education Department and, on the assumption that these projects would find that learning and teaching were more effective if carried out in the mother tongue but that the consequential loss of exposure to English might result in a fall in the standard of that language, recommended that individual school authorities should be encouraged to adopt Chinese as the medium of instruction whilst also being given additional resources to strengthen English teaching.

The Commission made a total of 13 recommendations related to language in education and also endorsed the language package measures, which included the establishment of a Chinese Language Foundation, the provision of extra teachers for remedial language teaching, the revision of the primary and secondary school syllabuses, the installation in schools of wire-free induction loop systems to provide pupils with good models of pronunciation and usage, the carrying out of research projects and the establishment of an Institute of Language in Education.[13]

Institute of Language in Education

The Institute of Language in Education (ILE) was established as a training and research institute to bring about improvements in language learning and teaching, with particular emphasis on the training of teachers of English and Chinese.

The Institute began operations in September 1982 in commercial premises in Kowloon. It organises refresher courses, seminars and workshops for experienced teachers of Chinese and English, provides consultancy services for teachers and other language teaching professionals and tests prototype language learning and teaching materials.

At present, the majority of teachers attending courses at the Institute are primary school teachers of English and Chinese. In February 1985 the first course for secondary teachers of English from pre-vocational schools will be conducted. By December 1985 over 1 300 teachers will have attended full-time refresher courses.

A modest programme of research has been launched and also a small-scale project to publish teaching materials designed by course-participants. Since the Institute opened in September 1982 there have been five exhibitions of materials designed by participants and these have been attended by over 7 000 Hong Kong teachers and other language teaching professionals.

In 1982, the Institute was recognised by the Royal Society of Arts as the Hong Kong Centre for courses leading to the Diploma for Overseas Teachers of English.

Conclusion

This article has reviewed briefly the process of planning for language use in Hong Kong and linked it to the development of the education system.

In order to limit the scope of a *Directory of Language Planning Organisations*, its editor began with an assumption that there would exist 'language planning agencies' with clearly identifiable sources of authorisation, responsibility and accountability in the polity, and with national terms of reference for implementation of language policy decisions that originate in the national government.' (Rubin, 1979) After completing the first edition of her Directory, her sole remaining criterion was that there should be an organisational permanence to the effort to influence language use. From the descriptions given above of measures taken in planning for language use, it is clear that Hong Kong satisfies her remaining criterion as well as the broad definition with which we began.

Notes

1. Endacott, G. B., *A History of Hong Kong*, Oxford University Press, Seventh impression, 1983.
2. Macaulay's *Speeches* (Everyman edition), pp. 349-69.
3. Hiller, C. B., Stanton, V., and Inglis, A. L. (1849), Enclosure No. 3 in No. 38, *State of Her Majesty's Colonial Possessions*, 507.
4. Endacott, op.cit. pp. 231, 232.
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8. Report of the Committee on the Training of Teachers, No. 8 1938.
9. A Report on Government Expenditure on Education in Hong Kong, 1950.
10. Report of the Committee on Higher Education in Hong Kong, 17 September 1952.
11. Report of the Working Party on the Recommendations of the Education Commission 1963, 1964.
12. *A Perspective on Education in Hong Kong*, Report by a Visiting Panel, November 1982 pp. 25, 29 and 30.
13. Education Commission Report No. 1, pp. 99-100, October 1984.

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16

提要

香港的語文應用計畫

作者認爲"語文計畫"是一個爲解決一些社會問題而有系統地策畫的過程。這個定義比一些語言學家所接納的較爲廣泛。他們認爲語文計畫應只限於甄選語言代號（LINGUISTIC CODE）及將語言代號標準化。作者採用了廣義的解釋，在本文內記述了香港自有正規教學以來一些語文應用計畫的重要轉變。

Verner Bickley
Institute of Language in Education

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怎樣看待香港的當代漢語詞滙問題

陳志誠

香港理工學院

粵語(廣州話)是一般香港人的口頭母語，不但日常生活、傳播媒介視之爲必需的溝通工具，在課堂上也成爲最基本而主要的授課語言。除了極少數以全英語、全國語(普通話)授課的學校外，普通小學、中文中學固然用粵語來授課，就是英文中學、大專院校，需要用"中文"講解的話，說的大都是粵語。相對於英文(英語)而言的"中文"，在香港，往往所指的就是粵語而已。像廣播、電視所說的中文台、英文台，其實是粵語台、英語台之分；而"嗰個鬼佬識講中文"，其實是"那洋鬼子會說粵語"而已。"中文"在香港，幾乎成了"粵語"的同義詞。小學、中學的中國語文課固用粵語講授，甚至大學裏的"現代漢語"課，也有用粵語講授的。這種現象，與其說是香港人只着重方言土語的運用，排拒標準漢語，倒不如說是漢語方言與標準語之間關係密切所致，因爲儘管彼此在口頭講說方面距離很遠，但書面形式還是彼此相通的。絕大部分漢語書面形式的文字，不管現代的、古代的，都可以用粵語唸出來。一般香港人都不大有現代漢語、古代漢語的概念，只分文言和語體。就算語體吧，讀的、寫的時候，懂普通話似乎不成爲必須的條件，甚至竟有部分香港人，會誤以爲國粵語之間的不同，僅是語音上的差異而已。再加上香港向來有自己一套的語文教學方針，報刊、讀物的文體又各式各樣都有，雅俗紛陳、文白兼雜，且沿用繁體字，於是，中文在香港，便有點"自治"的傾向，有其獨特的發展。

所謂"自治"的傾向，並不是說此地的中文可以完全脫離其他漢語語區的影響，或自外於民族共同語的滋養，也不是說它完全不受其他語言的影響。事實上，這是不可能的，粵語和普通話雖然語音、詞滙、語法都有不同，語音的距離明顯，語法的距離較小，詞滙則介乎兩者之間，但畢竟彼此都是漢語，同的多，異的少；無論怎樣"自治"，在大根大源方面，還是一致的。另一方面，語言也是一種社會現象，受它所屬的社會影響至大，是與社會"共變"而發展的，香港是多語性質的社會，中英雙語佔主導的地位，雖然基本上是個華人社會，但不同民族、不同文化之間的接觸頻繁，彼此的相互影響是必然的，語言出現"擴散"(diffusion)、干擾(interference)、變異(variation)等現象也不可避免。"香港中文"正是在這種背景之下而產生的，詞滙方面的發展尤其顯著。

"香港中文"這個命題，本來就有貶抑的含義，表示那些地方色彩濃厚、不大純正的漢語表達方式，甚至是諷刺別人在漢語表達方面"不通"的譏

詞語。可是，如果我們肯從另一個角度來體會，看看近十多年來香港在漢語詞滙方面的發展，那它就應該別具一層意義，有值得我們注意的地方。衆所周知，中國大陸這個主要的漢語語區，在近三十多年來無論政治制度、社會生活以至人們的意識型態，都跟香港截然不同。影響至詞滙的發展，尤其是漢語新生外來詞方面，彼此也存在着頗大的距離。如果我們可以不把香港的新生漢語詞滙以方言土語的性質來看待，而想到將之吸納進現代漢語詞滙之中，使之規範化、標準化，豐富我們的民族共同語，那麼，"香港中文"也許還不致於僅僅只有負面的含義、對漢語言的發展一無貢獻。

事實上，近年來在香港出現的新生漢語詞滙，數量既多，範圍也廣；跟日常生活有關、具羣衆基礎的固然不少，屬於專業性質、新科技的專門用語更相當可觀，並且還繼續發展着。這種情況，當然跟香港社會近數十年來急劇的變化有關。它以一個轉口商埠發展成爲一個工商業繁盛、旅遊發達、與世界各地都有聯繫、跟時代氣息相呼相吸的高度現代化城市、金融中心，外商湧至、居民外遊成風，與外國特別是英語世界的接觸頻密；大衆傳播媒介發展一日千里，把這裏的資訊事業不斷推向新的高峯。我們既不能毫無保留地直用英語來溝通，傳統的漢語詞滙又不夠應用，加上香港不如星、馬等地的華人那樣較爲遠離中國文化的根、漢語言母體的統，於是，我們只好盡量發展新的漢語詞滙，這些詞彙，在標準語或其他漢語語區要是還未出現的，香港就只好"獨造其詞"、自爲標準了。當然，由於取向不同，即使是同時並造，彼此互不協調、各造新詞的情況仍是常有的，像miniskirt，香港譯"迷你裙"（很傳神，後來"迷你"二字在香港就有"小型"的意思），國內叫"超短裙"；又如曾經流行一時的有種小玩藝，香港叫"扭計骰"（很方言化）、"IQ積木"，國內則管它叫做"魔方"，彼此幾乎無法溝通。這方面的例子多的是，也不必細舉了。

至於香港近年來新創漢語詞滙之所以發展迅速，上面所提到的只是其基本原因，至少，還該有下列幾個理由：①香港是個資本主義社會，財經活動既頻繁，又廣泛；與這類活動有關的用語非常多，但在國內就不易出現。例如香港股票買賣深入民間，那些專門用語如"牛市"、"熊市"、"藍籌"、"週息率"、"市價盈利率"之類，已成爲不少香港市民的"普通話"，是他們的常用詞語，在國內就比較陌生了。②香港自1974年後中文成爲法定語文，政府在管理和日常施政的運作之中，不可能端賴英語，上情下達與下情上達，都一定需要恰當的中英文對照詞滙來運用。這方面，政府和學術機構都陸續編譯了好些分門別類的專門用語詞書，當中出現了不少漢語新詞。③香港一向是英國殖民地，英國政制以至其他經濟、社會、教育

等制度上有關的常用詞語，都使本港出現一些特殊的漢語詞滙。④香港是個華洋雜處的社會，外國的生活方式和習慣用語，也很易對此地漢語造成影响，像“超級市場”、“工業行動”、“草根階層”、“壓力團體”等，都是這裏常見的新興漢語外來詞。⑤教育上的影响，近年來香港實施九年免費教育，而各類教育如成人教育、工業教育等也普遍推行，羣衆知識水平相繼地得到提高，對吸收外來新知和引進新科技的專門名詞術語，有較爲熱切的需要。⑥相對地說，中國大陸的新生詞滙對香港的影响反而不大顯著，因爲過去三十多年來，國內出現的新詞，大都跟政治、經濟和羣衆運動有關者居多，與香港社會不大投合，因此引進香港來的較少。要不是近年來國內開放政策的落實、來港定居和旅遊者激增與及香港主權復歸中國問題等情況的出現，香港人對國內新生詞的了解更爲有限，尤其對一些需要明白其中有關的歷史事件或相關的背景知識的詞語像“總路綫”、“鎭反”、“幹校”、“五七幹校”、“四淸”之類的詞滙和“管卡壓”、“吃勞保”、“包產到戶”等表達方式，了解就更不容易了。這些詞語，對香港詞滙運用方面的習慣影响並不大。香港，還是就本身社會的需要來構造新詞，沒有養成倚賴國內的習慣。

本來，大家既是同根同源，不同方言的漢語語區在詞滙運用上最好先求統一，與標準話一致。當然，概念不同，用詞自有不同；方言土語的獨特表現方式，自也不能在標準話中硬找相對應的說法。但概念相同的，最好用詞一致，減少差異。使得彼此在進行交際之時，可以避免不必要的誤解。香港人叫“電腦”的，國內則叫“電子計算機”，而香港的“計算機”，國內亦稱爲“計算機”或“計算器”；香港人所熟悉的“太空船”、“太空人”、“穿梭機”，國內則分別稱爲“宇宙飛船”、“宇航員”和“航天飛機”。（這裏所舉，除“電子計算機”、“計算機”、“宇宙飛船”之外，其他各詞，中國社會科學院編1979年版的《現代漢語辭典》都未收。）這些，都有令人感到困擾的地方。其他不習見、不常用的漢語詞滙，看來距離會更大。避免將來更嚴重的分歧，新生漢語詞滙的規範化問題現在總該是個需要正視的時候了。有時，要互相協調其實也不致太難，像“laser”這個詞（原是英語light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation的縮畧說法），國內原作“萊塞”（音譯借詞），香港原譯“雷射”或“鐳射”（音譯兼義），如今，大家都用上了“激光”這詞，不就是統一協調了嗎？

展望漢語未來的發展，至少從詞彙的角度來看，我認爲是會先走向專業，然後再回到羣衆。這話怎麼說呢？先說走向專業方面，我們知道，英語在各個專業範圍的發展相當蓬勃，專業英語（ESP）的教學也相當發達，但漢語的專業用語還不夠，一般專業性的辭典，都是英漢多而漢英少；

這使我們認識到，要發展專業漢語，還有一大段路可走；而科技新知的發展極爲迅速，我們是不可以停步的，漢語必須走向專業，才能應付所需，才能走上現代化之路。另一方面，所謂再回到羣衆，意思是說，專業用語，初期是"專"的，但當普遍地應用起來，便會漸漸普及化，在羣衆中走向"普"了。這對一般民智的提高固有好處，對豐富漢語特別是詞滙和修辭上的應用，應該更爲有利。如衆所知，我們現在一般在文章習見、習用的詞語如"水平"、"溫床"、"比重"、"飽和"、"反應"、"腐蝕"、"滲透"等原先都是專業性的科技用語，但現在不是很活躍地在羣衆中普及起來嗎？這些傾向單義性的科技用語，同樣可以推衍其意義，成爲豐富我們一般語言運用上的重要源泉和養分，使我們的語言更形活潑、更具姿采，這不就是先走向專業然後再回到羣衆來這種發展的好處嗎？

由於專業性質的漢語詞滙跟方言詞不同，不該受地域上的限制，現代漢語原本就有向方言詞吸收的途徑，那麼，對近年來香港新興的當代漢語詞滙，特別是專業性質的，既不應也不能以方言土語視之，只要符合詞滙吸收方面的若干原則，總應該考慮加以吸收的。

另一方面，由於近年新生事物多，科技發展快，未來漢語詞滙的增加一定很有可觀。現代漢語辭典或專門性的辭典必須要想辦法迎頭趕上時代的需要，我認爲：最好每年都有《當年漢語新詞滙》的編輯，收詞的範圍要廣，所及的地區要闊，不一定是先已規範化的，但解說應該詳細，最好加以討論、批評，這對今後漢語的發展，肯定會有好處，而"香港中文"能在這方面做出些貢獻，相信是毫無疑問之事。

（本文曾提交一九八四年八月於香港中文大學舉行的「漢語社區的語言教學問題」研討會作報告）

Abstract

A PERSPECTIVE ON THE LEXICAL DEVELOPMENT OF CONTEMPORARY CHINESE IN HONG KONG

In the light of the differences and similarity in lexis found in the various Chinese language communities, the author outlines the different reasons for which new words have been coined over the last ten years both in mainland China and Hong Kong. He suggests a standard for the general adoption of common words in various contemporary Chinese language communities. He further suggests they exchange ideas on the use of vocabulary with a view to achieving harmonious unity.

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邏輯與寫文章的關係

——怎樣用實例跟初中學生談思維與表達的問題

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（本文是針對初中學生寫文章和讀書實際遇到的問題說的。這裏假設一般初中生已經掌握了一點語法修辭的常識，希望他們進而注意思維概念的問題。文中嘗試通過常見尤其是出於課本的例子，盡量說得簡單。）

學習語文，應該對語言的本質有些認識。語言有自身的規律，這種規律叫做語法。學習語法，目的是掌握語言結構的規律，藉以提高語言能力。同時我們知道，語言是思維的表現。通常說表情達意，就是通過語言把心裏想到的說出來或者寫出來。既然語言的背後是思維，則一個人思想含糊混亂，他的語言不免也是含混的。要有清晰的語言，當然得先有清晰的思維。思維爲人類所共有，人類的思維也是有規律的，這種規律就叫做邏輯。

邏輯是英文 logic 的音譯，是關於思維形式及其規律的科學。邏輯和語言有什麼關係，下面再作具體的說明。

通常我們說一個句子不通，其實有兩種可能。

第一，是不合語言的規律，即是不合語法，例如：

①「香港的電子工業，發展成爲很重要的產地。」

句子①的主語是「電子工業」，謂語是「發展成爲重要的產地」。「電子工業」雖然可以「發展」，但不能成爲「產地」，因此這句犯的是主語與謂語不配合的毛病。

第二，即使一個句子在結構上合乎語法，但在事理上說不過去，則這句話還是不通，這可以說屬於邏輯的問題，例如：

②「這家工廠製造電子手表和電子產品。」

在結構上說，這個句子說明這家工廠有兩種製成品，其一是什麼，其二是什麼，結構明白不過。可是在概念的範圍上說，「電子手表」是「電子產品」的一種，二者不能並列，等於我們不能說：「我們學校有很多學生和男生。」因爲從這個句子推論，「男生」就不是「學生」了。所以句子②犯的是邏輯上的毛病。我們可以把句子②改爲：

「這家工廠製造電子手表和其他電子產品。」

加上「其他」兩字，「電子產品」指的是「手表」以外的「產品」，因此不包括「手表」，在概念範圍上便沒有含混的毛病。

由此可見，寫文章除了要注意語法，還應該有邏輯的訓練。如果平時注意思考的條理，加以運用語言時有相當的自覺，毛病自會減少。

語法和邏輯有一定的關係，是無可懷疑的。但要注意，語法雖然離不開邏輯，卻也不完全等同於邏輯。那就是說，在一般情形下，語言要服從邏輯。可是，語言是約定俗成的，經過長期發展，往往形成了某些習慣。有些習慣語分析起來是不合邏輯的。例如普通話說「好容易」，其實是「很不容易」的意思，「好不熱鬧」卻是「非常熱鬧」的意思。照邏輯講，這些本來是不合理的。可是倘若有人說：「好容易才找到那本書。」我們都知道他找那本書是殊不容易的。所以對於某些習慣用語，我們不必強以邏輯分析。至於一種語言裏哪些是習慣語，就只有憑對語言的熟習和感性去分辨了。

從上面的說明，我們知道語法和邏輯可以合起來討論。但語言裏每個詞代表一個概念，邏輯的毛病，往往是由於概念混亂引起的，改正了用詞，等於修正了概念，句子就沒有毛病了。用詞可以歸入修辭的範圍，因此邏輯也可以和修辭一起講。我們可以把為了使句子明確、通順的修辭手法叫做消極修辭，而把為了表達得更好的修辭方式稱為積極修辭，積極修辭是運用適當的表現手法，使文章寫得更好；消極修辭則只求文章沒有毛病，而這些毛病，大都是和邏輯有關的。

下面我們舉出幾種常見的毛病，說明邏輯思維和寫文章的關係。有些例子取自課本的課文，目的在提醒大家讀書要用批判的眼光，能夠看出別人文章的問題，自己寫文章也會提高警覺。

（一）費解

說話總要別人明白，但倘若沒有周詳的考慮，說出來就不夠明白，要別人猜測，例如：

「香港人喜歡喝汽水，根據各種估計，消耗量約為五十萬公升。」

這句話的費解處，在於：①「五十萬公升」到底是「各種估計」的一種，還是一個平均數字，我們不知道。②「消耗量約為五十萬公升」到底是按一星期、一個月、還是一年計算，也沒有說清楚。我們讀了這個句子，對香港人在汽水方面的消耗量，仍然沒有明確的認識。又如課本中有一句：

「這種觀念，雖不敢說普遍在一般青年的腦筋當中，但至少有一部分，甚至有一大部分，我們不得不注意，不能不覺悟。」〈享福與吃苦〉

句子中的「至少有一部分，甚至有一大部分」到底是指「一部分」「這種觀念」，還是「有一部分，甚至一大部分」人有「這種觀念」呢？分析起來，可能原意是說至少一部分人甚至一大部分人有這種觀念，但倘若大部分人有這種觀念，就和前面所說「雖不敢說普遍在一般青年的腦筋當中」相抵觸了。而

且照文句看，「我們不得不注意」的只是「一部分」和「一大部分」，到底要注意些什麼，也是很費解的。這顯然是有毛病的句子，也許可以這樣改寫：

「雖不敢說一般青年都有這種觀念，但至少有部分青年是這樣的。這個現象我們不得不注意。」

至於原句中的「覺悟」也是個不適當的詞，性質和意義都跟「注意」不同，不能有相同的用法。

（二）歧義

歧義是一句話可能有兩種解釋，譬如說：「研究香港的著作。」

這句話到底是指研究「香港的著作」，還是指「研究香港」的「著作」呢？既然兩種解釋都是可能的，為了避免混淆，就只有設法寫得更明白。又如：

「我們用兩個紅色和藍色的袋子把東西裝起來。」

這句話可以解釋為用兩個顏色一樣的袋子（紅色間藍色），也可以解釋為用兩個顏色不同的袋子，一是紅色的，一是藍色的。如果作者的意思是指後者，可以說：

「我們用一個紅色，一個藍色的袋子，分別把東西裝起來。」

（三）矛盾

有時由於對詞語沒有明確的概念，文章會出現自相矛盾的句子，譬如：

「他班上的同學都去投考理工學院，他是許多正取生中落第的一個。」

如果他是「正取生」中的一個，就不會「落第」，倘若他「落第」，就不會是「正取生」，所以這句話是自相矛盾的。矛盾的發生，是由於對「正取生」和「落第」兩個詞的性質沒有弄清楚。這句話的後半應該改為：

「許多同學考取了正取生名額，他卻是落第的一個。」

又如：

「建築工程基本上全部完成了。」

「基本上」有「主要的」、「大體上」之意，說「基本上完成了」，顯然並沒有「全部」完成，因此這句話也是矛盾的。其實只要還有一點沒有完成，就應該刪去「全部」，變為：

「建築工程基本上完成了。」

（四）重複

句子由詞語組成，每個詞有一定的作用。上節舉出的矛盾現象，是由兩詞詞義矛盾做成的。一句中兩詞含義相同，就會做成重複，例如：

「我們的住所距離相隔不遠。」

「距離」和「相隔」連用就變成重複，應該刪去一詞。又如：

「我們紛紛提出了許多問題。」

「紛紛」已經說明了提問題的人多，提出來的問題也多，不要在問題前再加上「許多」。

（五）概念不明和推理不當

語言的背後是思維概念。要表達得清晰，一定要先求概念明確。有時由於概念不明，用詞錯誤，也會產生推理不當的情形。這裏嘗試舉幾個課本裏的例子去說明。

例一：「我不是個運動家，生平沒有參加過什麼田徑賽和任何種的運動賽。」《體育的正軌》

其實「田徑賽」是「運動賽」的一種，「任何種的運動賽」已包含了「田徑賽」，作者用「和」去連接「田徑賽」及「任何種的運動賽」，是因概念不明引起的毛病。（今天看來，「任何種的運動賽」這個片語也是非常生硬的。）

例二：「若果你是『身在江湖，心存魏闕』的人，你也可於『靜觀萬物』之餘，於下午二三時去向賣報童子買一兩份上海當日的報紙看看，使你對祖國、故鄉的情形，不至因遠遊而隔膜。」《湖上中秋》

身在杭州旅行，固然是離開了故鄉，因此可以用「遠遊」一詞。但除非是外國人，否則身在杭州仍然算是在祖國之域中，不能說是離開了「祖國」而「遠遊」。因爲仍然處身「祖國」之中，便不能說因「遠遊」而「隔膜」了。

例三：「諸位青年啊！你現在很失意嗎？你家裏窮嗎？沒有錢買書，沒有力量升學嗎？你身子很單薄嗎！你腦筋遲鈍，不能做艱難的功課嗎？你想改科，貪圖省事嗎？你過慣了學校生活，受不住家庭壓迫，社會欺凌嗎？你自以爲是少爺階級，上流身分，叫你灑掃、應對、布衣、惡食，你就不肯嗎？你假如存着這種心思，你前途還有什麼希望。《享福與吃苦》

這段末了說：「你假如存着這種心思，」到底是什麼「心思」呢？因爲上文提出了六個問題，有些問題針對貪圖享福而產生的惰性，例如「貪圖省事」而「改科」，不肯「布衣」、「惡食」等。但有些情況對青年來說卻是不由自主的，譬如說，「家裏窮」、「沒有錢買書」、「身子單薄」、「腦筋遲鈍」等等，是客觀存在的情況，不是青年的「心思」。籠統的用一句說「假如存着這種心思」，按作者的用意，大概泛指貪圖享福的惰性，但上文的問題排列起來，性質不同，層次混亂，主要是概念不清的毛病。

從上面的討論，我們知道邏輯並不是什麼深奧的玩意。邏輯學的內容和方法，同學大可不必深究，但要準確的運用語言，便得多從思維、推理方面着手。養成了好問深思的習慣，不但能夠提高我們的語文水平，對於辨別事理，也應當有一定的幫助。

Abstract

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN 'LOGICS' AND WRITING

The author points out that there are two essential concerns in writing, namely, *grammar*, i.e., the rules of a language, and *'logics'*, i.e. the rules of human thinking that lie behind the language we use. This paper focusses on the latter and the part it plays in writing. The shortcomings that arise from the neglect of 'logics', viz., (i) obscurity, (ii) ambiguity, (iii) contradiction, (iv) redundancy and (v) vagueness of conception and incorrectness of inference are discussed in detail. Concrete examples are given—some taken from the 'set essays' of secondary school textbooks. Finally the author suggests that we should train ourselves to think logically, in order to write well and handle situations appropriately.

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METHOD IN ELT MADNESS

Keith Johnson

Language teaching and language teachers, have been blessed (or plagued) by a multitude of methods: the direct method, silent method, listening method, reading method, cognitive code, total physical response, grammar-translation, audio-lingual, audio-visual, structural, natural and communicative . . . etc.

In such a state of apparent confusion, Wilkins' advice is reassuring and sensible. 'It is my belief that there is no single "best" way of teaching foreign languages . . . What works is good: what does not work is bad.' (Wilkins, 1974: 1) There is no reason for abandoning a teaching technique which suits you and your students and is effective in promoting the learning aims of your programme. Nor is there any reason to change to a new method solely because you have read about it in a language teaching journal, or been told about it by a publisher or an enthusiast. Nevertheless, Wilkins' position is unsatisfactory in many ways. It does not help us to understand why certain methods work and others do not. It does not help us to predict whether a method is likely to work, or help us to see how an effective method might be made even more effective. It leaves us at the mercy of trial and error.

The confusion in EFL/ESL methodology is not (fortunately) as great as it appears. To a considerable extent differences between methods, and changes in methodological approach which take place over time, result from four major factors. These factors are discussed and illustrated below to provide an initial framework at least for understanding the differences between various methods, past and present, and for determining the potential value for you and your students of new ones which, inevitably, will be proposed in years to come.

The four factors are (1) The aims of the learner (e.g. level and type of proficiency required) (2) The conditions of learning (e.g. class size, length and intensity of learning programme; the characteristics of the learner, the teacher, and the teaching and learning situation) (3) Theories of language (4) Theories of language learning. (1) and (2) may be regarded as pragmatic factors. Factors (3) and (4) are less tangible, but no less real in their effects upon methods, since the ways in which teaching and learning experience are structured depend crucially upon answers to the questions: What is language and how is it learned?

The four factors are illustrated and discussed in terms of three method 'headings': Grammar-translation, audio-lingual, and communicative. These were chosen because they illustrate major historical developments in language teaching.

Figure I (below) sums up some of the major differences between these methods. The characteristics of the Communicative method represent more what the method is aiming for than what has been achieved. In practice most modern EFL/ESL classrooms adopt some compromise between the communicative and audio-lingual approaches.

Methodological Approach	Aims	Learning Conditions (Medium & Teacher's role)	Theory of Language	Theory of Learning	Main inadequacies
Grammar Translation	*Cultural* Appreciation and translation of classical literary texts	*Medium of Instruction* Mother tongues *Teaching Role* linguistic and literary informant	*Structural Prescriptive* traditional grammars Latin based	*Teacher-centred Deductive* (Learn the rules and apply them)	Weakness of oral/aural skills. Lack of fluency
Audio Lingual (Oral/structural)	*Professional/Cultural* Oral skills. Face to face communication with native speakers	*Medium of Instruction* Target language *Teaching Role* Demonstrator and drill master	*Structural Descriptive* Scientific grammars based on linguistic field work by anthropologists	*Teacher centred Inductive* 'Drills' derived from Behaviourist theories of operant conditioning	Drill exercises boring. Learners lack ability to use language creatively
Communicative	*Individual* Aim (and method) adjusted to learners needs in terms of proficiency levels and skills	*Medium of Instruction* Target language *Teaching Role* Consultant and facilitator	*Functional* Concept of language broadened by sociolinguistic studies to include the uses of language in society	*Learner centred Development* Derived from Psycholinguistic studies of first and second language acquisition	Difficulty in structuring and grading learning material

Figure 1

Factors, Illustrative Methods and some major Characteristics

The Grammar-Translation Method

This method has a long history. It involves, essentially, learning the vocabulary and structures of a language and then applying them to the task of translation. It has its origins in the 'dark ages' in Europe when the Roman empire had disintegrated. Latin was a 'dead' language (no native speakers) and the continuity of Western civilisation depended, literally, upon a few Latin texts and the few monks who devoted their lives to copying these texts and teaching others to read them. For 1 000 years after the fall of Rome, Latin was the language of European scholarship, and the mark of an educated person was the ability to read, and to some extent write, Latin.

The original aim was to provide access to classical texts and to allow scholars with different mother tongues to write to and for each other. As the 'modern' Western European languages developed and gained in status, the influence of Latin declined. The educated English person was by then expected to have some knowledge of French and Italian literature, but the method of teaching remained the same: grammar-translation. Those who wished to learn to speak a foreign language employed a native speaker as tutor, or travelled to the country where the language was spoken.

The definitive grammars of Latin were written in the 3rd and 4th centuries A.D., when Latin was still a spoken language, and the *lingua franca* of a huge empire. For European scholars, these grammars necessarily became the only authoritative source of information about what was 'correct' and what

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was not. Further, because of the prestige and historical importance of the language, Latin was seen as the 'perfect' language, and its grammar as the model for all other languages. As a result, linguistic descriptions of modern European languages, were heavily influenced even into the 20th century by the attempt to impose conformity with the grammatical system of Latin, and by the belief that the grammar book, rather than the actual users of a language, should determine acceptable standards of use. Language teachers generally lacked oral fluency and made little attempt to achieve it, as their major aim was to initiate their students into the rich heritage of the literatures of the major European languages. The mother tongue was the medium used to teach the rules of the target language and to talk about the literature.

Students who studied by means of these 'classical' methods came typically from a wealthy and leisured intellectual élite in a population which was largely uneducated and illiterate. The movement towards universal education and a need for people who could actively use foreign languages for personal and professional reasons made the grammar-translation approach increasingly inappropriate in the 20th century. Developments in the linguistic sciences and in the psychology of learning also revealed many inadequacies and limitations, particularly in its rule-dominated, deductive, learning approach. The grammar-translation method has virtually disappeared from classrooms where English is the mother tongue, and with it the notion that the literary cultural heritage of Europe should hold a central position in Western education.

The Audio-Lingual Method

World War II was the catalyst in exposing the limitations of the grammar-translation method. This was particularly true in the U.S.A. where involvement in the Pacific area revealed the need for fluent speakers of literally hundreds of languages many of which had no written grammars or dictionaries, and in some cases no written form of the language at all. For the first time, the resources of modern linguistic science, as opposed to the traditional Latin-based approach, were brought to bear on language teaching problems.

Modern linguistics developed out of the attempts by anthropologists to study languages as they were actually spoken, rather than as they in some sense ought to be. The approach was descriptive, not prescriptive. At the same time, developments in psychology had revolutionised approaches to learning. The Behaviourists were particularly influential with their theories of operant conditioning derived from experiments with animals. These theories emphasised learning through experience, and led to methods which emphasised practising target language behaviour until responses became automatic. The combination of structural linguistics and behavioural psychology produced the 'pattern drills' which formed the basis of the audio-lingual method.

Initially this method was spectacularly successful in producing fluent, effective language users. In part the success was comparative. Any approach which involved the use of the target language rather than the mother tongue would be more effective in this regard than the grammar-translation method.

But secondly, the learners were specially selected and highly motivated. They needed to master the target language as quickly as possible. All their time and energy, forty and more hours of instruction per week, and all possible learning resources were brought to bear on the task, including the use of native speaker informants, often on a one-to-one basis.

Later, when the behavioural and structural aspects of the audio-lingual method were adopted widely throughout the education system in U.S.A., and unprecedented numbers of teachers and students were involved in foreign language learning, the picture changed. What had been achieved through full-time intensive study could not be achieved in four or five classroom periods per week. Teaching techniques which had been effective with mature students who had a strong sense of purpose were found by the average school boy and girl to be boring. The numbers enrolling in foreign language classes declined dramatically, and disillusionment with the audio-lingual method set in.

In Europe, techniques based upon the use of the target language (Direct Method) had been used widely in language schools since the late 19th century. The impact of these methods upon school systems was more gradual, and the teaching techniques employed were less extreme (i.e., less rigorous in their application of behaviourist learning theory) but the outcome was no less depressing. As in the U.S.A., language teaching classes were failing to achieve acceptable levels of performance, students found the classes boring, and the numbers of students enrolling for foreign language classes declined.

Communicative Approach

There is no communicative method as such, rather there are a number of principles which can be linked together on the basis of a common theoretical framework. In other respects communicative 'methods' may be very different from each other, depending upon aims and conditions. The common basis lies in developments in sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics. Aims are no longer predetermined; they are derived from an evaluation of learner needs and may therefore vary considerably. In terms of theories of language and language learning, however, there is a general consensus. Firstly, a purely grammatical approach to language is inadequate and inappropriate for language learning programmes. We must take account of the purposes for which language is used in society. Secondly, the general learning theories derived by Behaviourists from studies of animals are seen to be inadequate when dealing with language, precisely the characteristic which differentiates human beings from other species. Communicative teaching derives its inspiration primarily from psycholinguistic studies of first and second language acquisition. These studies have shown the importance above all else of the active involvement of the learner in meaningful and purposeful language use. Thus the communicative approach has reinforced in language teaching the general movement in education from 'teacher-centred' to 'learner-centred' pedagogy.

The assumptions underlying the communicative approach seem sound, and the steps advocated are desirable and should be effective in motivating the language learner and facilitating language learning. However, in practical terms there has been more exhortation than implementation, and communicative 'ideals' seem easier to illustrate through particular learning activities than through teaching and learning programmes as a whole. The difficulties relate primarily to establishing principled means of structuring and grading the content of a communicative programme, particularly for the early stages of language learning, where these requirements may be most important.

Summary and Conclusions

Despite the appearance of confusion, and even of circularity in developments in language teaching methodology, there has in fact been progress. We realise now that there may be many reasons for learning a second language, and that the planning and teaching of language programmes must take account of these reasons. Methods must be suited to learners not learners to methods. Developments in the linguistic sciences, linguistics, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics, have established a firm theoretical foundation for the development of language teaching methods and have given us clear insights into the kinds of language use which are most likely to promote language learning. Thus we can now build more effectively upon the earlier realisation that to master a language, that language must be used and not merely talked about.

Does this mean that our problems are about to be solved? Unfortunately not. In many respects our problems remain exactly what they have always been. The prerequisites for successful second language learning are strong motivation on the part of the learner, and sufficient exposure to the language in use. It is not easy to simulate in the classroom the conditions of 'natural' language acquisition (though the communicative approach comes closer than previous attempts); nor is it the case that all second and foreign language learners are highly motivated. Many are learning a second language because the education system or society requires it of them. No 'method' can overcome apathy in the learner, but again, the communicative approach, by emphasising learner activity and purposeful communication in the target language, appears to offer the best hope to language teachers of overcoming such apathy.

Ultimately, mastery of a second language, even the rather limited mastery which may be all that is possible under normal classroom conditions, can only be achieved through concentrated effort over a long period of time. Regardless of the method, this fact remains and will remain unalterable, and teachers must not attempt to disguise this fact, either from themselves, or from their students.

Reference

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提要

英語教學——從淩亂中找尋法度

語文教師一向受到多種不同教學法的困擾，常常感到無所適從。作者覺得這是很有意義的。英國學者 DAVID WILKINS 說：“沒有最好的教學法。凡能達到教學目標的，就是好的教學法；不能達到目標的，便是壞的教學法。”但作者認爲 DAVID WILKINS 並沒有幫助我們了解某些教學法成功或失敗的原因，語文教師只有從實踐中找尋答案。

作者指出不同教學法的形成和改變，主要受到下列四個因素影響：

一、學生的學習目標

二、學習環境（例如：課室大小、課程長短、學生特點、教師質素等等）

三、語文理論基礎

四、語文學習的理論基礎

前兩個因素是從實際教學方面着眼；後兩個因素，看似脫離實際，但教師對語文及“語文學習”的認識，卻直接影響教學效果。作者以三種教學法爲經，以四個因素爲緯，作出深入的闡釋和討論。

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從語詞的彈性談到詞與詞之間的搭配規律

李家樹

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現代漢語的語詞極富於彈性，可以爲單音也可以爲複音，隨宜而施，並沒有一定的形式。對於語詞這種結構上的特質，郭紹虞《中國語詞之彈性作用》一文中有以下的解釋：

> 此種彈性作用之所由形成，其最重要的原因，恐即由於語言文字之不協調。由中國文字的應用言，似乎依舊保存着單音的特質；——此種情形在文言文的方面尤爲顯著。這即是目治與耳治二種作用不同的關係。耳治的，所重是語詞意義在聲音上的辨析，所以要利用複音語詞；目治的便沒有這種需要了。所以儘有語言中的複音語詞，一待寫入文辭卻可以易爲單音；也有本來是單音節詞，而在語言中必須強爲湊合使成爲複音。這種現象便造成了語詞的流動性。例如"衣""椅"同音，語言中必須有"衣服""椅子"之分，而寫入文辭，即不妨單用一個"衣"或"椅"字。這在同音而不同聲的語詞，猶且如此，何況同音而兼同聲的呢①？

所謂語詞的彈性作用，指語詞的流動性來說，而這種流動性主要是由口語和書面語的不協調造成的。在漢語裏，爲了避免因同音而引起的誤會，單音節詞逐漸加上連綴成爲雙音節詞，這個現象在口語方面尤爲普遍②。但是，在單音節詞前面或後面的連綴，往往不是意義上不可缺少的，只能夠表示某種附加意義，或者起着一點添字補音的作用。如"道路"、"羣衆"、"智慧"、"源泉"、"驅逐"、"捨棄"、"購買"、"生產"、"廣闊"、"偉大"、"親密"、"豐富"等等，就由兩個意義相同或相近的字構成，裏面的連綴和原來的詞根從意義上說是並列的、平等的，可算是兩個詞根。此外，有某些詞是用一個詞根做基礎，然後連上一個意義相近或有關的字作陪補的，如"質量"、"人物"、"國家"、"事情"、"佔有"、"縫製"(以上主體字在前)、"乾淨"、"熱鬧"、"容易"、"溫暖"、"仔細"、"發覺"(以上主體字在後)，雙音化的傾向異常明顯，因爲其中做陪襯的那個連綴的意義完全消失，

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① 見《燕京學報》，第24期，頁2－3，1938年12月。

② 由呂叔湘主編的《現代漢語八百詞》在《現代漢語語法要點》一章內曾經簡略地談到這個問題："現代漢語裏的語詞結構常常受單雙音節的影響，最明顯的是'雙音化'的傾向。比如把單音節的詞湊成雙音節：一個人姓'張'，就叫他'老張'或'小張'，可如果他姓'歐陽'，不叫他'老歐陽'或'小歐陽'。單音的地名總帶上類名，雙音的就不需要，比較'大興、順義'和'通縣、涿縣'，'日本、印度'和'法國、美國'。數目字也有類似的情形，例如一個月的頭十天必得說成'一號'……'十號'，'十一'以後就帶'號'字或者不帶'號'字都可以。"（頁2－3，北京商務印書館，1980年）

所能引起的只是補托的作用，這類連綴又可當詞綴看待了。至於"老師"、"小販"、"烏龜"、"蒼蠅"、"飛禽"、"走獸"（以上連綴在前）、"石頭"、"桌子"、"尾巴"、"鳥兒"、"豆類"、"藥品"、"眼部"、"省分"、"竟然"、"只是"、"桃花"、"柳樹"、"鯉魚"、"肝臟"（以上連綴在後）等等，其中在單音節詞前面或後面加上的連綴，從意義上說根本就起不了什麼區別作用③。為了分化同音詞，口語裏的單音節詞加上連綴成為雙音節詞。同樣，如果這些連綴僅作為陪襯，加上了連綴的雙音節詞在意義上和跟它相當的單音節詞沒有大的分別④，進入書面以後，為了簡潔分明，自然可以隨時恢復原貌。語詞可單可雙，證明在結構上存在着一種彈性⑤。

現代漢語口語和書面語這種不協調性，造成了語詞可單可雙，而意義沒有重大改變，於是在修辭上——特別在音節方面，就有選擇的需要。換句話說，詞和詞之間的搭配，出現了一定的規律，那就是音節配合和結構保持勻稱。

美國語言學家布龍菲爾德(L. Bloomfield)曾經說過，語言形式的配置有四個要素，合起來構成語法：(一)次序，(二)節律，(三)語音改變，(四)選擇⑥。在現代漢語裏，是"次序"和"選擇"在語法上起主要作用，"節律"和"語音改變"的作用還不大重要。撇開"語音改變"的問題不談，"節律"對一個句子、一篇文章的影響，反而是跟這個句子或者這篇文章的通順流暢與否有關。要知道，漢語一字一音，除掉唸輕聲的字以外，字數的安排和音節的安排是一致的，在說話、寫文章的時候，偏重於聲音腔調

3　參考 a 呂叔湘《說"自由"和"粘着"》，見《中國語文》，1962年第1期，頁1－6；(b)呂叔湘《現代漢語單雙音節問題初探》，見《中國語文》，1963年第1期，頁16－22。

4　[illegible]說：單音節詞的內涵少，外延寬，而雙音節詞就內涵多，外延窄。宋文枝《學習詞彙的一例——"深"和"淺"》舉例說："形容謀慮周全，可以用'深遠'；形容根基堅實，感情優厚，可以用'深厚'；形容災難重重，罪惡累累，可以用'深重'；形容意味雋永，耐人尋味，可以用'深長'；形容氣象幽暗，心計不漫露，態度不浮躁，可以用'深沉'；形容文義學理蘊藏在內，不經過層層剖析不能明白，可以用'深奧'；形容關係密切，情感切中，言說中肯，可以用'深切'；形容印象深入頭腦，見解透徹到底，描寫深刻入微，援用法律條文曲折苛刻，可以用"深刻"。看上面八個詞的解釋，我們可以知道複音詞大抵意義上比單音詞明確，同時使用範圍比單音詞小。"（見《語文學習》，1951年第1期，頁16）

5　瑞典高本漢(Bernhard Karlgren)認為"口語上必須把語詞的原料重新改造一番，而文言上是無法把古來單純語詞的語彙加以更改的。文言上這種保守主義，不但不會引起意義的含糊不清，而且可以得着一種簡潔分明的文體。所以中國人在書寫上不喜歡採用新的通俗語體。"（《中國語與中國文》，張世祿譯，頁13，上海商務印書館，1931年）。

6　*Bloomfield L. (1979) Language (14th impression)* George Allen & Unwin, London, chapter 10, pp 158-9

的自然⑦。表面看來，一句話需要用多少字，用什麼詞，全由它的內容決定，似乎跟音節配合的問題拉不上關係。其實並不盡然。語詞的可單可雙，郭紹虞就認爲和漢語的音樂性有關，《漢語語法修辭新探》說：

> 例如就用詞言，就有相當大的靈活性，有時用一個字，即用單音詞，有時用兩個字，即用雙音詞，至於兩個字的複合詞，有時則兩個複合的意義都顧到，有時則只取單義，這種變化往往是配合漢語的音樂性來決定的⑧。

均衡，是美學的基本原則，也是語言藝術的一個原則。選用語詞，如果音節組合適當，語音停頓比較勻稱，是可以形成鮮明的語音節奏的。所以，爲了音節相稱，讀起來順口，在選擇各種同義手段時，必須服從於語言均衡美這一原則，需要單音節配單音節，雙音節配雙音節。譬如"戒驕戒躁"和"力戒驕傲"裏的"驕"、"驕傲"，意義相同，音節不同，調換了來唸，一定拗口。又譬如"臉發燒，心慌，手腳痴笨"，全句失去了平衡，很不協調，不如改爲"臉發燒，心發慌，手腳痴笨"。當代散文家秦牧深諳這個道理，在一篇叫做《榕樹的美髯》的散文裏，他寫下了這麼的一個句子：

> 在巨大的榕樹的樹蔭下開大會，聽報告、學文化、乘涼、抽煙、喝茶、聊天、午睡、下棋，幾乎是任何南方人生活中必曾有過的一課了⑨。

"大會"、"報告"、"文化"是雙音節詞，兩兩相對，而"涼"、"煙"、"茶"、"天"、"睡"、"棋"都是單音節詞，音節配合，所以讀起來額外順口。在《奇樹》裏，也有相類似的句子：

> 正是因爲這種樹耐風、耐熱、耐旱、耐鹹，生命力異乎尋常的旺盛，而又生長得迅速、整齊，木材很有用處，現在華南到處都有它的踪迹了；尤其是雷州半島和海南島，你幾乎四處都可以看見它⑩。

如果這裏的單音節詞換上雙音節詞，又或雙音節詞換上單音節詞，都會抵消了句子原有的音節配合、結構勻稱的優點。

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⑦ 此外，由於漢語語音的特點，如聲、韻結合的規則化，凡音節都有聲調，在大量的詞語結構中具備了"音樂性"。這種"音樂性"在詞語的結構表現在有規律的重疊和有規律的調配。屬於重疊的是音節重迭，聲、韻重迭；屬於調配的是：平仄相對，平仄相配，都不是這篇短文的篇幅所能顧及到的。可參考ⓐ郭紹虞《中國文字可能構成音節的因素》，見《國文月刊》，第42期，頁10－13，1946年4月；ⓑ郭紹虞《中國語詞的聲音美》，見《國文月刊》，第57期，頁8－10，1947年7月；ⓒ徐世榮《漢語詞語結構的音樂性》，見《中國語文》，1959年第2期，頁73－75。

⑧ 上冊，頁233－234，北京商務印書館，1979年。

⑨ 見《長河浪花集》，頁236，北京人民文學出版社，1978年。

⑩ 同⑨，頁234。

古漢語單音節詞比較多，到了現代漢語雙音節詞就大佔優勢⑪。如果文白句式夾雜，往往使音節失調，風格不統一。譬如可以說"不進則退"或"不前進則後退"，如改爲"不進則後退"或"不前進則退"，都會產生上述的毛病，而需要加以壓縮或擴充。一般來說，兩個音步四音節是現代漢語一種主要的節奏傾向。陸志韋《漢語的并立四字格》說：

> 漢語有這麼一種特性：我們聽一段話或是唸一段白話文，老是會覺着句子裏的字（音節）會兩個兩個，四個四個的結合起來。
>
> 武松｜武二郎｜走在｜路上｜防身｜的｜武器｜就是｜這｜一條｜哨棒。｜什麼｜叫｜哨棒啊。｜一根｜木棒｜木質｜堅硬｜分量｜沉重｜能工巧匠｜把｜他｜造成｜的。｜（連闊如先生說《水滸》）
>
> 把這三句話寫下來，劃上長道、短道，可以表明音節的結合。換一個人來劃道兒，地位，長短，不必跟上文全然一致，但是字的兩兩，四四結合起來，還是明顯的⑫。

這固然是受了流傳廣泛的成語四音化的結構所帶來的影響，如"創巨痛深"、"螳臂當車"、"無稽之談"、"彌天大罪"，多於四字則刪，少於四字則補⑬。但是，四音節在言語上兩兩相對，唸起來琅琅上口，實在可以加強語言的表達效果。所以，我們說"互勵"或"互相鼓勵"，不說"互相勵"或"互鼓勵"；說"開荒"或"開墾荒地"，不說"開荒地"或"開墾荒"；說"管理圖書"，不說"管圖書"或"理圖書"。漢語具有要求音節勻稱，成雙成對的特點，因而在配搭詞語的時候，就要根據語意表達的需求，選擇音節相稱，或成雙成對的詞語，使上下文的語句互相照應。劉白羽《青春的閃光》有這麼的一個句子：

> 天將破曉，天安門上地上一片燈光，一片轟響。在這背景之下，我看到一個戴安全帽的青年人向我走來。他有着黑紅的臉膛，明亮的雙眸，他的一隻手把一件上衣搭在肩頭，他昂起胸脯，大踏步的行走。那步伐，那神情，那意態，那心境，處處洋溢着清新，歡樂⑭。

這一段裏"一片"和"燈光"相配，"一片"和"轟響"相配，"一片燈光"又和"一片轟響"相配，"黑紅"和"臉膛"相配，"明亮"和"雙眸"相配，"一件上

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⑪ 參考呂桂申〈試論漢語詞彙的雙音節化〉，見中國人民大學語言文字研究所編《語言文字研究》，頁81－95，1980年10月中國人民大學成立30周年紀念；齊冲天〈漢語單音節詞的構成問題〉，見《語言學論叢》，第8輯，頁118－141，1981年8月。

⑫ 見《語言研究》，1956年第1期，頁15。

⑬ 參考史式《漢語成語研究》，頁158－179，四川人民出版社，1979年。

⑭ 見《劉白羽散文選》，頁182，北京人民文學出版社，1978年。

衣"和"拎在肩頭"相配，"站起"和"胸脯"相配，"踏步"和"行走"相配，"步伐"、"神情"、"意態"、"心境"，兩兩相對，"處處"和"洋溢"相配，"洋溢"和"清新"、"歡樂"相配，"清新"又和"歡樂"相配，於是讀起很順口，充滿音樂的美感。如果說"一片燈"，或說"亮的雙眸"，或說"一件衣拎在肩頭"，或說"大踏步的走"，聽起來就很別扭。在詞語排比時，習慣上總是把音節少的放在前面，而把音節多的放在後面，如：

> 活潑、健康、頑強、挺胸仰面……凡是屬於"動"的，那就未免有人搖頭了，甚至於稱之爲"洋氣"（魯迅《從孩子的照相說起》⑮）。
>
> 圍着湖綠叢叢的，遍是楊柳、馬櫻、馬尾松、銀白楊……花木也多：碧桃、櫻花、丁香、木樨、榆葉梅、太平花……都長得旺的很（楊朔《京城漫記》⑯）。

例一，四個詞語並列，它們音節數目順序是二、二、二、四。例二是二、二、三、三和二、二、二、二、三、三，由少而多，顯得自然。

漢語中有許多變單音節爲雙音節或多音節的方法⑰，掌握了這些方法，在調配音節時就能得心應手。有時爲了音節勻稱，往往把單音節、雙音節、多音節的詞語交錯使用，又使之互相對應，不但協調一致，而且錯綜變化，讀起來起起伏伏，琅琅上口。譬如：

> 現在的事物和我們對於事物的看法都比古代複雜，下筆以前多思索，多醞釀，仍常常只能完成一個圖樣，一個計劃，還是需要下筆以後邊寫邊改來充實，來修正，還是需要寫完以後根據自己的審查和別人的意見來再三修改，來最後寫定（何其芳《談修改文章》⑱）。

不難發現，單音節的"邊"和"邊"、"來"和"來"相呼應；雙音節的"充實"和"修正"相呼應；三音節的"多思索"和"多醞釀"相呼應；四音節的"一個圖樣"和"一個計劃"、"下筆以後"和"寫完以後"、"再三修改"和"最後寫定"相呼應，形成了和諧的音節。

散文的特點是散，但並不是一盤散沙，好像詩歌一樣，也是講求節奏規律的。一些有氣勢，讀來抑揚頓挫的文章，在語言運用方面，特別注重音節的配合問題。作者可能利用排偶或排偶和散句互相交錯而造成節奏感，每個音段內部，節奏又很平穩。爲了提高寫作水平，在做完文章以後，

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⑮ 見《且介亭雜文》，頁63，北京人民文學出版社，1973年。

⑯ 見《楊朔散文選》，頁113，北京人民文學出版社，1978年。

⑰ 如附加法，即在詞前頭或後面，加上一些附加成分，湊上一個音節；和重迭法，把詞重迭。參考(3)。

⑱ 見《西苑集》，頁2，北京人民文學出版社，1952年。

一定要多唸幾遍，看看是否符合漢語節律的要求。通常語法對了，結構完整了，但唸起來還是不妥當，就是因爲詞與詞之間的搭配不符規律而在音節上發生了問題⑲。

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⑲ 參考ⓐ朱光潛《散文的聲音節奏》，見《談文學》，頁98－108，上海開明書店，1940年；ⓑ陳建民《漢語裏的節奏問題》，見《語言教學與研究》，1979年第2期，頁60－69。

Abstract

ON THE FLEXIBILITY OF CHINESE WORD-FORMS AND ITS RELATION TO RULES FOR THE MATCHING OF WORDS

Chinese words (語詞) are basically monosyllabic. Confusion often arises in the spoken mode, however, because of the large number of homophonous forms. Therefore, in speech most of these monosyllabic words are grouped into bisyllabic or polysyllabic combinations to avoid misunderstanding and confusion. Thus there is an incongruity between written and spoken Chinese in that the former makes use of a large number of monosyllabic words while the latter adopts bisyllabic or polysyllabic forms.

Bisyllabic grouping combinations are formed by two monosyllabic words of similar meaning, the addition being before or after the root word, e.g., the word 'rich' (富 fu) is added after 'abundant' (豐 feng). The added word supplements the meaning of the root word and is not indispensable. Chinese word-forms are thus highly flexible because of this possibility of expansion from monosyllabic to bisyllabic and polysyllabic forms,, or vice versa.

Suitable matching of words affects the rhythm of the Chinese language. In most cases, words with the same number of syllables go with each other to produce a pleasing rhythm which contributes to the fluency of a piece of writing.

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LEARNING GRAMMAR

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Introduction

An issue which is constantly revisited in discussions about language teaching is the treatment that should be given to grammar in the classroom. Indeed, intense feelings are often aroused amongst practitioners and theorists when they express their diverse opinions about how it should be presented, how much should be taught, what terminology should be used, whether it should be taught overtly at all, and many other aspects of the problem.

Over the past ten years, however, grammatical aspects of language seem to have figured less prominently in our discussions. Interest has shifted on to functional aspects and more attention has been given to problems associated, for example, with teaching particular communicative functions or enabling learners to develop effective communication strategies. Courses have been designed around categories of meaning, such as functions or notions, and teachers have often been encouraged to teach the language for expressing important functions with as little emphasis as possible on its grammatical structure. In discussing methodology, there has been a marked shift of attention towards activities which are 'communicative', in the sense that the learners' purpose is to convey or understand meanings rather than to practise patterns of language. It would be easy to draw the conclusion, in fact, that grammar is a much less important phenomenon than we used to assume.

Clearly, this emphasis on language in use is to be welcomed, since it reflects a thoroughgoing attempt to adapt language teaching to the communicative goals and needs of the learners. What this emphasis should not lead us to forget, however, is that communicative language use is only possible, now as before, by virtue of the grammatical system and its creative potential. One of the essential characteristics of a language is that it enables speakers to create new utterances, on the basis of a limited set of grammatical rules, to fulfil unpredicted communicative needs. Similarly, it is only because two speakers of a language share the same system of rules that they can interpret what the other is saying. Grammar is a central fact of language use and must, therefore, remain a central concern in discussions about how languages should be taught and learnt.

This does not mean reverting to the kind of grammar-based approach that neglects all other aspects of language. It does mean, however, that we must carefully consider not only functional aspects of language learning, but also grammatical aspects, in attempting to elaborate a 'communicative' approach. In this article, then, I propose to consider some aspects of grammar-learning as they now appear, in the light of the various new insights which have emerged over the past decade. Naturally, the topic is so vast that the discussion must be limited in scope. I propose, therefore, to focus in particular on the teaching and learning of grammar in the classroom, rather than on problems of syllabus design. First, I will look at two kinds of 'learning' which it is important to distinguish. I will then consider two senses in which the term 'grammar' can be understood. This will lead to a discussion of four approaches which teachers may take to the development of grammatical competence in the classroom. The four approaches are not mutually exclusive and a teacher may include all of them in his or her overall repertoire.

Learning

An important distinction has long been made in learning psychology between conscious, controlled learning, which is often the focus of deliberate instruction, and subconscious, spontaneous learning, which occurs as a by-product of some other activity. Thus, there are many abstract scientific concepts that a child only learns through instruction at school, but a multitude of other basic concepts about the world are acquired without conscious thought, as a result of experience in everyday situations. In language learning, this distinction is of considerable significance. Traditionally, second languages have been taught in schools through deliberate instruction in which a teacher focusses on relevant features of the language and attempts to control the steps by which learners master them. Outside schools, however, we see models of a very different kind of language learning: languages are learnt spontaneously (e.g., by children or immigrants) as a result of engaging in situations where communication has to take place.

Harold Palmer recognised the importance of these two kinds of language learning in 1922, when he emphasised that we learn both through our 'studial' capacities and through our 'spontaneous' capacities. In recent years, the distinction has been the subject of extensive discussion, partly as a result of studies which have examined how people learn in natural settings (see e.g., Dulay, Burt, Krashen, 1982; Littlewood, 1984). In order to emphasise the distinction, many writers now reserve the term 'learning' for conscious learning and use the term 'acquisition' for spontaneous, natural learning processes.

When we talk of 'learning grammar', then, we need to keep these differences clearly in mind. At the one extreme, we are all familiar with the idea of learning grammar (e.g., sentence patterns or verb forms) by focussing conscious attention on it. We are aware, too, of the difficulties that many learners have in grasping, remembering and applying rules which are presented to them as abstract principles, even when these principles are illustrated by copious examples. The faculties required for this kind of grammar-learning may bear more resemblance to those required for, say, the learning of mathematical formulae, than to the other kind of learning (through spontaneous processes) mentioned above (cf. Genesee, 1976).

It is this second kind of learning ('acquisition') that we do not always think of immediately when we talk of 'learning grammar', but which we must include as an important part of our conceptual framework when discussing the place of grammar-learning in second language teaching. This kind of learning proceeds through subconscious strategies such as generalisation of rules or transfer of rules from the mother tongue (cf. Littlewood, 1984, for a survey of research in this area). As we shall see in the next section, it results in a large number of rules which would be classified as 'wrong' according to the native speakers' system but which gradually become adjusted and refined in the light of further experience (perhaps, too, in the light of the first, conscious kind of learning).

There is still considerable uncertainty about how the two kinds of learning relate to each other inside the learner's mind and how a teacher should best integrate 'learning' and 'acquisition' opportunities within a course. Some argue that it is only what learners have 'acquired' that becomes part of their internal system which is used for communication. This has led to experimental approaches such as the Natural Approach of Krashen and Terrell (1983) or Communicational Language Teaching as devised by Prabhu in Bangalore (described in Johnson, 1982; and Brumfit, 1984). Others, while agreeing that spontaneous communication depends on rules which learners have internalised at a deep, subconscious level, believe that conscious learning can be the first stage in an internalisation process that proceeds through practice activities of varying degress of creativity (cf. Littlewood, 1981; Rivers, 1981). We should also note that the distinction between the two kinds of learning is less clear-cut than the 'learning/acquisition' dichotomy would seem to suggest, since learning may take place with consciousness of varying degress. Most psychological evidence suggests, in fact, that consciously and subconsciously learned material mingle and influence each other in the human mind (see for example Rivers, 1980), in which case second-language teachers can justifiably aim to integrate conscious and subconscious learning experiences within their courses.

Grammar

Like 'learning', 'grammar' can refer to more than one kind of phenomenon. Two are particularly important for the present discussion.

In what is probably its most commonly used sense, the grammar of a language is the descriptive analysis of the various parts of its system, as contained in so-called 'grammar books' or in sections of textbooks. In this sense, we can claim that many people know 'little or no grammar', meaning that they have never been taught to analyse consciously how their language works. In this sense, too, we can argue about whether the teaching of 'grammar' has any contribution to make to the contribution of communication skills.

In the second sense of the term, the grammar of a language is the system of rules which underlies it and which every native speaker internalises. If a person does not 'know' the rules in an intuitive, subconscious way, he or she cannot produce new utterances to express meanings or make sense of the utterances produced by others. In this sense, then, it would be nonsense to say that some speakers 'know no grammar' or that grammar is not a necessary component of a second language course: knowledge of the grammar, however limited or faulty, is the essential condition for using the language in order to communicate.

In the second sense, it is common to talk of language learners as possessing their own idiosyncratic grammar (or 'interlanguage'), which is simplified by comparison with the adult native speaker system. This grammar may generate utterances such as 'I no want it' which, though obviously incorrect in terms of our *first* sense of grammar, would not necessarily be called incorrect in terms of our second sense: it is simply a fact that, at certain stages of development, learners' internal grammars contain rules that produce utterances like this. Naturally, we hope that the development will continue until the learner's internal rule coincides with that of the native speaker.

In general, when grammar is used in the first sense (i.e., to mean a descriptive analysis), learning it would entail mostly processes of the conscious, deliberate kind. When grammar is used in the second sense (i.e., to mean an internalised system of rules), learning of the second kind ('acquisition') would be involved. The position is complex, however, since many learning activities (e.g., drills or question-and-answer activity) are organised explicitly around a pattern derived from the grammar (in the first sense) but are intended to induce learners to incorporate this rule into their own grammar (in the second sense) at the deep, subconscious level. In this process there seems to be a subtle interplay between different kinds of 'learning' and different senses of 'grammar'.

This last point brings us back to the controversy that I mentioned at the end of the previous section: to what extent can teaching activities enable consciously learned grammar to become part of the learner's own subconscious grammatical system? The answer depends not only (as mentioned earlier) on the relationship between 'learning' and 'acquisition', but also on the extent to which the two kinds of 'grammar' are related to each other. Prabhu maintains, for example, in his rationale for the Bangalore project, that the way linguists analyse and organise a language in grammar-books may be so different from the way learners need to grasp it and organise it in their minds that our attempts to sequence it or teach it deliberately are just as likely to do harm as to do good. We should therefore allow them complete freedom to organise the language themselves through their own natural learning capacities. Most teachers and methodologists would not accept this claim in its entirely but would agree, nonetheless, that it is important to provide ample opportunities (e.g., through communicative activity and exposure to meaningful language) for learners to organise their own internal grammar of the language.

Approaches to learning grammar in the classroom

With these various distinctions in mind, we can now look at four approaches which teachers often take to the learning of grammar in the classroom. The first two have been with us for many decades, while the second two have become established in the context of the 'communicative' approach. They do not exclude each other and may be used by the same teacher at different times, even within the same lesson.

It will be convenient to use the following notation for the notions discussed so far (remembering, however, that such clear divisions cannot be made in practice):

Learning 1 = learning of the conscious, deliberate kind
Learning 2 = learning of the subconscious kind ('acquisition')
Grammar 1 = grammar as a descriptive analysis of rules
Grammar 2 = grammar as an internalised system of rules

(*a*) The first approach involves Learning 1 and Grammar 1. It is what we have traditionally understood as 'learning grammar': a teacher or textbook provides rules and explanations, which the students are expected to learn. 'Learning' may here be simply a question of memorising rules and/or examples in a rote fashion or (more usefully, of course) it may also mean being able to apply the rule in order to create new examples. The assumption is that the ability to apply a rule consciously can eventually lead, through practice, to an ability to use it automatically in communication. The doubts about this assumption (which I have indicated above) do not disprove it. However, they serve to emphasise the limitations of this kind of grammar learning and the need to complement it (in situations where it is used) with other kinds, such as the other three which will be mentioned in this section.

(*b*) The second approach is also an established part of the traditional repertoire: through intensive practice activities (such as drills or question-and-answer activity), learners are expected to assimilate grammatical patterns which the teacher has selected and presented to them. Often, of course, this approach is used in conjunction with the first one.

In terms of our distinctions, this approach involves elements of both Learning 1 and Learning 2. Learners are often conscious of practising specific, pre-determined structures. More and more, however, they are expected to lose this consciousness and absorb the creative rule into their subconscious system. There are elements of both kinds of grammar, too. Grammar 1 is the starting point, since the structure has been taken out of some prior description of the language rather than emerging as the outcome of the learners' own strategies for making sense of the language. However, the purpose of the activities is that the underlying rules should become part of the learners' Grammar 2 (a purpose which may often not be fulfilled, however).

(*c*) The third approach has been developed particularly in connection with function-based courses, where it enables teachers to introduce comparatively complex language for expressing useful communicative functions at an earlier stage than would otherwise have been possible. For example, if a teacher wishes the learners to be able to request articles in shops early in their course, he or she may present them with 'Could I have . . . , please?' as a fixed item, without any mention of (say) rules for using modals or forming interrogatives. It is a 'slot-and-filler' approach to grammar: learners are not so much using the system of the language as filling slots in the prefabricated patterns. Later, of course, the teacher may break the pattern down so that learners gain insight into how it is internally structured. For example, the function of 'asking permission' may involve using other verbs after 'Could I . . . ?' (e.g., 'Could I leave now, please?'); 'making requests' may bring in 'Could you . . . ?' and 'Can you . . . ?'; 'giving permission' may involve the declarative 'You can . . .'; 'speaking about ability' will bring in the other persons of 'can' (e.g., 'I can . . .', 'They can . . .'), and so on. At some point, of course, the teacher may decide to highlight the grammatical structure more specifically, by using the first or second approaches described above.

The language of fixed items with slots has an equivalent in first language acquisition and natural second language learning by children. In addition to developing their own grammatical systems (i.e., Grammar 2), children often learn pre-fabricated utterances which enable them to communicate certain important meanings. For example, one child used 'I know how to . . .' (with various verbs in the slot) long before he had developed any actual rule which could produce that pattern creatively.

In the second language classroom, this approach (like approach (*b*)) seems to stand on the borderline between Learning 1 and Learning 2. The learners may well focus their attention on the forms they are learning and on the operations which they are performing. In view of the limited structural nature of these operations, however, they are often not conscious of the grammatical rules as such. There is considerable scope for their natural learning strategies to operate on the pieces of language which they encounter, leading them to construct (subconscious) rules of their own. Indeed, depending on the extent to which the teacher complements this approach with elements from (*a*) or (*b*), it might be left almost entirely to learners to elaborate their own generalisations about the grammatical relationships which exist between, say, 'Could I . . .', 'Can I . . .', 'Shall I . . .', 'I can . . .', 'We can . . .', and a host of other features in the language which occur in connection with the various functions. The operation of natural strategies may be helped by the general emphasis on language as a means of communication.

There seem to be elements of both kinds of grammar involved, too. The language patterns themselves are drawn from a prior descriptive analysis of the language (Grammar 1). However, as with approach (*b*), intensive practice of the language is intended to move it into the learner's underlying

Grammar 2. In addition, as I mentioned in the previous paragraph, learners are likely to be engaged in constructing rules of their own in their subconscious, acquired system.

(*d*) The fourth approach moves us a step further along what is, in effect, a continuum from a demand for conscious, analytical processes, to a reliance on subconscious, creative processes in the language of grammar. The aim in this approach is to stimulate natural, subconscious learning (Learning 2 or 'acquisition') by involving learners in communication situations comparable to those encountered by language learners outside the classroom. These include both situations where learners are expected to produce language themselves and situations where they are simply required to comprehend. As outside the classroom, learners are expected to elaborate and refine their own internal system through interacting with the language. That is, we are concerned here entirely with the development of Grammar 2.

As I have already mentioned, one of the strongest trends in language-teaching methodology over the past decade has been an increasing belief in the importance of communication (productive and receptive) not only as a goal but also as a means for learning. A lot of methodological discussion has centred on ways of creating different kinds of communication situation in the classroom (cf. Littlewood, 1981; Johnson, 1982). We have seen, too, that there have been notable attempts (e.g., the Natural Approach and Communicational Language Teaching) to base the whole teaching methodology on the fourth approach: the teacher's task is primarily to stimulate communicative activity with the second language.

We know very little about the precise nature of the learning processes which are triggered off when learners are involved in communicative interaction, except that they involve strategies such as generalisation, transfer and imitation. Even more important for teaching, our knowledge is limited about the essential factors in the situation which cause learning to take place. Some elements which are generally regarded as crucial are:

(i) 'comprehensible input' (cf. Krashen, 1982), i.e., learners should be exposed to language which they understand;

(ii) some communicative need for the language within the immediate situation;

(iii) positive attitudes towards the language and the language situation.

'Learning grammar', in this fourth approach, is above all a process of organic growth which demands the full involvement and agreement of the learner.

Conclusion

In the days of grammar-translation methods, approach (*a*) was supreme. Since then, the balance of emphasis has moved to (*b*), then (*c*) and (*d*). That is, there has been a growing desire to relate grammar-learning to communicative language use, to emphasise Grammar 2 and exploit Learning 2. This is understandable in view of our growing realisation that if they are to

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use language creatively, learners must internalise the system that underlies it until its rules form part of their subconscious mental apparatus.

The most effective route to this internalisation is still a matter for intensive debate and probably will always remain so. What we have seen, over the past few decades, is a gradual increase in the repertoire of available techniques for helping learners towards it. Some of these techniques may be more or less suited to particular kinds of learner. For example, the first approach is clearly less appropriate to younger learners who find it difficult to grasp rules in an abstract way. However, it may be an effective way for older, gifted learners to gain access to the system. For communicative ability to develop, a teacher cannot neglect to use techniques which involve Learning 2 and the growth of Grammar 2. In the present state of our knowledge, however, all four approaches outlined in this article are available for teachers to integrate into their repertoire and into the courses which they teach, all four capable of contributing in their own ways to the development of the learners' knowledge of the language.

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48

提要

語法的學習

現代語文教學法的重點已從句式練習轉移到傳意技能的訓練。作者指出人們運用語言溝通，仍然要依靠一定的語法結構和從這些結構中轉化出來的句子。作者分析了現行四種語文教學法與兩種學習方式（即自覺學習和不自覺學習）的關係。一般人認爲語法就是：（一）人們刻意地分析語言所得到的法則（G1）；（二）語文的內在法則（G2），就是以該語言爲母語的人便能自然掌握的。作者在結論中建議語文教師應針對學生的程度和需要，靈活地運用各種教學技巧，注意不自覺學習與語文內在法則的重要性，使學生得以利用自己的能力來學習語文，表達自己。

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談「多讀」

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「學生中文程度低落」，這句話十幾年來不時聽到人說，最近官方也不能不公開承認了。所謂學生，當然包括小學、中學和大學生；但實際不只是學生，傳播界、娛樂界、街招廣告以至許多報刊，中文程度又何曾不低落？祇因普通各行業工作者已經不是學生，目標自然放在還背書包的學生身上罷了。

教師來自學生，做學生時中文程度低落，到了搖身一變而爲教師的時候，也不會高明到那裏去，除非不斷自我進修，充實中國語文方面的學識，纔無愧於「抗顏爲人師」。香港相當注重師資訓練，官辦的教育學院加上語文教育學院，一共多至五間，此外兩間大學也有教育學院。在這個小小的地方，師資訓練機構多至七個，應該提高教師質素是毫無問題的了。然而在中文方面卻大不然。

教學中文不像其他科。教其他科只要學識比課程需要的高一層（當然愈高愈好）就可以應付了。教中文卻要高幾層纔能夠左右逢源，應付裕如。比方現行的各種小學中文教科書絕大多數都有問題，課文的文章修詞有問題，練習的方式和材料也有問題，如果你的語文修養不高，怎麼能夠給學生指出謬誤，講明原因，加以矯正？你自己的文章寫得不夠水準，甚至句法似通非通，還不免寫錯字和別字，怎麼能夠把學生的文章批改得頭頭是道？然而師資訓練只注重教學方法，不注重「候任教師」的語文修養。也許有，不過應個景兒罷了。語文修養不行，就算學了幾十段教學法，精通教育理論、兒童心理，讀過幾百部語法修辭的書，也不管用。老話說，「巧婦難爲無米之炊」，目前的師資訓練就是教你怎樣「煲冇米粥」（廣州俗語）。要米是你自己的事，必須辛苦耕耘，而且堅持下去。

耕耘之道不外多讀、多寫，還要加上多說。多讀、多寫雖是老生常談，捨此別無良方。語文修養是要一點一滴累積起來的，古語說：「今夫水，一勺之多，及其不測，黿鼉蛟龍魚鱉生焉，貨財殖焉。」這是最好的比喻。閱讀和寫作互爲因果，閱讀是吸收，寫作是發表。我們經常看書，不僅獲得廣博的知識，擴大視野，豐富人生；同時也吸收了用字、造語、修辭、剪裁、布置、風格各方面的寫作技巧。讀書越多，愈能夠把吸收到的東西消化，變成自己的材料，摸索出寫作的正確道路。這條路，惟有從多讀裏體會、領悟出來，沒有捷徑可走。我們常常在書店裏看到什麼「文章作法」、「作文百日通」、「作詩百日通」、「修辭學」……等等，似乎

學了就會修辭，吟詩，作文了。事實上，如果書讀得少，不但「百日」不通，「萬日」也不會通的；而且肚裏沒有墨水，也無文可作、無辭可修，還談什麼「文章作法」和「修辭學」？徒亂人意而已。如果書讀得多，下筆自然斐然成章，要那些東西幹嗎？

古人只有「修辭立其誠」的話，教人寫文章要講眞話，可沒有「修辭學」這個新興的玩意。司馬遷、班固、陶淵明、李白、杜甫、唐宋八大家、宋詞四大家、元曲四大家……他們根本不知道什麼叫做「修辭學」。近代雖然有了，相信魯迅、聞一多、朱自清、老舍……以至最近來港的巴金先生，都沒有搞過這一套。記得三年前音韻學、語言學大師訪問香港大學，在一個座談會上有人問他對於陳望道的《修辭學發凡》有什麼意見，他說：「我沒有看過這本書。」這是我親耳聽到的。我三十年前看過這本書，覺得它不是沒有學術價値，但對於寫作卻幫不了忙，裏面所說的這是什麼修辭法、那是什麼修辭法，很快就忘掉。想不到現行的中學教科書不知爲了甚麼奉爲至寶，以致教師講課時老是討論這是什麼「法」、那是什麼「法」，以爲有了這些「法寶」就會做文章了。古人說：「未有學養子而後嫁者也。」雖然現在知識發達，待字閨中時學一點做媽媽的常識是好事；但學寫文章確實不能「學養子而後嫁」。我在這裏節外生枝說了許多話，是想奉勸各位老師教學時不要被引入死胡同，僵化了活潑的語文教學，就不免誤人子弟了。自己學寫作也不可倒果爲因，還是以多讀爲主，「修辭學」可以作爲學術研究，那是將來的事。

所謂多讀只是一個空洞的概念。讀什麼書？教師工作繁忙，怎樣編排時間來讀書？我想這是沒有「標準答案」的問題，不但沒有絕對的，相對的也沒有。從張之洞的《書目答問》到梁啓超和胡適，都介紹過一大堆名著教人閱讀，相信仔細唸過以後對於學識和寫作裨益很大。可是，時代不同，各人的閱讀興趣不同，而且我們的中文底子比幾十年前的人差了一大截，他們看得懂的我們看不懂。雖然都是要籍、名著，我們卻無福消受。於是又有不少人寫了教人讀書的書，這個教人這樣讀，那個教人那樣讀；這邊提議多讀新文學，那邊提議多讀有益身心的作品……令人眼花撩亂，無所適從。

我主張讀書要順其自然，既不必規定範圍或講條理系統，也不必規定時間來督促自己。因爲看書是一種樂趣，不是爲了考試或「黃金屋」、「顏如玉」。沒有目的，只爲興趣，這是最寫意不過的事。對於感覺興趣的讀物，你可以在茶餘飯後看，躺在牀上看（據說這樣不衞生），甚至上毛厠時看……今天看一點，明天看一點，日積月累，時間就很多了。對於不感興趣的或看不懂的讀物，不要勉強看下去，暫時拋開，等將來再看。有的

需要仔細讀，有的不妨走馬看花。由於接觸的書本越來越多，穿針引線，互相關係，視野日漸擴大，求知慾日漸旺盛，理解力日漸高明，這時候無論拿起什麼書都覺得趣味盎然，鍥而不捨，也就養成了終身以之的讀書習慣，受用不盡。這種順其自然的辦法似乎雜亂無章，很不科學；但語文修養是彼此相通的，修養到了某一階段，自然「柳暗花明又一村」，豁然貫通起來。問題在於有沒有恒心毅力堅持到這一階段。

讀書當然要有選擇，可取的十分多。依我看，除了那些文字水平低劣、內容庸俗低級的以外，無書不可讀。經子史集、新舊文學固然可讀，就是被道學先生目爲誨淫誨盜的也可以讀。思想成熟、理智發達的教師看了《金瓶梅》，不會被潘金蓮、西門慶勾引，看了《紅樓夢》不會念念不忘賈寶玉初試雲雨情，看了《蜀山劍俠》不會跑到峨嵋山尋仙訪道……有什麼關係呢？總言之，語文修養的初步應該從培養自己的讀書興趣和習慣出發，從容自得，不拘一格。說不定你現在喜歡「的麼嗎呢」，將來却愛上「之乎也者」。再說，無論「之乎也者」或「的麼嗎呢」，寫作技巧總是萬變不離其宗的。用不到刻意學習那些優秀的寫作技巧，讀得多，自然而然的會吸收過來，寫作時自然而然的會流露出來，是很自然的。

在這需要特別一提的是，許多中文老師不熟識簡體字，絕對不行！因爲國內大量書刊都用簡體字，不識就看不通，局限了自己的閱讀範圍。我們知道，從甲骨文、鐘鼎文、篆書、隸書、到楷書，筆畫一直由繁變簡。因爲時代愈後文化愈發達，應用文字的機會愈多，爲了節省書寫時間，由繁化簡是必然的。所以《說文解字序》說秦始皇時改革文字，將大篆簡化爲小篆，到了隸書，又進一步簡化。簡字歷史久遠，例如《說文解字》：「蟁、齧人飛蟲，從䖵，民聲；𧒂，蟁或從昏，以昏時出也；蚊、俗蟁，從虫，從文。」同一個字三個寫法，看來是先有𧒂字，減筆作蟁；再減作蚊，筆畫減少得多，不合造字原則，成爲所謂俗寫字，即簡體字。《說文》裏只有舉出十幾個俗字，後世愈來愈多，如体、床、两、条、却、着……等等，以前叫做俗字不稱簡體字罷了。一般人誤以爲現在大陸通行的簡體字都是新造的，所以心理上有難以接受的感覺。其實在這批簡體字中，有些是古字，如礼、与、众、从……等（爲了避免排字上的困難不便多舉）。有些是宋元以來行之已久，我們不但認識而且常寫的，如國、門（包括門部的字）、處、執、熱、參、獨、愛、聲、戀、變、亂、實、燈、爐、還、邊、過……等等，很多很多，我們不是常常用筆畫少的簡字嗎？縱然是新造的，大多數還是按照本字加以省改，閱讀時參照上文下理也不難辨識。所以我們不必拿起「簡化字表」逐個記住，只要多讀，自然貫通。我主張香港人要多識簡體字，內地人要多識繁體字。至於簡體字也有不合理的，那是另外一回事，文字到底是約定俗成的，無從反對。

再說，新加坡的政治體制和中國完全不同，但在推行簡化漢字以後，起先還有少量簡體字和中國不同，現在早已全部認同了。文字只是語言的符號，溝通思想情感的工具，它本身並沒有政治性，認識這一點，就不會歧視簡體字了。

本來還想談談關於寫作和從說到寫的問題，限於時間和篇幅，以後有機會再談。

Abstract

ON EXTENSIVE READING

The author believes that the standard of Hong Kong students' Chinese is falling. It is his opinion that not only students, but people from all walks of life, face the same problem. In particular, he considers that the teachers' standard of Chinese is deteriorating. Although there are plenty of teacher training institutions in Hong Kong, their emphasis on teaching methodology does not help would-be-teachers to improve their standard of language. There is no shortcut to learning language. The right way is to read more, write more and speak more. Books on language learning such as 'Guides to Essay Writing' and 'Rhetoric', are of no use. Most famous writers, including both classical writers and modern writers, did not learn 'rhetoric', but still managed to write great books. The author thus advises his readers to avoid this kind of book and to read extensively if they want to better their standard of language. Instead of making concrete reading schedules and plans, his advice is to make the best of every opportunity which presents itself. In learning a little at a time, gradually there will be a considerable improvement in one's standard of language. The question of how to choose the right books seems, comparatively, less important. In the final analysis, the author reminds his readers to acquaint themselves with the simplified Chinese characters, so that they can read books from Mainland China.

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ENGLISH LANGUAGE TESTING IN HONG KONG PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Michael Milanovic

When a syllabus is revised, it is often seen as an unwelcome change by many teachers because the revision will require familiarisation with the new provisions and new textbooks, the preparation of new teaching materials and the design and preparation of new testing instruments. We should, indeed, be thankful that syllabus changes do take place because they demand that we rethink our position as teachers. They oblige us to take into account recent developments in language teaching, to up-date some of our views, to evaluate and devise new materials. All of this, though time consuming, is vital to our continued professional and intellectual development.

Teaching and testing are frequently seen as two entirely separate disciplines. Such a view is misleading because there is undoubtedly a close and interactive relationship between teaching and testing. One reason for the apparent lack of fit between the two may be the teacher's personal experience of what tests are, often based on recognised public examinations or other tests that the teachers sat themselves. In either case classroom tests produced on the basis of such experience are unlikely to reflect the methodological approach of any recent syllabus. There is a real danger that while teaching practice and materials change and develop, the tests that are used to evaluate the performance of pupils might not change in the same way. Such a state of affairs could have disastrous consequences. Just as materials and teaching should reflect the syllabus, tests need to reflect both the teaching methodology and the syllabus.

While we must recognise that the 1981 primary English syllabus in Hong Kong (C.D.C., 1981)[1] is only a tentative step, it has a significantly different focus from the previous syllabus (C.D.C., 1976). The 1976 syllabus reflects the language teaching theory and practice of the early seventies adequately, whereas the 1981 version takes into account more recent developments focussing in particular on the purposive nature of language as a tool for meaningful communication. In their introduction the writers of the 1981 syllabus state:

> '. . . meaningful use of language is given equal emphasis to the learners' mastery of the forms of the language.' (C.D.C., 1981:5)

The writers maintain that in earlier syllabuses much less attention was paid to communicative function.

> 'An approach which takes these functions into account must provide the learners with the opportunities to use what they learn as they learnt it, in a meaningful way, as well as using what they have learnt in a wide variety of communicative activities.' (ibid.)

Not only must the language activities in the classroom be seen to have a meaningful purpose, the testing measures must be equally meaningful if they are to be valid.

The writers of the 1981 syllabus emphasise the importance of clearly formulated objectives that specify what the aims of the language programme are, and the types of activities that the pupils will need English for. This approach is radically different from one that defines objectives in terms of grammatical structures and linguistic skills alone. The syllabus writers claim that an approach that takes into account the learners' ultimate needs in using the language is an essential prerequisite to second language teaching programmes and further argue that this will lead to the production of teaching materials that will be of greater relevance to the pupils than materials that are based solely on linguistic criteria. They hold that this will lead to the 'sort of teaching in which language form and communicative purpose go hand-in-hand.' (C.D.C., 1981:6) This being the case, the sorts of tests produced must also take into account features of communication in addition to grammatical criteria.

While the syllabus writers draw a distinction between *needs* and *interests*, they admit that this is an arbitrary distinction. However, they argue the approach they advocate is based on:

> 'The general learning principle that learning will be most successful if the learner receives immediate and continued reward for having invested time and effort in the learning process. The following are some of the conditions associated with such reward:
>
> (i) that the activity or learning tasks which the learner undertakes are within his capacity to carry out with some degree of success;
> (ii) that each learning task can immediately be applied to do something which could not have been previously done;
> (iii) that each learning task is real for the learner (and not part of a long-range task understood only by the teacher).' (C.D.C., 1981:19)

The writers of the 1981 syllabus outline twelve principles upon which the syllabus is based. In brief, they say that: the interest of the learner should be of central concern since this is an aid to motivation; language should be taught realistically and the activities used should incorporate meaningful communication activities; the needs of the student must be taken into consideration both in teaching and materials design; there should be an immediate result to the activities; interaction needs to be a focus of the teaching; the language taught should be real language and not contrived for the purposes of language teaching; the structural content and ordering of the syllabus will be dictated by the nature of the activities and tasks and not by the grammar book; the language skills should be taught in an integrated way rather than separately; English should be used at all times in the classroom; the language taught should be contextualised so that the meaning is clear from the context; the language should be recycled, thus reinforcing and extending the pupils' mastery.

It is essential that we keep these principles in mind when producing tests that are intended to evaluate the pupils' progress. The items need to be contextualised, interesting, realistic and meaningful. They should reflect the needs of the pupils, where possible, if they are in a task-based format. They should be interactive in the sense that they will involve the pupils in handling tasks that require decision making and the production of language where appropriate. Real, as opposed to contrived, exemplifications of the language should be used. This is not to say that texts should not be simplified, since, clearly, at primary level they will have to be. However, care should be taken not to use language that has been produced solely to test a particular structure and that is, as a result, completely contrived.

Approaches to testing will inevitably need to be modified with the introduction of the new syllabus. If we compare the sections on testing in the two syllabuses, we will see that they are different both in content and extent. It is interesting to note that testing gets very little coverage in the 1976 syllabus. Indeed there are only a few lines devoted to the subject:

> 'Informal and occasionally formal tests on all aspects of English are obvious and necessary, the emphasis being on the former. It must, however, be clearly recognised that the purpose of testing is to provide the teacher with information as to the pupils' progress and weaknesses to enable further lessons to be planned. Tests are of no direct benefit to the pupils: teaching and testing should not be confused.' (C.D.C., 1976:23)

Reference is made to 'all aspects of English' but no further explanation of what these aspects are is provided. They can be inferred from the rest of the syllabus as, predominantly, the grammatical features of the language. Tests are supposed to be for the teacher alone and of no direct benefit to the pupils. This overlooks the role that classroom tests can play in the reinforcement of learning and as an aid to motivation. While the diagnostic value of tests to the teacher is acknowledged, their diagnostic value to the pupils is ignored. Tests can help for example, in the development of self-appraisal skills, even at a very elementary level. Such skills are vital to successful learning.

The 1981 syllabus has a whole chapter devoted to testing. The writers draw an important distinction between formal tests, which take place at the end of the year, and those which are an integral part of the teaching programme. They write:

> 'What follows does not relate to official or 'public' tests . . . but to the element of evaluation which forms part of any language teaching programme in the classroom . . . Such testing, then, is diagnostic and forward-looking rather than an assessment of what has been achieved in the teaching programme to date. It is best conducted informally as a continuous process forming an integral part of the whole programme, one which takes into account all the language skills, the ability to receive and produce correct and meaningful messages in both spoken and written media.' (C.D.C., 1981:79)

The writers of the 1981 syllabus retain the view that test results are principally for the use of the teacher in planning future lesson content. However, they also state that tests can be a motivating factor for pupils, provided that they give the pupils a sense of achievement in using the target language. We must accept the fact that the concept of testing has many negative associations in the minds of pupils, and rightly so. It often makes sense therefore, to avoid the term 'test' as far as is possible.

The syllabus writers emphasise the point that attention needs to be paid to selecting test items of both form and function:

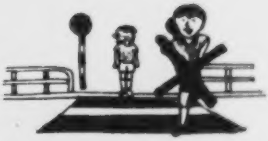
> 'In the past, a great deal of language testing has tended to place much the greatest emphasis on the learner's knowledge of the forms of the target language; his ability to make use of what he knows to achieve some communicative purpose has consequently been neglected. It is clear that both of these elements are important in language learning and both should be tested.' (C.D.C., 1981:79)

The writers do not suggest that grammar can be ignored in language tests; they do, however, say that other aspects of communication should also be tested. Such aspects will include, among other things, using language appropriately, listening in order to do something, reading in order to do something and speaking in order to achieve an outcome of some sort.

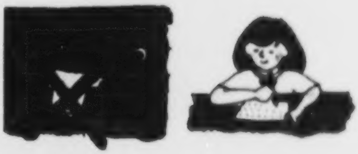
Grammar, vocabulary and reading

Example 1

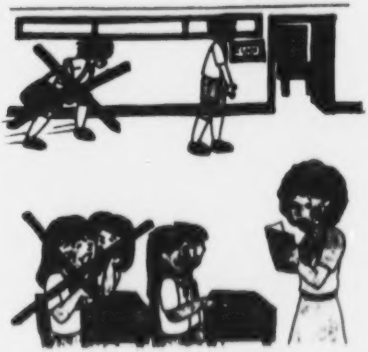
Materials are always a worry when it comes to test design. The text book and activity books can be a useful source of ideas for items.



Don't __1__ across the road.
Stop and look.



Don't write __2__ the wall.
Write in your __3__.



Don't __4__ in school.
Always walk.

__5__ to the teacher.
Please __6__ talk.

Fig. 1: from Howe, 1984 (Book 3, page 35)

This blank filling exercise was adapted from one of the popular primary courses—*Active English Today* (Howe, 1984). Using a passage is much more effective in testing than the use of single sentences. This is because the passage provides a considerable amount of context. The pupils have to develop a range of skills in order to cope with the activity and they also have to *produce* language. In example 1 the pupils have not only a verbal context to draw on, they can also use the illustrations.

Care must be taken to make sure that the difficulty level of this sort of passage does not exceed the pupils' reading capability. This may involve some simplification of material.

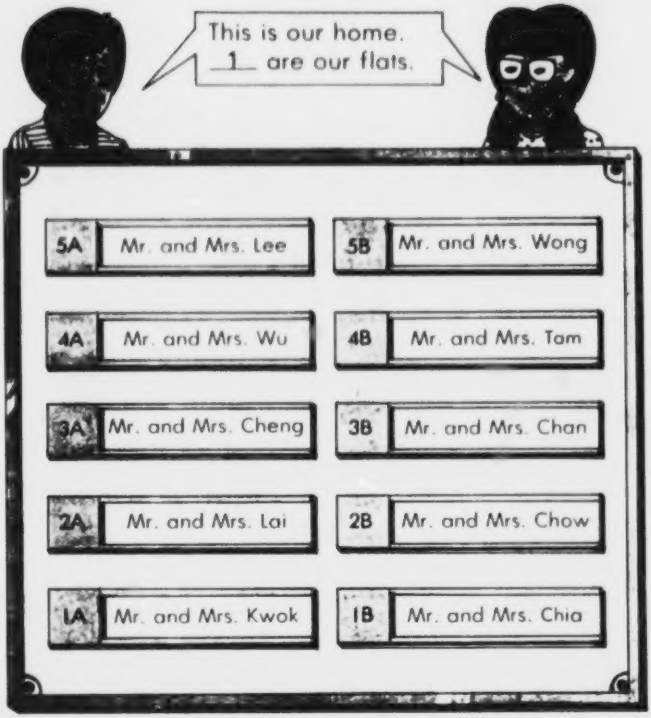
Example 2

Ann __1__ in the New Territories.
She __2__ up at ten to seven.
She __3__ to school __4__ train.

Fig. 2: from Howe, 1984 (Book 3, page 73)

Even very short passages can be used, as in this example. However, there is still sufficient context to make the item meaningful.

Example 3


This is our home.
__1__ are our flats.
5A Mr. and Mrs. Lee
5B Mr. and Mrs. Wong
4A Mr. and Mrs. Wu
4B Mr. and Mrs. Tam
3A Mr. and Mrs. Cheng
3B Mr. and Mrs. Chan
2A Mr. and Mrs. Lai
2B Mr. and Mrs. Chow
1A Mr. and Mrs. Kwok
1B Mr. and Mrs. Chia

Our flat is __2__ Mr. and Mrs. Wong's flat and Mr. and Mrs. __3__ flat.
The Wongs are __4__ friends.
Their flat is __5__ us.
The Chans __6__ our friends, too.
__7__ flat is under us.

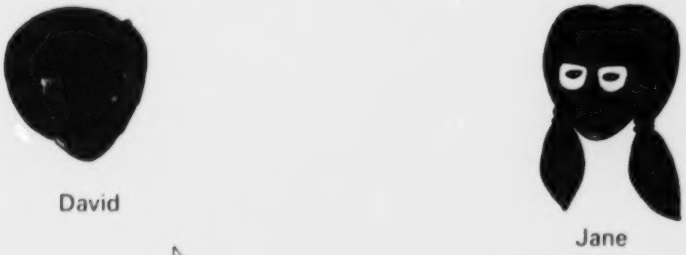
Fig. 3: from Howe, 1984 (Book 3, page 64)

Not all language in textbooks is always very realistic! What David and Jane say here is a case in point. Care should be taken with the language in the text book; it is not always right! Context is very important in this blank-filling exercise, too. Getting the right answer does not depend on mindless manipulation. The pupils have to solve a problem so that, while there is a language focus, the outcome is dependent on the context.

Great care should be taken to ensure that the teachers are aware of all the possible words that can be used to complete the sense. If too many words are possible, the item is probably unsuitable as a test.

Example 4

Our family



We _1_ David and Jane.
Our family _2_ is Tam.
Our _3_ is Mr. Donald Tam.
Our _4_ is Mrs. Rita Tam.
We _5_ three young brothers.
_6_ names are Alan, Bernard and Colin.
Their _7_ are three, five and seven.
We have _8_ dog, too.
Its name is Wolf.

Fig. 4: from Howe, 1984 (Book 3, page 63)

A way of making this type of activity easier is to add a bank of words at the top of the passage. The exact number of words can be used, or one or two added to act as distractors. However, care must be taken to ensure that only one word is appropriate for each of the blank spaces, otherwise there will be marking difficulties.

Example 5

Help! hers please see those
wolf pair not your

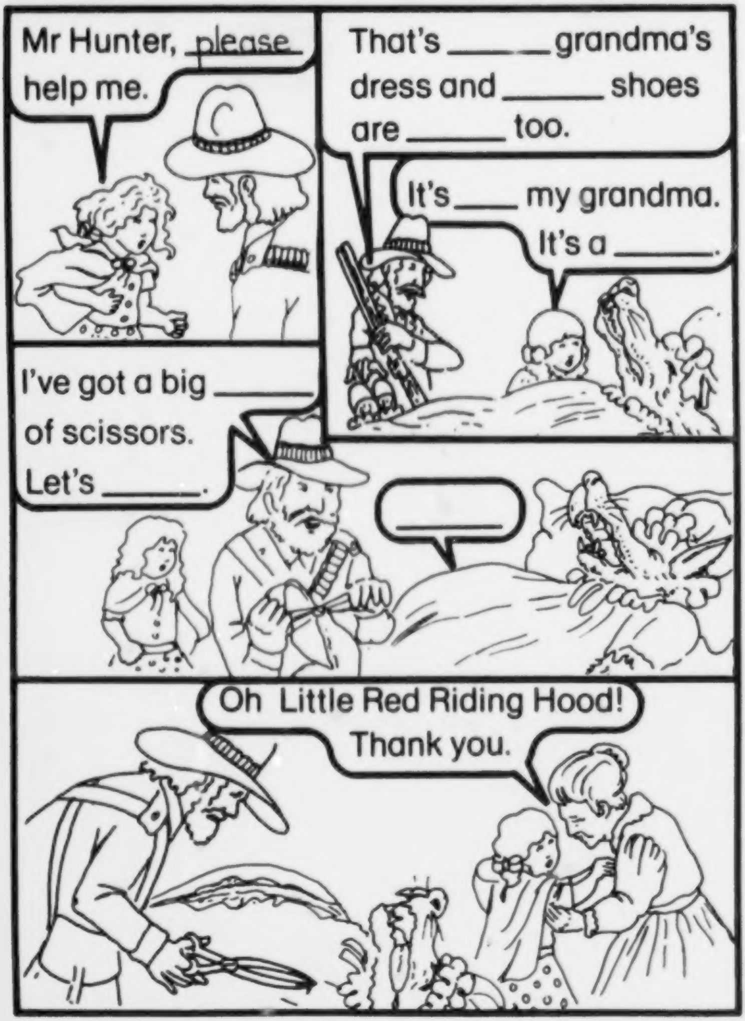
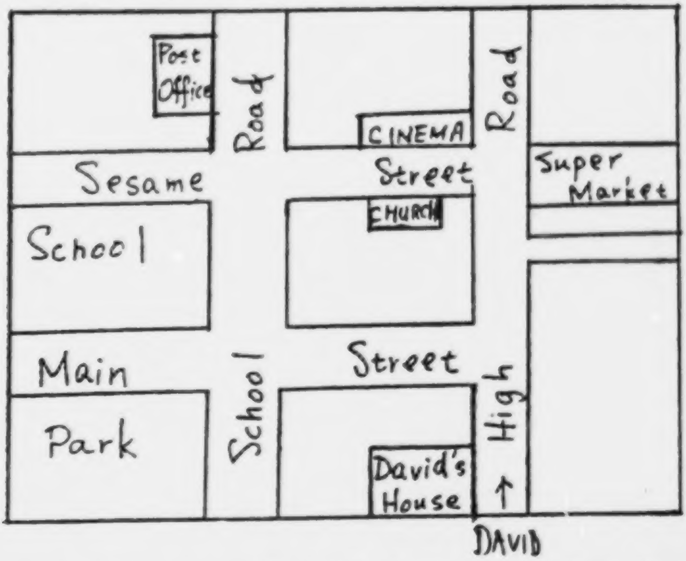

Mr Hunter, please help me.
That's ______ grandma's dress and ______ shoes are ______ too.
It's ____ my grandma. It's a ______.
I've got a big ______ of scissors. Let's ______.
______
Oh Little Red Riding Hood! Thank you.

Fig. 5: from Young et al., 1984 (Workbook 2B, page 24)

Passages such as used in the items described above can come from many different sources; the text book is only one of these. They are good for reading practice and demand thought on the part of the pupil. In some small way the pupils are using English. It is a good idea to choose a variety of relevant and interesting passages since this is more likely to have a positive effect on motivation. It is also a good idea to contextualise through the use of drawings or pictures if possible.

Example 6

Look carefully at the map and then fill in the blanks in the passage.



Yesterday David wanted to buy a bottle of milk and post a letter. He walked along (1) Road till he came to Sesame Street. First he (2) a bottle of milk in the (3). After that he walked along (4) Street, on his (5) he could see the church, and on his (6) he could see the cinema. Soon he came to (7) Road, he turned (8) and he went into the Post Office.

Fig. 6: teacher-designed materials

Teachers have very little time for test preparation! However, this is an example of the type of item produced by teachers attending a recent British Council Refresher course. It is well contextualised, involves reading comprehension, grammar and vocabulary as well as an element of problem solving.

Example 7

Calculation:

e.g. One chair + thirteen chairs
=fourteen chairs

Ten books − nine books
=one book

1. One __________ + three spoons
=four spoons

2. Seven tables + __________ tables
=eleven tables

3. Fifty-five cats − fifty-four cats
= __________ __________

4. One hundred ticks − sixteen ticks
= __________ __________

5. Nineteen animals + __________ __________
=twenty animals

6. Eight kites − two kites
= __________ __________

Fig. 7: teacher-designed materials

Produced by the same group of teachers, this simple activity is intended for Primary 2. The context is interesting because it takes English out of the language classroom to some extent. While the main focus is clearly numbers, the activity involves a certain amount of thought which makes it meaningful. Much better than simply writing numbers on a piece of paper!

Reading comprehension

Example 8

Open-ended or multiple-choice comprehension items based on a text are well-known test formats. However, there is no need to base comprehension items on texts alone. Timetables, calendars, tables and notices are just a few of the sources for task-based comprehension items.

August

Sun	Mon	Tue	Wed	Thur	Fri	Sat
				1	2	3
4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11	12	13	14	15	16	17
18	19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30	31

Read the following carefully and write out the dates.

Today is the first of August. Ann is now on vacation. She has ballet lessons every other Thursday. What will be the date for her last ballet lesson?

She plans to go swimming on the last two Sundays. On what dates will she go swimming?

She has a dental appointment on the first Monday in August. What date will she go to the dentist?

She has to register for school on the last Friday in August. When is the registration?

Fig. 8: teacher-designed materials

Note that there has been a serious attempt to make the questions as realistic as possible in that what they ask the pupil to do with the calendar is the sort of thing that we would generally use a calendar for.

Example 9

Read the sentences. Write the correct names next to the places.

Mr. Chan was born in Kowloon. Mrs. Chan was born in Kowloon too. They had two daughters, Amy and Lisa. Amy and Lisa were not born in Kowloon. They were born in the New Territories. Mr. Lee was born in China. He came to Hong Kong in 1946. Mrs. Lee was born in Hong Kong.

Where were you born?

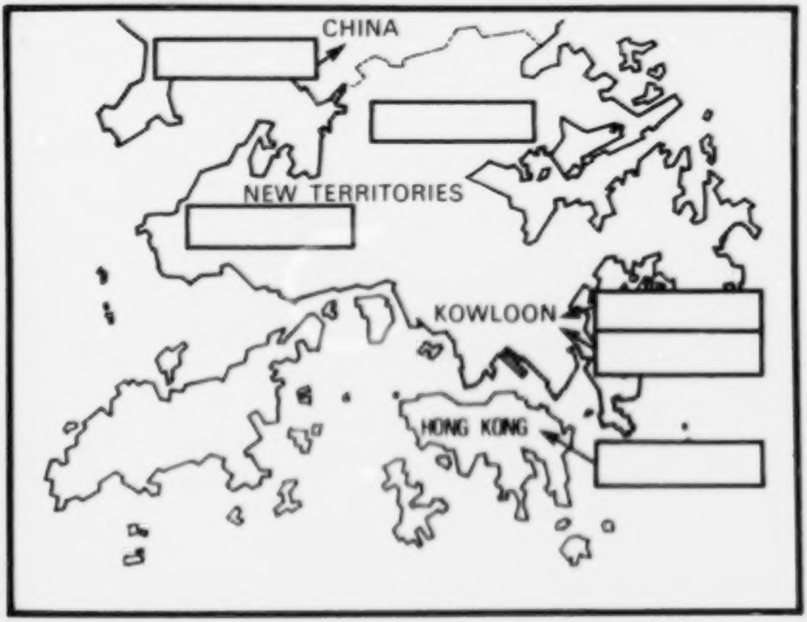


Fig. 9: from Young et al., 1984 (Workbook 3B, page 42)

This reading comprehension activity is another example of a task-based comprehension item. The pupils do not have to respond with full sentences, they simply have to extract from the text the names of the people who were born in different places. The activity has much more surface appeal than one where the pupils have to answer WH—questions.

The test writer designing this sort of reading comprehension item could equally require a non-verbal response by asking the pupils to underline or circle things on the calendar or map. However, care should be taken in the design of this type of item not to set a multitude of totally unrealistic tasks. This is a temptation, because meaningless tasks are often easier to think of than meaningful ones.

Example 10

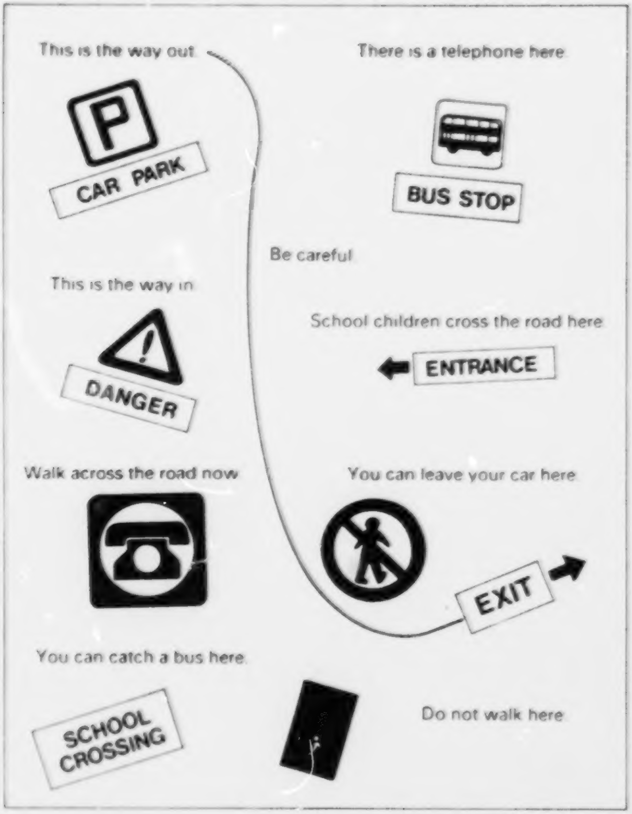

This is the way out
There is a telephone here
CAR PARK
BUS STOP
Be careful
This is the way in
School children cross the road here
ENTRANCE
DANGER
Walk across the road now
You can leave your car here
EXIT
You can catch a bus here
SCHOOL CROSSING
Do not walk here

Fig. 10: from Howe, 1984 (Activity Book 3B, page 6)

This activity is taken directly from *Active English Today*. The pupils need to be able to read and interpret signs of various sorts. These signs appear everywhere, (generally in English, when there are any words), and it is important that the pupils know what they mean. The fact that the signs are a common feature of Hong Kong life helps to make the activity meaningful.

This idea can be easily adapted. Although matching is a well known testing activity, it is rarely used to its full potential and most matching activities are very boring. They generally entail the matching of uncontextualised sentences that have been broken in half. There is no purpose to this sort of test item. A little bit of imagination and time can make matching items much more interesting and meaningful.

Appropriateness

Example 11

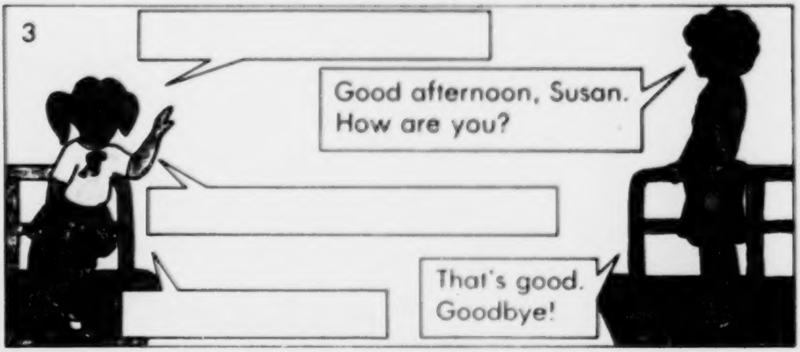

3
Good afternoon, Susan. How are you?
That's good. Goodbye!

Fig. 11: from Howe, 1984 (Book 3, page 2)

The pupils' ability to produce appropriate responses can be tested in the way demonstrated in this example, from *Active English Today*. The role relationship here is child-adult but alternatives such as child-child interactions are just as easy to find.

Marking is an important feature with such items. They aim to test appropriateness in the first instance, accuracy, being only of secondary importance here. A useful marking scheme might be:

0	1	1
inappropriate	appropriate and inaccurate	appropriate and accurate

If the response is inaccurate, then the pupil would get no marks at all. If the response is appropriate, only *then* should it be marked for accuracy. Spelling should not be a consideration with this sort of item, since that can be tested elsewhere.

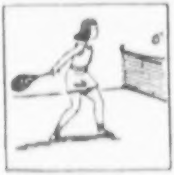
Care must be taken that all appropriate responses have been anticipated. There is a danger that very short responses will be discounted or penalised, but this is unfair since appropriate responses are indeed often short ones.

Listening comprehension

Example 12

Listening comprehension is one of the least tested skills in Hong Kong and elsewhere. This is due partly to neglect and partly to the practical problems involved.

(1)



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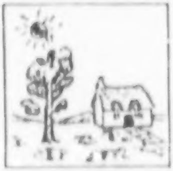

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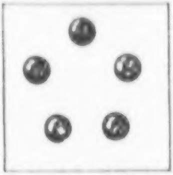

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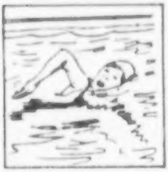

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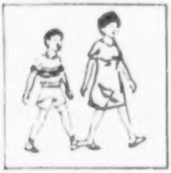

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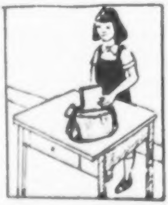
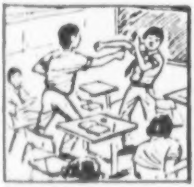


(7)



	True	False
1	✓	
2	✓	
3	✓	
4	✓	
5	✓	
6	✓	
7	✓	

Fig. 12: from British Council, Form 1 Assessment of English Proficiency, 1982-83

The activity illustrated in this example is a very simple true/false activity (which could also be used for reading comprehension The difficulty is dictated by the level of the prompt. For example, Item 1 could read—'Mary's playing tennis.' or, if it needed to be more difficult, 'Mary's about to hit the ball.' The pictures chosen should be from a context the pupils will recognise, and they should not) be too complex. Also, the questions asked should not demand minute scrutiny of the picture for features that could be easily missed.

Example 13

The next two activities illustrated in examples 13 and 14, have a similar theme in that they demand that the pupils do something, in this case, correct pieces of text.

> There is a mistake in this sentence.
>
> Cross out the word that isn't necessary.
>
> This is a very easy test tests.

Fig. 13: from British Council, Form 1 Assessment of English Proficiency, 1982-83

The first one is fairly simple, it requires that the pupils follow a simple instruction. In this case the mistake is left to the pupils to find, but the activity could be made easier by making it quite clear what had to be crossed out.

Example 14

> I'd like you to add some things to this paragraph.
> First, put a full stop after 'school'. Now, put a comma after 'story books'.
> The last sentence is a question. Put a question mark at the end of the sentence.
>
> There is a library in your school It is a very interesting place. There are story books magazines and newspapers. The library is a good place to spend your time. Do you like reading

Fig. 14: from British Council, Form 1 Assessment of English Proficiency, 1982-83

The second activity represents something that might happen in the English classroom and requires that the pupils recognise and locate words and then perform a simple operation on the text.

Example 15

All right class, I'd like you to do something for me.

First, write your name on the top line of page 1.

Now put the date just under your name.

Next, number the pages.

Question 1 is right but question 2 is wrong. Put a cross next to question 2.

Would you please do question three.

Do not do questions 4 and 5.

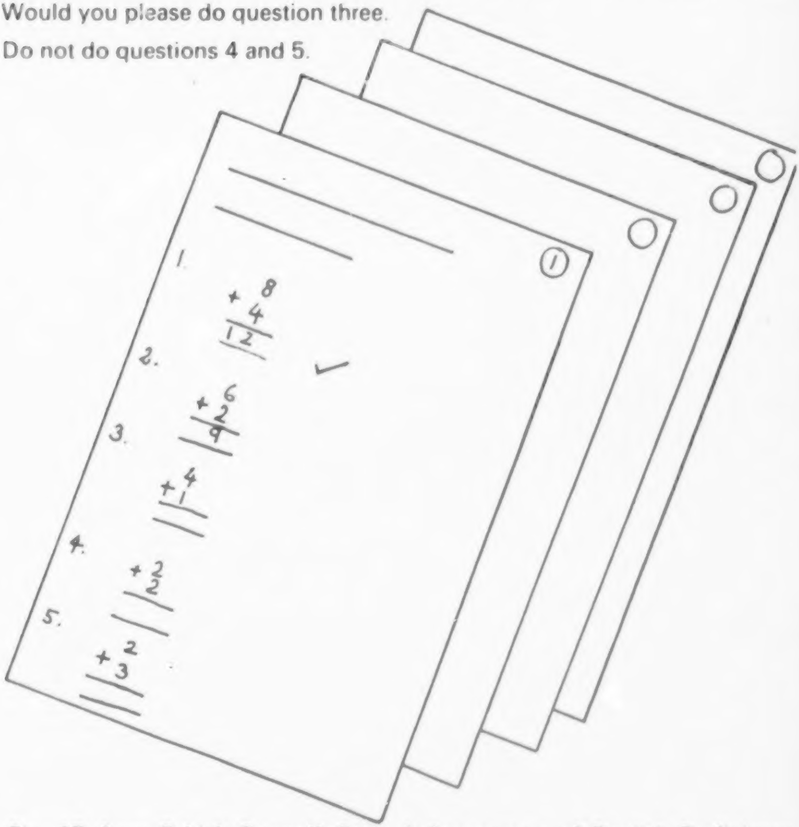


Fig. 15: from British Council, Form 1 Assessment of English Proficiency, 1982–83

This item has a good classroom context and represents the type of activity that could take place in English. As is clear from the tapescript, the purpose of the item is to test the ability to follow instructions. These can be made simple or more complex, depending on the level of the pupils. The main focus of the item is clearly not grammar, but rather the successful completion of a task. This is important because it reflects the principles of the 1981 syllabus, which stresses the importance of meaningful activities.

Example 16

Tom's a happy boy. Draw his mouth.

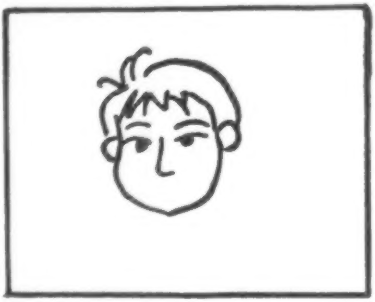


Fig. 16: from British Council, Form 1 Assessment of English Proficiency, 1982–83

This is a straightforward 'listen and do' item which is fun to do. It tests vocabulary and simple instructions. Hundreds of variations are possible with this type of activity.

Example 17

Draw two apples on the table.

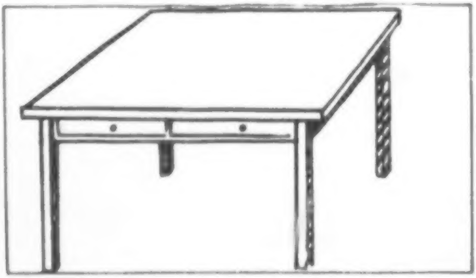


Fig. 17: from British Council, Form 1 Assessment of English Proficiency, 1982–83

This is also a 'listen and do' item. It should be noted that young children take a long time to draw things. This item was originally tested using books, as opposed to apples, and we were surprised to see that the pupils were taking such a long time drawing the books that they missed the next three questions in the test! It is important that test writers observe the pupils during the pre-test phase of a listening test so that they can pick up unpredictable problems that will invalidate the results of the test unless they are spotted in time.

Example 18

Linda has short hair and is wearing trousers. Write her name under her picture.

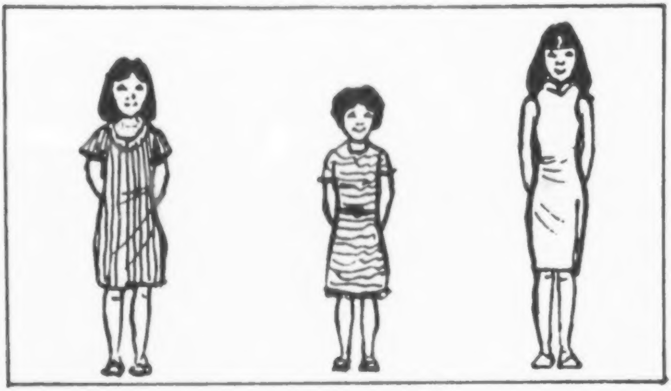


Fig. 18: from British Council, Form 1 Assessment of English Proficiency, 1982–83

Recognising people from short descriptions is a frequent occurrence, and this type of activity is fairly realistic from that point of view. A similar format can be used to test comparative and superlative forms.

Example 19

Look at the table about Sam, Tom and Sally.

(A) Who is the oldest child?

(B) How much does Sally weigh?

(C) Who is the tallest child?

Sam	Tom	Sally
10 years old	11 years old	9 years old
40 kg	39 kg	38 kg
1.5 m	1.49 m	1.42 m

(*a*) ______________________

(*b*) ______________________

(*c*) ______________________

Fig. 19: from British Council, Form 1 Assessment of English Proficiency, 1982–83

This type of item tests the notions of height, weight and age. Interpretation of a table is a realistic activity, both in English and other subjects, and also occurs outside the classroom fairly frequently.

Example 20

Join 3 and 7. Join 3 and 9. Now draw a line from 7 to 28 and another line from 9 to 28. Finally, draw a line from 3 to 28 and another line from 7 to 9. What have you drawn? Write it under the picture.

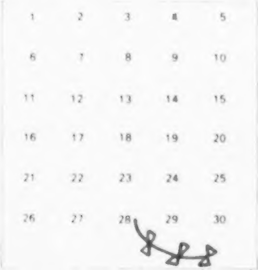


Fig. 20: from British Council, Form 1 Assessment of English Proficiency, 1982–83

Items such as this one are useful ways of testing the ability to follow directions in space. Pupils have to follow simple instructions and draw lines. When they have finished they are asked to write down what they have drawn.

Example 21

A: What are you doing tomorrow morning John?

John: Well I'm going shopping at 11 o'clock and I'm going to the beach at 12.

A: What are you doing before that?

John: Oh, at 10 I'm going to the dentist and at 9 o'clock I'm having breakfast.

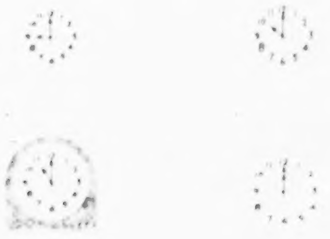


Fig. 21: from Howe, 1984 (Activity Book 1B, page 15)

This test item uses the present continuous tense in a very realistic way. It is a fairly difficult activity, that tests the pupils' ability to pick out relevant information and the ability to cope with problems based on clocks and time. The illustration is taken from *Active English Today*.

Example 22

Teacher: David what do you want to be when you grow up?

David: Well, I thought I wanted to be a teacher but now I think I'd like to be a policeman.

Teacher: Really! What about you Mary?

Mary: Oh, that's easy. I want to work in a hospital—I want to be a nurse.

Teacher: How about you John?

John: Well, I've always wanted to be a teacher.

Teacher: And you Susan?

Susan: Oh, either a doctor or a nurse but really I'd like to be a doctor.

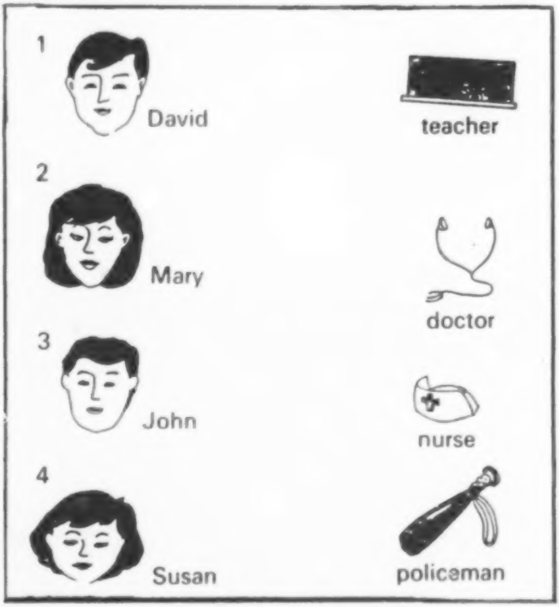


Fig. 22: teacher-designed materials

In this example the pupils have to listen to a short dialogue and join up the person with the job. It is important to note that there is a minimal amount of reading and writing involved in this activity. There is a danger that listening tests will fail to test listening if there is a heavy reading or writing element.

Note

1. The 1981 Primary School syllabus in Hong Kong was implemented in 1984 (Stage I: classes 1–3) and will be completed in 1985 (Stage II: classes 4–6).

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提要

香港小學英文科測驗及傳意教學課程

香港教育署課程發展委員會在一九八四年頒佈新訂的「傳意教學課程大綱」，強調語文在傳意和應用方面的重要性，同時要注意及照顧學生的學習動機、興趣和需要。本文作者根據這個課程大綱，探討本港小學英文科測驗的模式和方法。

新課程綱要有專章討論測驗，本文作者認爲目前的測驗方法和評核標準，亦應配合改革。他認爲測驗可以幫助教師了解和量度學生的進步情況，測驗內容應以學生實際應用語文的技巧爲主，要盡量持續進行及避免形式化。

本文分引言、文法及辭彙、閱讀理解、聆聽、評核標準五部分。作者以現有的新編小學教材爲例，說明傳意教學的測驗方法和評核標準，並強調以實用性爲主。

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British Council, Hong Kong

CHILDREN TEACH CHILDREN: AN EDUCATIONAL EXPERIMENT IN RURAL SOUTH-EAST ASIA

Theodore S. Rodgers

What sort of educational innovations are possible in areas with minimal physical facilities, minimally trained teachers, overcrowded classes, and few, if any, materials resources? One possibility is to use *older* students as *tutors* for younger students. This approach promises younger students individual instruction and attention otherwise impossible to provide and gives older students focussed requirements for material review, mastery, and presentation to another.

An experimental program was designed to test this possibility with several total school populations. The basic plan was to pair every student in the three earliest grades of primary school with a tutor from the upper three grades in the same school. Each standard-one student would have a standard-four tutor, each standard-two student, a standard-five tutor, and each standard-three student, a standard-six tutor. Several procedures for making the pairings were tested, school scheduling plans to make possible twice-weekly meetings between all pairs were designed and revised, teacher strategies for creating and maintaining pair work were suggested, materials, and activities to facilitate the early stages of pair interaction were constructed, and detailed lesson plans and a Teacher's Resource Book for structuring and supporting pair work were prepared. In the longest experimental period, the pair meetings occurred twice a week for a full class period for four months.

Generally speaking, administrators, teachers, and the students themselves reported the four-month experiment a success and promising in terms of more ambitious plans to expand the pair project.

The content for the initial experiment was English language instruction. The goal was to have the older students become material writers for their younger partners. Thus, the older students would develop *writing* skills while preparing stories, word problems, etc. The younger students would develop reading skills in receiving and reacting to their partner-prepared materials.

Some of the lesson plan steps for organising the program and carrying it out are summarised below:

SUGGESTED LESSON SEQUENCE FOR EACH ONE/TEACH ONE PAIRING: STANDARD III AND STANDARD VI SCHEME (OUTLINE ONLY)

WEEK 1 Books* are made available to Standard VI students. These students pick a book after browsing, to prepare for reading to younger children. Standard VI students do practice readings of the book(s) they have selected.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

WEEK 2 An even number of Standard VI and Standard III students meet together in an open area to play the 'Matching Game.' (from Teacher's Resource Book)

Play the game (which randomly pairs each Standard VI students with a Standard III student).

Pairs now prepared to read the sentences from back of Matching Game cards which each player has.

Pairs go to designated reading desks.

Students begin reading together using books Standard VI students have been practising with.

WEEK 3 Standard VI student completes reading aloud and helps Standard III students to read the story on his/her own.

Spot Checking of Standard III students' reading.

Play 'Treasure Hunt,' 'Word Search' Games. (Game I step 17—Teacher's Resource Book)

Play the 'Sentences Construct' Game. (Game II step 18—Teacher's Resource Book)

(The above games are all reading games which use as base whatever book the paired students have been reading together.)

WEEK 4 Standard VI students check reading again of story with Standard III child. Conduct prepared Oral Interview with Standard III child. Standard VI students must ask information and write down the answers. Each Standard VI child will prepare identical interview forms with teacher's help before the interview period.

* Books are a multiple-copy project-developed set of 40 titles (approximately 200 books in total set), covering skill levels from the non-reading level (picture books) to Standard VI reading level.

ORAL INTERVIEW FORM

(Standard VI student conducts with Standard III partner)

a. What is your name? ____________________

b. Where do you live? ____________________

c. What is your favourite animal? ____________________

d. What place would you like to visit? (the capital city, friend's house, Singapore, England, U.S.A., moon, bottom of the ocean, mystery place, etc.) ____________________

e. How would you like to travel? (walk, bicycle, boat, train, airplane, rocket, dreammobile, kite, etc.)

____

f. What might you see there? ____________________

g. How would you get back? ____________________

Play another game if time permits (from Teacher's Resource Book).

WEEK 5 Standard VI students (after getting oral interview information) write a 8–16 pp. illustrated story for their Standard III partners. Story should include partner's name in the title, e.g. 'Dem Takes a Trip,' 'Aishah Goes to the Moon,' etc. The story uses interview information as framework for writing.

All books shown to Standard VI teacher for comment and *minimal* editing. (Books returned to writers to make changes.)

WEEK 6 Standard VI and Standard III pairs meet again. Standard VI students present stories to partners and read together a couple of times. Stories are given to Standard III partners.

WEEK 7 Standard III students write 'guided composition' thank you letters to their partners.

FORMAT FOR 'THANK YOU' LETTER

Date ____________

Dear ____________,

Thank you very much for the book ____________

I liked reading it. I really liked the part about ____________

____________. Now I would like to read a book about

____________. I hope to see you

again on ____________.

Your friend,

____

WEEK 8 Pairs meet together to show their books to other pairs. Play Pair Trade Games (from Teacher's Resource Book).
Play favourite games.

Younger students read 'their' books to other younger students in pairs.

A few comments in conclusion

We found that the most successful means of pairing students was according to some obviously random procedure like the 'Matching Game' mentioned. More systematic attempts to pair students by educational level, sex, and ethnic background proved not only cumbersome and time-consuming but resulted in resentment among some of the pairs. In the 'chance-pairing' students seemed willing to accept their pairings as determined by fate. Of approximately four hundred pairings, we found it necessary to re-adjust only two pairings due to some obvious incompatibility.

In the later stage of the project, the old students wrote and then presented books they had written to the younger students. These books were (1) plotted about an imaginary trip taken by their younger partner, (2) composed and illustrated by the older students (with editing help, as requested, from the teacher), (3) read to the younger partner until the partner could read the story independently, and (4) finally, given to the younger partner to keep and to read to others.

Most of these younger students had never had a book of their own before. To have a book about themselves, that they could read, made especially for them by a respected older member of the school community combined for these students some of the most overwhelming incentives to reading I have ever witnessed. Many of the younger students literally slept with these books until they turned to dust.

Professor Ted Rodgers, is currently Professor of Psycholinguistics at the University of Hawaii in Manoa. His paper in this journal relates to work he did when serving as Advisor on Language Planning and Language Education to the Ministry of Education in Malaysia.

提要

兒童可以互相教導嗎？
——個在東南亞農村教學的經驗

東南亞的農村，由於缺乏受訓的英語教師，教材及教學設施不足，
上教室空間有限，外語教學便面臨重大的困難。作者面對這種環境，想
英語教學需要創新，於是設計了一個爲期四個月的教學實驗計畫。

實驗開始時，教師首先把兩個年級不同的學生編成一組，高年級學生
使成爲低年級學生的導師。高年級學生根據教師訂下的計畫，爲低年級學
生編寫輔導教材，並引導他們閱讀及理解有關材料。高年級學生在編寫閱
讀資料時，漸漸發揮了創作能力，在計畫的後期，已經能夠把他們身邊的
人物，改寫成故事。低年級的學生經高年級同學引導後，亦能培養出閱讀
能力。作者在本文介紹這個方法，可作爲在條件不足的情況下推行外語教
學的參考。

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TWENTY PROPOSITIONS ON TEACHER TRAINING: TOWARDS A PHILOSOPHY OF TEACHER PREPARATION

Peter Strevens

Introduction

As has often been observed, notably by H. H. Stern during discussions at the Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics in 1983, the theme of which was the preparation of teachers of languages (Alatis et al., 1983) we are frequently at a disadvantage through the absence of a philosophy of teacher training. Since then, the publication of Dr. Stern's monumental book *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching* (Stern 1983) has provided a good part of such a philosophy. This paper offers some further contributions in the same direction.

A preliminary word is necessary on the subject of terminology: the terms 'teacher training', 'teacher preparation', 'professional advancement', and doubtless others, are all in current use though with little distinction or definition. The terms all refer to a nexus of ideas, events, techniques, trends, concerned with ways in which teachers of a foreign language receive an orientation towards their occupation. In this paper the term *teacher training* will be used as a cover term for the process as a whole.

It is the intention of this paper to suggest that behind the great variety of different teacher training programmes to be found across the world, there exists nevertheless a *coherent pattern*. An attempt will be made to describe this pattern through a series of twenty Propositions, each of which will be followed by a comment.

Proposition 1: Basic pre-suppositions

The training of teachers of foreign languages (LTT) rests upon three basic pre-suppositions:

(i) the *learning* of languages is systematically improved by good teaching;
(ii) the *teaching* of languages is systematically improved by good teacher training;
(iii) teaching has the status and characteristics of a *profession*, within which teacher training is a central element;

in consequence of these pre-suppositions the improvements in teaching and hence in learning brought about through LTT are not simply contingent or random.

Comment The thrust of Proposition 1 asserts that teacher training is not random and not anarchic; and that LTT is systematically associated with improvement in language learning. These improvements are in the *quality*, the *effectiveness* and the *speed* of learning. In short, Proposition 1 states that training helps teachers help learning. Of course, language learning and

84

teaching are far from perfect: there are many countries where teacher training is given, yet where the effectiveness of teaching and learning remains low. However, these Propositions are concerned with a philosophy, a model, of what *can* be achieved, even though imperfections in the system often prevent the ideal from being attained.

Proposition 1 also asserts that teaching (including language teaching) is not just an *occupation*, it is a *profession*, that is, a particular category within occupations, having certain characteristics that will be defined in later Propositions. As a preliminary illustration of the difference between an occupation and a profession one might take *welding*, or *house painting*. Various kinds of training can be provided for people entering those occupations, yet their training remains different in *kind*, in *motivation* and in *philosophy* from the training which is systematically offered within a profession.

Proposition 2: LTT within Education

LTT stands within the field of *education* as understood throughout the globe; it aspires to share 'the principles of good teaching' as understood from time to time by leaders in this field.

Comment So LTT does not exist in isolation, in a vacuum. It is manifested in every country; it supports and is supported by the broader profession of *education* as a whole. LTT is clearly within the humanities: it is not a branch of science, nor of linguistics, nor of psychology—although it can have fruitful links with each of them. It is *international*. And it evolves through time. Today's most advanced examples of language teacher training will seem outmoded in fifteen years from now. It is of the essence of education, and therefore of LTT, that there should be a conscious and continuous effort at understanding and directing the intellectual effort in LTT towards even greater effectiveness and relevance.

Proposition 3: Qualities of a Good Teacher

It is self-evident that a central aim of LTT in preparing 'good teachers' is the imparting and refinement of classroom skills, both of the 'class management' type and of the 'language pedagogy' type; in addition, a good teacher needs three further minimum qualities or characteristics the promotion of which, if they are not already present by virtue of the trainee's previous history, must form part of LTT:—

(i) an adequate level of personal education as a citizen;
(ii) a suitable personality and sufficient emotional maturity;
(iii) a command of the foreign language at least sufficient for the circumstances in which he/she will teach.

Comment It follows from this Proposition that a teacher should be an educated person. Just what level of personal education he or she should have depends on the society he or she lives in, the educational level (primary, secondary, tertiary, etc.) he proposes to teach in, and the educational norms in that society for teachers at that level. But it is clear that a teacher is by definition an educated person, not an uneducated one. What is more, the teacher requires emotional stability, which in turn means that he must be old enough to have attained emotional maturity. And the teacher of a foreign language must possess a sufficient command of the language concerned—'sufficient' being again interpreted according to the society and the educational level where he or she will work.

Proposition 4: Characteristics

The patterns of organisation of LTT directly reflect some principal characteristics of a *profession*, namely:

(i) *selection*, for training and thereafter for admission as a teacher;
(ii) *training*, in skills, knowledge and understanding;
(iii) *standards*, acceptable to the profession, constantly monitored and improved;
(iv) *a social role* as part of education: cf law, medicine, architecture;

and the basic tenet that, since professional training is available, the admission to teaching of professionally untrained teachers is undesirable.

Comment Members of a profession share a sense of pride in service and commitment to a social purpose. Equally, 'amateurs'—i.e., un-trained teachers—are not generally welcomed. It is of course true that a great many excellent teachers are self-taught, and that preference for those with training only begins when good-quality training is actually available and can be seen to produce worthwhile effects. It is worth adding that once a profession comes into being within a particular country a professional organisation almost inevitably becomes necessary. Such teachers' associations often start at local level, spread to become nation-wide, then join with international associations. The teaching of English as a foreign language has two such associations, one based in Britain (the *International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language*—IATEFL), the other based in the United States (*Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages*—TESOL). The point being made is that these organisations have an important function in the evolution and cohesion of the profession from which they sprang.

Proposition 5: Selection

Selective entry to teacher training, rather than 'free' or open entry, implies that not all would-be teachers will prove to be suitable: some reliable contra-indications can be seen before training while others develop during training; to undertake the process of selection and training entails a responsibility for subsequent honest evaluation of the individual before admission as a teacher.

Comment This Proposition asserts a 'gate-keeping' function for entry to the profession. But selection of those likely to be good (or at least adequate) teachers also implies rejection of those unlikely to be adequate teachers. And while it is difficult enough to refuse entry to a course of training, it becomes more difficult to reject a person even for clear indications of unsuitability that develop during training, while rejection at the end of training often carries undertones of heartbreak and personal grief. Nevertheless, the evaluation of a would-be teacher's suitability must be undertaken honestly, in the knowledge that an unsatisfactory teacher can cause immense damage, educational and emotional, to himself/herself and to generations of his/her students.

Consequently, to have completed a course of training is insufficient: for selection a teacher must have *successfully* completed training.

Proposition 6: Teacher Development

LTT assumes that, once trained, a teacher's professional competence does not remain static but develops throughout his/her professional life, following three sets of principles of teacher development:

(i) *perfectibility* (of teacher training): given that learning is improved by good teaching, and teaching by good training, training in turn improves as a result of developments in the practical and intellectual bases of language teaching;

(ii) *progression* (of teacher's competence): the teacher's competence evolves gradually over time, fed by his experience, thought and the growth of understanding;

(iii) *continuity* (of career development): the teacher's development is potentially career-long, hence opportunities for further training are desirable from time to time throughout his/her career.

Comment These principles are central to LTT. They indicate a necessity for the intellectual 'steering' and guidance for the profession which were touched on in Proposition 2. They also remind us that the teacher's first day in the classroom after completion of training represents a beginning point in his development, not an end point. In principle, a teacher progresses in competence throughout his/her career.

Proposition 7: Disciplinary Links

In company with other fields of education, LTT draws upon ideas, concepts, principles, philosophies, from many disciplines—the philosophy of education, classroom research, linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, descriptive linguistics, discourse analysis, logic and scientific method, electronic engineering and others—in the humanities and in the sciences, without being subordinate to any single discipline; in recent years it has been particularly associated with *applied linguistics* (in the sense of 'a multidisciplinary approach to language-related problems') while also remaining in close connection with the study of practical classroom-based activities and accepting that most of good teaching is an art and a craft.

Comment It is essential to realise what is being proposed here: not that *language teaching* draws on many disciplines, but that *language teacher training* (LTT) does so. It is through the teacher's understanding and incorporation into his professional awareness of such broad ideas that they may eventually and gradually affect teaching, not directly. So LTT is not just a matter of practical classroom technique: it also draws on ideas from many disciplines. LTT is not a branch of linguistics, nor is linguistics the only discipline with any important lessons for LTT. In any case, LTT generally takes its disciplinary content at one remove from the disciplines themselves—at least in the British and Canadian formulation—through the mediation of *applied linguistics*. AL is not the same as LTT. But AL is the only multidisciplinary field which by definition exists to be aware of ideas and developments in any single discipline that can contribute to the solution of language-based problems, including language teaching; and which simultaneously confronts theory with the knowledge of practical problems that need to be solved. Ideally at least, applied linguistics supplies the disciplinary links that are central to language teacher training.

Proposition 8: LTT's Own Intellectual Basis

LTT is currently changing from a largely pragmatic, technique-centred activity (i.e. centred in methodology, with 'Does it work?' as the sole criterion for adopting or rejecting a teaching technique) into a profession with a philosophy or paradigm or set of principles against which activities can be gauged in addition to observing their surface validity; this philosophy of the language learning process (LLP) must be consistent with the 'universe of discourse' of language learning and teaching, and not be imposed from a more distant universe; once established, a philosophy of LLP provides a motivation and justification for the teacher's exercise of methodological and instructional choice.

Comment Until recent years it was common for LTT institutions to adopt one or other of two extreme positions: either that since teaching is a practical activity, LTT should also be chiefly oriented towards practicalities, with little or no intellectual content; alternatively, that LTT should be academic in nature, concentrating on theory to the virtual exclusion of practice. It is one of the most heartening of current trends that LTT seems to be moving towards a middle position, in which the inescapable practical needs of the teacher in the classroom (HOW) are backed by a sufficient illumination through principle and theory (WHY).

Proposition 9: Initial vs Further LTT

It is highly desirable for LTT to be undergone *before* a person is first employed as an autonomous 'class' teacher, i.e. *initial training*, to be distinguished from *further training* (often 'in-service training') for those with previous initial training followed by teaching experience; consequently *initial* training tends to be of longer duration, more heavily weighted towards practical classroom techniques, broader and more generalised in application, while *further* training tends to be shorter, more closely focussed on a particular area, and more likely to have a stronger theoretical content; further training is desirable at intervals throughout a teacher's career, to keep him/her up to date, to revive flagging morale, to gain familiarity with new syllabuses or materials, for personal promotion, etc.

Comment The general principle being presented here is that through a separation of *initial* ('pre-service') LTT from *further* (often 'in-service') training it is possible to effect two distinct developments: first, to put into initial training a preponderance of those practical skills he/she will need for classroom survival, together with sufficient understanding of principle and theory to maintain intellectual curiosity and permit the individual increasingly to work problems out for himself/herself; and second, to permit a wide range of subsequent specialisation by the teacher, in a framework of further training. This Proposition also foreshadows another (19) which implies that career-long opportunities for further training should be made available.

Proposition 10: General vs Special LTT

Two discrete kinds of LTT must be distinguished: *general* training to be a teacher regardless of the 'subject' or subjects the teacher may expect to handle, and *special* training as a teacher of a foreign language; in LTT, both kinds must be provided, since language teaching is a particular case of the general category of teaching, and language learners form a particular case of the general category of learners: neither general training without special training nor special without general is a sufficient initial preparation for teaching a language.

Comment Although obviously in *further* training it is chiefly *special* training that is offered, *initial* training tends to comprise the whole of such *general* training as the teacher ever receives, together with the *special* training for at least survival needs as a teacher of the foreign language. The new teacher desperately needs, from his/her first day in the classroom, not only the *general* skill of being a teacher (regardless of the subject he is teaching) but also the special skill of teaching the foreign language.

Proposition 11: Typical Initial Training

The provision of initial training is typically in the form of an organised course, generally full-time, often intensive, in duration up to an academic year if postgraduate or up to 4 years if taken as a first degree or in replacement of a degree; long initial training courses generally indicate that trainees have been selected young, are receiving personal education as well as professional training, and are being given time and guidance for the growth of emotional maturity.

Comment The interest of this Proposition lies in its attempt to bring into a single framework the great diversity between on the one hand 4-year courses containing both general educational content and vocational, professional content, and on the other hand short courses of 100 hours (e.g. the RSA *Preparatory Certificate*)[1] containing only basic special training in foreign language teaching. Between these extremes, the commonest patterns are (i) a non-vocational university degree followed by a year devoted specifically to vocational training as a teacher, i.e., initial teacher training; (ii) a course lasting from one to three years of chiefly vocational training as a teacher. Not the least important reason for longer courses is the need to permit young candidates to gain emotional maturity through the natural process of growing older.

Proposition 12: Elements of Content

Courses of initial teacher training ideally contain, in an appropriate combination, three main elements:

(i) an element of training in *practical skills*, both of classroom management and of presentation and teaching techniques;
(ii) an element of *professional information*, i.e. knowing *about* teaching, learning, language, English, education etc.
(iii) an element of *principle and theory*, of understanding the fundamentals of learning and teaching.

Comment The crucial phrase to be noted here is 'in an appropriate combination'. A particular combination of practical skills, professional information, and principle and theory will be suitable for some circumstances but not for others. Nor should the impression be given that initial training typically consists of a rigid 3-part syllabus. On the contrary, there is and there should be great diversity in content, outlook, aims—and in the precise combination of elements to be developed for particular needs. See also Proposition 17.

Proposition 13: Need for Practice Teaching

Initial training in *practical skills* should provide the trainee with the greatest possible range of classroom experience, through observation, demonstration and participation; in particular, LTT programmes must include adequate quantities of supervised practice teaching of suitable learners.

Comment There is no substitute for supervised classroom practice teaching. It is the equivalent for the trainee teacher of the advice to someone learning to drive a vehicle, to 'get the miles in'. Because there are a number of activities to be mastered—physical activities, like learning where to stand, when to stand still and when to move about, like learning a range of standardised gestures for initiating various kinds of action, like talking (as little as possible) and keeping quiet (as much as possible), etc.—and mental activities, like observing each individual in terms of his learning progress, like keeping abreast of the momentum of the class as a whole, like identifying the onset of boredom, like side-stepping attempts to divert the course of the lesson, while still remaining alert to possibilities of quite unexpected opportunities for learning. While these activities can be described to one, and while one can observe them in demonstration lessons, nevertheless in the last resort the trainee teacher typically learns them best by *doing*: by experiencing the exhilaration of bringing off a minor coup in the facilitation of learning, and the minor disaster of being taken in by the joker in the class. One further comment: the shorter the amount of initial training, the more important becomes the provision of a core of supervised practice teaching.

Proposition 14: Relate LTT Expected Conditions

Courses of initial training should be related as closely as possible to the particular students and circumstances that the trainees expect to encounter, including familiarisation with syllabuses and teaching materials, pupil age and language background, class size and school organisation; at the same time these particular circumstances must be seen in relation to broader generalities, principles and theories.

Comment This Proposition reinforces the view that initial training courses need to be closely designed to meet the needs of the particular trainees. It also implies an essential interplay between practice and theory, as a result of which the trainees learn not only *what* to teach and *how*, but also something of *why?*

Proposition 15: Familiarity with the Foreign Language

The *information and knowledge* element of initial LTT courses should include the greatest possible familiarity with the nature of the language being taught, awareness of its varieties, knowledge of its lexical, syntactic, phonological and discoursal devices; the selection, quantity and depth of this content will depend chiefly on the duration of the course, the standard of attainment of the trainee, and the intended educational level of the teacher's employment.

Comment This Proposition is not concerned with the teacher's *command* of the language, but quite specifically with his/her *knowledge about* it. It is sometimes astonishing how little teachers know about the language they are teaching, and the criticism often applies when teachers have taken a degree—especially a literary degree—in the foreign language. Such courses commonly include a great many works of literature in the language but virtually no descriptive knowledge.

Proposition 16: LTT Vocational

The *theory and principle* element of initial LTT should be relevant to the trainee's immediate future teaching, should further the trainee's understanding of his/her work; LTT is by definition *vocational*, and is academic only incidentally.

Comment This Proposition is at variance with common practice in some countries, where language teacher training, including initial training, takes the form of an academic M.A. degree, including much theory but little or no practice. The issue in this Proposition is whether initial LTT is by nature *academic* (I believe *not*) or *vocational* (I believe so). Of course there should be opportunities for academic content in later, further training: initial training is inescapably vocational.

Proposition 17: Balance of Elements

The effectiveness of an initial training course depends greatly on the balance of the main elements (practical skills, information, principle/theory); *practical skills* are essential and take a major share when time is short; beyond a small minimum core of *information and knowledge* the trainees can be helped to supplement this by their own efforts, especially when time is short; *principle and theory*, best seen as 'enabling skills' to permit the growth of understanding rather than as autonomous academic study, merit lower priority when time is short, but assume proportionately greater importance in subsequent further training.

Comment The balance of elements depends on the needs of the trainees, their level of education at entry to training, the educational level at which they expect to teach, and (perhaps above all) the duration of the training.

Proposition 18: Professionalism in LTT Staff

The design of courses for initial LTT entails not simply an appropriate balance of elements but also the provision of facilities for class observation and practice teaching and a high degree of professionalism in the training personnel.

Comment Without adequate teaching practice, LTT is only partial. And the teacher training staff are equally crucial, since their contribution to training requires a great deal of experience, understanding and wisdom.

Proposition 19: Probation, Up-dating, Specialisation

Successful completion of initial LTT normally merits acceptance as an autonomous teacher, although increasingly initial LTT requires a period of apprenticeship or probationary teaching, under tutelage, before ratification of the trainee's acceptance; thereafter, at intervals throughout the teacher's career, opportunities are needed for further training, for the up-dating of professional ideas, for mental refreshment, and for the chance of specialising in particular areas of teaching.

Comment The morale of the teacher completing his/her initial training is much enhanced if he/she knows that there will be future opportunities for further training, for up-grading his/her professional knowledge, and for embarking upon specialisation, e.g., in audio-visual aids, in testing, in syllabus design, in English for Specific Purposes (ESP), in teacher training, etc.

Proposition 20: Dynamic not Static

LTT is essentially dynamic, not static; it evolves in line with the development of new ideas and techniques in language teaching, and it provides, for new entrants and for existing teachers alike, the opportunities for keeping up to date with practice and philosophy in language teaching.

Comment This Proposition carries a clear implication that courses of training need to be periodically reviewed in order to make sure that they are up-to-date, that teachers are being trained for the circumstances they will in fact encounter, and that they remain broadly in line with good LTT elsewhere.

Conclusion

The variety of different provisions for the training of teachers of languages is very great. Nevertheless they share many concepts in common. Not least of these are: (i) professionalism; (ii) being based in widely-held principles; and (iii) being dynamic, so as to meet the constantly-changing nature of language teaching.

Note

1. The Royal Society of Arts Examination Board is a British public examining body of high reputation and long standing, which has made a considerable contribution to the development of the teaching of E.F.L. and E.S.L.

See also P. Strevens, 'Teacher Training and Changes in Society', in Alatis *et al.* (1983).

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提要

關於師資培訓的二十個建議

本文作者列舉和評論二十個關於語文教師訓練課程的建議。他指出現在的各種師資訓練課程，表面上雖有不同，但基本上都是源於相同的模式和概念的。例如：語文教師訓練趨向專業化，設計課程應以廣泛接受爲原則，而且要與其他學科互相呼應。作者更指出語文教學方法和課程不斷改變，因此，語文教師的培訓，應該採取更靈活的方式，而且要切合實際情況。

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普通話學習階段的探索研究

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很多語言學者都同意，語言的學習與發展是可以劃分階段的，無論兒童母語的發展，或第二語言的學習均如此。一位學者（劉殿爵，1979）認爲，對那些以粵語爲母語的香港人來說，普通話是第二語言。粵語這種方言與普通話比較起來，語音差別甚大，詞滙不同頗多，而語法的差異很少；整體粗略估計，異同各半，故就操粵語者而言，說普通話是半個第二語言，當不致引起太大的爭論。作爲半個第二語言的普通話，它的學習過程有無階段可分？下文提及的小型調査，即在嘗試初步探索此一問題。普通話學習階段的研究甚少，大型的研究僅在台灣一見（許洪坤，1984）。該研究尚在分析資料階段，仍未公佈最後的結果。此類研究的意義重大，因爲普通話學習階段的劃分，對課程的編寫、學生程度的審核、教學方法的改進，都有莫大的裨益。這是普通話教學上的一個重要課題。

調査概況

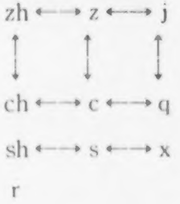
本調査爲一橫斷面的研究，筆者向一個普通話教學機構的三級學員，發出調査問卷 150 份，每級50份。三級即初、中、高三級，每級的課程均爲廿四小時，學員在各該級最後一節課塡寫問卷。除學員缺席及作廢的問卷外，初、中、高三級可用的問卷數分別爲33、32、30。問卷上的題目共分二類，第一類是看字標音，每題只替一字注音，共八十八題。該機構甚爲重視漢語拼音的教學，完成初級課程的學員均能標音。爲防一字多音，部份測試題以雙音節詞形式出現。這八十八字均自常用的二千字選出，常用字以《國民常用字彙研究》爲據。另外，八十八字的聲調(包括輕聲)、聲母、韻母均儘量平均分佈。第二類是詞滙語法題，要求受試者將粵語改寫爲普通話，共十題，一題一句粵語。

調査結果

第一類的標音題，初級與中級比較（$t_{(63)} = 1.71$，$P < 0.05$），中級與高級比較（$t_{(60)} = 1.68$，$P < 0.05$），其成績均有顯著差異。爲節省篇幅起見，下文用到的"多、少、優於、差異"各詞，均指 t 統計在0.05水平上的顯著差異，而不再臚列數字。三級的標音得分，高級($x = 271.07$)優於中級($x = 199.87$)，中級又優於初級($x = 109.88$)，標音能力與學習時間成正比。故就標音能力而言，似有循序漸進的階段可說。

標音能力雖不就是語音能力，但在極大多數的情況下，把一字標錯了音，在言語中就會把此字說錯。故下文對標音錯誤的分析，很足以說明語音的誤失與語音學習的困難。分析三級標音的錯誤，聲母方面的主要錯誤是三組舌音的混淆。三組舌音分不清，初級最多，中級次之，高級最少，可見區分三組舌音的能力隨學習時間增長而提升，有如由低而高的階梯。三組舌音的混淆，舌位的差異最易引起錯誤，如zh、 z 與 j 等。其次則爲送氣與否引致的錯誤，如zh與ch等。舌位加上送氣不送氣兩個成份同時俱誤的較少，如 zh 與 c 等。 sh 、 s 、 x 三個擦音甚少與其它塞擦音互混，至於 r 雖是翹舌音，但極少與其它舌音互混。上述分析可以一簡圖說明之，在圖一中，箭咀表示可能發生錯誤的方向，愈鄰近則愈易產生錯誤，即是說一個語音成份的差別最易引致錯誤，兩個成份者次之，三個成份者又次之。 r 極少與其他九個聲母混淆，所以沒有箭咀連繫其他聲母。三組舌音不單是粵方言區成人學習普通話的難點，也是中國其他地區兒童的學習難點，許洪坤(1984)在台灣的研究發現兒童在"一歲半到四歲之間，比較困難的語音是捲舌音、塞擦音。"許政援(1984)指出大陸地區的幼兒也是不易分清三組舌音。

圖一：



鼻音與邊音分不清是聲母方面第二類常見的錯誤。初級多把鼻音誤標作邊音，大概是受了粵語的影響，今日粵語的鼻音聲母幾乎已全部混入邊音之中。在日常言語中，粵人發音甚少鼻音聲母。中級把鼻音誤爲邊音的錯失較諸初級的爲少，但甚爲奇怪，把邊音標爲鼻音的錯誤卻遠多於初級。一個可能的解釋是，中級已然知道普通話嚴分鼻音與邊音，但只知此一規則而仍未能熟記何字爲鼻音何字爲邊音；爲避免將鼻音誤爲邊音，矯枉過正，於是把不能肯定的邊音字讀成鼻音字。高級的鼻音邊音不分的兩類錯誤，無論鼻誤爲邊，或邊誤爲鼻，都遠較初、中級爲少。鼻音邊音不分，在不同的級別有不同的學習困難，可見學習普通話，有其發展階段可言。

粵語與普通話對應規律的例外字，也易於引致標音方面的錯誤。如粵語 b 母字百分之九十六（劉銘，1984）在普通話仍讀 b ，但「坡」是例外，因而誤標「坡」爲 b 母者爲數甚多。此外，如誤「編」爲 p 、「踏」爲 d 、「婚」爲 f 、「況」爲 f 、「滑」爲w 等均是此類錯誤。這種錯誤仍是初級多於中級、而中級多於高級。

韻母方面的錯誤甚爲複雜，較難歸納分析。有一類錯誤，顯然受了粵語的影響，如將「電」誤注爲 in ，「風」誤爲 ong ，「佈」誤爲 ou ，「敏」誤爲 en 等。介母方面的錯誤，主要是漏標介母，其中漏掉 i 母的，如將「亮」注

爲 lang，「雄」標爲 xong；漏掉 u 母的，如「快」注爲 kai，「抓」標爲 zha；漏掉 ü 母的則較少。韻尾方面，前鼻音韻尾與後鼻音韻尾不分，是屢見不鮮的錯誤，如「貧」誤作 ping，「藏」誤爲 can 等。無論韻母、介母、韻尾的錯誤，都是高級少於中級，而中級少於初級。母語會影響第二語言的學習，上文述及的聲母、介母與韻母的錯誤，大部份都與粵語有關，一位學者(Chen，1974)指出台灣兒童學國語也受到台灣話的影響。

聲調方面，最值得注意的是輕聲。輕聲的得分，三級均有顯著差異。進一步比較，輕聲可分爲四類：(一)三級對親屬的疊字稱謂如「哥哥」、「妹妹」、「姐姐」都掌握得相當純熟，三級都沒有差異。(二)「我們」、、「看着」、「你呢」三詞第二字的輕聲，三級均無差異，可能由於這三個輕聲甚爲常用的緣故。(三)動詞重疊，第二字讀輕聲，如「跳跳」、「算算」、「拍拍」、「提提」，都是中、高兩級優於初級，而中級與高級則無差異。(四)高級優於中、低兩級的是「衣裳」、「葡萄」、「娘娘」(注意：娘娘指皇后或貴妃，不是親屬的稱謂。)三詞的輕聲得分。這三詞較少用，故初、中兩組俱不熟悉。第(三)、(四)兩類說明不同級別在輕聲的學習上有不同的困難，再進一步證實普通話的學習是有不同的發展階段的。

問卷中第二類詞滙、語法題表現上，三級均無差異。這結果甚出人意表，可能由於香港一般普通話課本都強調語音的操練，卻不大注重詞滙語法的訓練，極少系統地安排國語粵語詞滙語法的對比練習。這方面的學習，數量既少且欠全面，故中高兩級無明顯的進步。

結語

三級在語音方面的表現既有顯著差異，而且三級各有不同的學習難點。初級的語音學習困難最多，中級次之，高級最少，學習困難逐級消減，故普通話語音的學習，是可以劃分階段的。本調查初步肯定了普通話語音學習階段的存在；至於各個階段的清楚釐定，則有待大型的調查。本調查還揭示了不少學習普通話的困難，這些發現將有助普通話的課程設計。一般的普通話課本都強調三組舌音的區別，很能針對學習普通話的最大難點。其實除此之外，編寫普通話課本尚應注意以下三點：(一)普通話嚴分鼻音與邊音，課本除指出此一現象外，更應進而給予足夠的常用例字及練習；以免學生矯枉過正，將許多邊音字讀作鼻音。(二)粵語與普通話對應規律的例外字，是三級誤讀的一大來源，所以最好把這些字按常用程度分配到各級之中，作重點學習。(三)多數課本重視語音訓練，而忽略了詞滙語法的練習，以致詞滙、語法的學習進展緩慢；今後的課本編寫，宜語音與詞滙語法兼顧。

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Abstract

AN PRELIMINARY STUDY ON THE DIFFERENT STAGES OF LEARNING PUTONGHUA

Determining the different stages of learning Putonghua will be of much significance in developing curricula, in examining students' standards and in improving teaching methods. The present survey provides primary data to achieve the above goal.

By means of a questionnaire, the ability in transcription and the ability in rewriting Putonghua from Cantonese of three classes of participants was tested. The three classes, each of 50 participants, were of different levels (i.e., elementary, intermediate and advanced) and each level had received at least 24 hours' instruction.

The results show that all three classes had different levels of difficulty in learning the pronunciation of Putonghua, especially in the learning of initial consonants and of neutral tones. It was found that the three groups of sibilant sounds, which occur only initially, constitute the major difficulty; the second difficulty experienced by most Cantonese learners was not being able to distinguish the phonemes /1/ and /n/ in the initial position. Some learners also had difficulty in mastering the exceptions to the Cantonese-Putonghua sound correspondences.

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粵音正讀字表

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說明

一、　本表所列的粵語中常誤讀的字二百六十個，主要取材於《中華新字典》（第二版，中華書局香港分局，1980年）和黃錫凌的《粵音韻彙》（重排本，中華書局香港分局，1983年）。

二、　本表分爲"讀音"、"特殊用法"、"注意點"三項。"讀音"項先標出國際音標，附以聲調，還標出直音，以方便不懂國際音標的讀者。直音字原則上音與調均與原字相同，遇到無法標出音與調均同的直音字時，則在"直音"欄中列出音同而調異的字，並以括號注出應讀的調。"特殊用法"項中列出該字在某種用法中始須讀該音。"注意點"項列出某字常爲人讀錯的是調還是音；調以 a 表示，音以 b 表示。有些字誤讀的人特別多，"注意點"項會列出這些字的誤讀字音。

三、　"聲調"欄中阿拉伯數字 1 至 9 所代表的聲調如下：

數字	聲調	例字
1	高平	詩si^1
2	高上	史si^2
3	高去	試si^3
4	低平	時si^4
5	低上	市si^5
6	低去	事si^6
7	高入	昔sik^7
8	中入	錫sik^8
9	低入	蝕sik^9

四、　本表收字以常用字爲主，不常用的字，雖有誤讀，不予收錄。

五、　本表主要供中、小學教師、大、中學生及中等教育程度之社會人士參考。

六、　凡《中華新字典》及《粵音韻彙》聲明有"俗讀"的字多不予收錄。

七、　可讀變調的字盡量不予收錄。

八、　本表的編者並非語音專家，只因嗜讀字典成癖，適逢今日社會越來越注重粵音正讀，故因利乘便，在讀字典時隨手抄下這些一般人（包括編者在內）常讀錯的字，由於編者缺乏這方面的訓練，表列的

字，既缺系統，也沒有對語源作深入的探究和進一步的解釋。其中牽涉的問題一定很多，還望這方面的專家多加指正。

一九八四年三月

	音標聲調	直音	特　殊　用　法	注音點 a＝調 b＝音
佐	dzɔ^3	詛		a
便	pin^4	駢	大腹便便；便宜	b
俠	hap^6	狹		b
倩	sin^3	線		a 不讀善
儕	tsai^4	柴		b
兌	dœy^6	隊		a
凱	hɔi^2	海		b
划	wa^4	華	划艇；划不來 (用作劃的簡寫音wak^9)	a
券	hyn^3	勸		b 不讀眷
剎	tsat^8	察	古剎；剎那	b
匣	hap^6	狹		b
勁	ging^6	競		b
卷	gyn^3	眷	書卷；試卷；卷宗 (卷曲讀kyn^4，同捲讀gyn^2)	a
吹	tsœy^3	趣	鼓吹	a
吼	hɐu^3	口$^{(3)}$		b
咤	dza^3	詐		b
咱	dza^1	揸		a
咯	ka^3	卡$^{(3)}$	咯嚓；咯斯特	b
唾	tou^3	吐	唾液	b
	tɔ^3	拖$^{(3)}$	唾棄	a
啻	tsi^3	次		b
啾	dzɐu^1	周		b
喟	wɐi^2	毀		a
單	sin^4	善$^{(4)}$	單于，古代匈奴的君主	b
	sin^6	善	姓	ab
嗓	sɔng^2	爽		a
嗔	tsan^1	親		b
噍	dziu^3	照		a
噱	kœk^9	卻$^{(9)}$		b 不讀卓

	音標^{聲調}	直音	特殊用法	注意點 a = 調 b = 音
嚷	jœng^5	養		a
囪	tsung^1	匆	烟囪 (同"窗"時讀tsœng^1)	a
囹	ling^4	零		a
圄	jy^5	語		b
坎	hɐm^2	砍		ab
坷	hɔ^2	可		b
埃	ɔi^1	哀		b
塑	sou^3	訴		b
奘	dzɔng^6	臟		a
奩	lim^4	廉		a
娜	nɔ^5	挪		ab
媾	gɐu^3	夠		b
媲	pei^3	臂		b
嫵	mou^5	武		b
嬪	pɐn^4	頻		b
媼	ou^2	襖		b
孽	jit^9	熱		b
宿	sɐu^3	秀	星宿	b
尷	gam^1	監		a 不讀鑒
峙	si^6	侍		b
峽	hap^6	狹		b
帑	tɔng^2	倘	公帑；帑藏 (通孥時讀 nou^4)	b
帚	dzɐu^2	走		b
幢	tɔng^4	堂	一幢樓	b
怵	dzœt^7	卒		b
恪	kɔk^8	確		b
恬	tim^4	甜		a
悄	tsiu^2	愀		a
悖	bui^6	焙		b

	音標聲調	直音	特殊用法	注意點 a＝調 b＝音
悵	tsœng^{3}	唱		b
惇	dœn^{1}	敦		b
愆	hin^{1}	牽		a
戳	tsœk^{8}	卓		b
拚	pun^{3}	判		b
拮	git^{8}	潔		b
拴	san^{1}	山		b
拷	hau^{2}	考		a
捍	hɔn^{6}	汗		a
撰	dzan^{6}	賺		a
抨	ping^{1}	乒		a 不讀評
捩	lit^{9}	列	轉捩點	b
	lɐi^{6}	脷	琵琶撥法	
摒	bing^{3}	併		ab
擘	mak^{8}	麥(8)		b
擯	bɐn^{3}	殯		a
曇	tam^{4}	談		b 不讀壇
曖	ɔi^{3}	愛		a
曠	kwɔng^{3}	礦		b
曝	buk^{9}	瀑		b
會	kui^{2}	儈	會計	b
柿	tsi^{5}	恃		a
栓	san^{1}	山		b
桅	wɐi^{4}	圍		b 不讀危
桎	dzɐt^{9}	窒		b
梏	guk^{7}	谷		b
梵	fan^{6}	飯		a
棟	dung^{3}	凍		a
棧	dzan^{6}	賺		a
楷	kai^{2}	鍇	楷書；楷模	ab
樺	wa^{6}	話		a

	音標聲調	直音	特殊用法	注意點 a＝調 b＝音
檠	king^{4}	擎		b
檑	lœy^{4}	雷		a
櫫	dzy^{1}	猪		b
歃	sap^{8}	霎		b
毯	tam^{2}	貪$^{(2)}$		b
汀	ting^{1}	聽		b
泊	bɔk^{9}	舶		b
浣	wun^{5}	皖		a
淖	nau^{6}	閙		b
淙	tsung^{4}	松		b
淦	gem^{3}	禁		b
泮	pun^{3}	判		b
沏	tsei^{3}	砌	沏茶	b
	tsit^{3}	切	水聲	
涮	san^{3}	汕	涮羊肉	b
淞	sung^{1}	鬆		b
湍	tœn^{1}	盾$^{(1)}$		b 不讀喘
湮	jen^{1}	因		b
渚	dzy^{2}	主		b
渲	syn^{3}	算		b 不讀喧
渾	wen^{4}	魂		a
滑	gwet^{7}	骨	滑稽	b
溜	leu^{6}	漏		a
溯	sou^{3}	訴		b
滓	dzi^{2}	子		b
漪	ji^{1}	伊		a
潦	lou^{5}	老	水潦	b
	liu^{4}	僚	潦倒；潦草	b
澀	sep^{7}	濕		b
	又 sap^{8}	颯		
澆	giu^{1}	嬌		ab

	音標聲調	直音	特殊用法	注意點 a = 調 b = 音
澇	lou⁶	路		a
勞	lou⁶	路	犒勞・慰勞	a
澡	dzou²	早		b
灼	dzœk⁸	酌		b 不讀卓
炫	jyn⁶	願		a
烘	hung¹	兇		b
烤	hau²	考		a
獷	gwɔng²	廣		b 不讀抗
獺	tsat⁸	察		b
猥	wɐi²	委		b
狩	sɐu³	瘦		a
狷	gyn³	眷		a
狂	kwɔng⁴	礦⁽⁴⁾		b 不讀kɔng⁴
爍	sœk⁸	削		b 不讀礫
鑠	sœk⁸	削		b
玷	dim³	店		ab
畸	gei¹	機		b 不讀崎
疼	tɐng⁴	騰		b
疹	dzɐn²	診		b
疸	tan²	坦		b
皰	pau³	豹		ab
痌	tung¹	通		a
瘝	gwan¹	關		a
痙	ging⁶	競		a
皖	wun⁵	浣		a
皚	ji⁴	夷		b
	又 ngɔi⁴	呆		
眨	dzap⁸	劄		b
眩	jyn⁶	願		a
瞑	ming⁴	明		a

	音標^{聲調}	直音	特殊用法	注意點 a ＝調 b ＝音
瞠	tsang^{1}	撐		b
瞼	gim^{2}	檢		b
硤	hap^{9}	狹		b
碾	nin^{5}	年$^{(5)}$		b
礦	kwɔng^{3}	曠		b
	又 gwɔng^{3}	廣$^{(3)}$		
稔	nem^{5}	林$^{(5)}$		b
窈	jiu^{2}	妖		b 不讀杪
竄	tsyn^{3}	寸		a
筠	wen^{4}	勻		b
劄	dzap^{8}	眨		b
糾	geu^{2}	九		b
紊	men^{6}	問		a
綜	dzung^{3}	縱		a
絢	hyn^{3}	勸		b
縷	lœy^{5}	呂		b
纂	dzyn^{2}	轉		b
罌	ang^{1}	甖		b
肘	dzeu^{2}	走		b
胴	dung^{6}	洞		b
骼	gak^{8}	格		b
腎	sen^{5}	神		a
臊	sou^{1}	搔	狐臊	b
	sou^{3}	掃	羞臊	
臬	jit^{9}	熱		b
舐	sai^{5}	晒		b
舴	dzak^{8}	責		b
舶	bɔk^{9}	泊		b
	又 bak^{8}	百		
芍	dzœk^{8}	酌		b
茜	sin^{3}	線		b

	音標^{聲調}	直音	特殊用法	注意點 a = 調 b = 音
莖	hɐng^{4}	恆		b
莞	wun^{5}	浣	莞爾	a
菁	dzing^{1}	精		b
蒂	dɐi^{3}	帝		b 不讀替
蕊	jœy^{5}	銳		a
蕾	lœy^{5}	呂		a
藪	sɐu^{2}	叟		b
蚧	gai^{3}	介		b 不讀拐
蚱	dzak^{8}	窄		b
蜃	sɐn^{5}	腎		b
蜿	jyn^{1}	鴛		a
蝙	bin^{1}	邊		b
	又 bin^{2}	扁		
蟄	dzɐt^{9}	姪		b
蟶	tsing^{1}	稱		b
蠍	hit^{8}	歇		b 不讀揭
衍	jin^{5}	演		b
袂	mɐi^{6}	謎$^{(6)}$		b
褸	lœy^{5}	呂		b
襖	ou^{2}	媼		b
襠	dɔng^{1}	當		a
訌	hung^{4}	紅		a
譎	kyt^{8}	決		b
讎	tsɐu^{4}	酬	校讎	b
讖	tsɐm^{3}	侵$^{(3)}$		b
貉	hɔk^{9}	鶴	一丘之貉	b
販	fan^{3}	泛		a
診	dzɐn^{2}	疹		b
詎	gœy^{6}	巨		b
詔	dziu^{3}	照		ab
詛	dzɔ^{3}	佐		b

	音標聲調	直音	特殊用法	注意點 a = 調 b = 音
諄	dzœn^{1}	津		b
論	lœn^{4}	輪	論語	a
諦	dɐi^{3}	帝		b 不讀啼
諳	ɐm^{1}	庵		ab
謇	gin^{2}	蹇		b
賄	fui^{2}	悔		b
贛	gɐm^{3}	禁	江西簡稱；贛江	b
赳	gɐu^{2}	久		b
蹊	hɐi^{4}	奚		b 不讀溪
踐	tsin^{5}	前(5)		a
	又 dzin^{6}	賤		
蹇	gin^{2}	謇		b
輒	dzip^{8}	摺		b
遏	at^{8}	壓		b
遒	tsɐu^{4}	囚		b
邂	hai^{6}	械		a
邃	sœy^{6}	遂		b
郝	kɔk^{8}	壑		b
郢	jing^{5}	形(5)		b
鄱	pɔ^{4}	婆		b 不讀播
鄺	kwɔng^{3}	礦		b
醃	jy^{3}	淤		b
酢	dzɔk^{9}	昨		b
釧	tsyn^{3}	串		a
鈞	gwɐn^{1}	均		b 不讀坤
鉑	bɔk^{9}	舶		b
鈾	jɐu^{4}	由		a
銘	ming^{4}	名		a
銬	kau^{3}	靠		b
鋸	gœy^{3}	據		b
鏤	lɐu^{6}	漏		b

	音標^{聲調}	直音	特殊用法	注意點 a = 調 b = 音
鐲	dzuk^{9}	濁		a
鑫	jɐm^{1}	歆		b
鑽	dzyn^{1}	尊	鑽探；鑽研	a
	dzyn^{3}	轉	鑽子；鑽石	
間	gan^{1}	艱	中間；人間；時間；一間房	a
	gan^{3}	諫	間斷；離間；間格	
閭	lœy^{4}	雷		a
闡	dzin^{2}	展		b
	又 tsin^{2}	淺		
霰	sin^{3}	線		b
靨	jip^{8}	頁$^{(8)}$		b
革	gak^{8}	隔	皮革；革新	b 不讀甲
	gik^{7}	擊	病革	
韻	wɐn^{6}	運		a
頏	hɔng^{4}	杭		b
頰	gap^{8}	夾		b
顆	fɔ^{2}	夥		b
飭	tsik^{7}	斥		b
餒	nɔi^{5}	內$^{(5)}$		b
餽	gwɐi^{6}	匱		b
饅	man^{4}	蠻		a
飫	jy^{3}	於$^{(3)}$		b
魘	jim^{2}	掩		a
髭	dzi^{1}	資		b
鬈	kyn^{4}	拳		b
閾	jik^{7}	抑		b
魅	mei^{6}	未		b 不讀妹
鰻	man^{4}	蠻		a
黌	hung^{4}	洪		b
鵠	huk^{6}	酷	鴻鵠	b
	guk^{1}	谷	鵠的	

	音標^{聲調}	直音	特殊用法	注意點 a = 調 b = 音
鷸	wɐt^{9}	屈		b
鸝	lei^{4}	離		b
黜	dzœt7	卒		b 不讀啜
	又 tsœt^{7}	出		

Abstract

A TABLE OF CORRECT CANTONESE PRONUNCIATIONS OF CHINESE CHARACTERS

The table is a collection of 260 characters which have often been erroneously represented in Cantonese pronunciation. The compilers explains with the help of the International Phonetic Alphabet how these words should be pronounced. The pronunciation of Cantonese is based upon *Zhonghua Xin Zidian (China New Dictionary,* Zhonghua Book Co., Hong Kong, 1980) and *Yueyin Yunhui (A Chinese Syllabary Pronounced According to the Dialect of Canton,* Zhonghua Book Co., Hong Kong, 1983).

The table helps to illustrate the appropriate Cantonese pronunciation in each case. It is divided into 3 columns: *pronunciation, special usage* and *points to note.* IPA symbols are used to indicate the Cantonese pronunciations beside corresponding characters. Character homophones are also illustrated. The second column shows the pronunciation of a word in particular contexts. In the Third column special attention is called to the tone or pronunciation of the character especially when the word is often mispronounced.

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徵稿

《語文教育學院學報》第二期將於一九八六年初出版，歡迎來稿。來稿如用中文撰寫，請用原稿紙單面橫寫，字數宜在四千以內。每篇文章請附內容提要，如另附英譯者更佳。稿件請於一九八五年十月前寄交下址：

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Volume 2 1986

語文教育學院學報

第二期 一九八六年

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語文教育學院
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語文教育學院學報

一九八六年

第二期

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The articles in this Journal record the personal views of the contributors and should not be taken as expressing the official views of the Education Department, Hong Kong.

本學報各篇文章內容，僅代表作者個人見解，並不代表香港教育署的意見。

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The editors would like to thank the Journal Advisors and all those members of the staff of the I.L.E. who helped in the preparation of this issue of the ILEJ.

致謝

本期學報得到校外學者出任顧問，及院內同事協助編輯工作，謹致謝意。

FOREWORD

This second issue of the ILEJ contains articles on the speaking, reading and writing skills (Ho Kwok-cheung, Clive Criper, Chan Wai-leung and Godfrey Liu); on aspects of grammar and lexis (Lee Kar-shui, William Cheng and Gabriele Stein) and on language learning and teaching problems that can arise because of cultural differences (R. J. Owens). There is also a description of a research project presently underway in Hong Kong (Lee Hok-ming), a description of a task-based approach to in-service language teacher training which has been adopted by the British Council in Singapore (Prem Mathur) and a summary of a workshop held in Hong Kong at which the use of micro-computers for language learning on a voluntary, self-access basis was discussed (David Foulds and Anthony Cheung).

The articles which appear in English have been selected from those prepared for and read at the first Institute of Language in Education International Seminar on Language Teacher Education held in Hong Kong in December 1985 and which was attended by scholars from 14 countries.

前言

本期刊載的文章，內容包括說話、閱讀和寫作技巧的討論（何國祥、葛儞柏、陳煒良、廖國輝）；語法和詞匯的研究(李家樹、鄭[illegible]事、史丹)；不同文化所產生的語文教與學問題的探討（奧文思）；一個在港進行的研究計畫介紹（李學銘）；新加坡英國文化協會爲培訓在職語文教師而採用的研習活動介紹（梅杜）；一個在港舉行，探究使用電腦自學語文專題討論的綜合報導（傅大衛、張俊明）

去年十二月，語文教育學院舉辦了第一屆國際研討會。這次研討會以語文教師培訓爲主題，參加學者來自十四個國家。本期所刊載的英文論著，就是選自研討會中所宣讀的論文。

CONTENTS 目錄

Clive Criper:	Communicative Language Teaching and Extensive Reading	7
陳煒良：	談中學中國語文科閱讀教材的份量問題	17
廖國輝：	語言和表象在寫作中的交互作用	21
William Cheng:	Innovations in the Teaching of Grammar	29
李家樹：	講詞法時要處處顧到句法	42
Prem Mathur:	A Taxonomy of Tasks for In-Service Training of Language Teachers	46
David Foulds & Anthony Cheung:	Computer Awareness and Teacher Education	53
何國祥、肖正芳：	普通話上聲變調中的一個問題——由上聲字變來且與上聲字相連的輕聲詞語讀法	62
李學銘：	「常用字標準字形研究計劃」報告（一九八五年九月）	79
Gabriele Stein:	Social and Stylistic Stratification in English Vocabulary and its Treatment in Pedagogical Dictionaries	95
R. J. Owens:	Cross-Cultural Problems in Language Teaching and Learning	103

COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING AND EXTENSIVE READING

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Class libraries, class readers, simplified texts, reading notebooks, stories from an alien culture—all these terms and ideas appear to belong to an age of language teaching and language learning that is long gone by. They reek of teacher directed classrooms, an unthinking acceptance of a colonial cultural influence and an old fashioned view of the nature and process of comprehension.

I wish to argue the opposite. To be more precise I wish to argue that, within limitations, the practices implied by such terms require rehabilitation as vital means through which we can at least hope to achieve a degree of communicative language teaching (and learning) particularly in institutional settings.

Communicative Language Teaching—The Problems

I do not intend to attempt any definition of communicative language teaching—that ground has been worked over well enough. What I wish to remind us all of is the difficulty we have in any way at all of approaching the ideals implied in the label in the majority of the language teaching situations of the world. Common to all approaches, though, are two assumptions. The first is that learning best occurs (though some would say only occurs) through the learners' attempts to use the language for genuine communicative purposes i.e. when they are concentrating on the 'what' rather than the 'how' of what they want to say. The second is the 'comprehensible input' thesis of Krashen, namely that the learner requires language input that is comprehensible as a necessary condition for learning. Learners require something against which they can test, so to speak, their developing competence. These conditions are not, as we know, easily achieved.

Teachers Competence

Much of current thinking on communicative language teaching methodology implies native speaker teachers or at the very least non-native speaker teachers who are very confident of their ability to be able to respond appropriately to their students' attempts at communication and to be able to judge and subsequently comment on their students' own communicative efforts in the foreign language. While these conditions apply in Britain in the field of English as a foreign language, particularly at the adult level, they do not apply there in the teaching of foreign languages at school level. This latter situation is by far the most common situation in foreign language teaching across the world. The level of proficiency in the foreign language of the body of teachers at school level or beyond is one of the major problems in achieving a gain in the proficiency level of the learners they are teaching.

Methodologies depending upon a high level of proficiency of the main body of language teachers tend to serve to divide the world into the haves and have-nots rather than bring it together in a single methodology which can be used everywhere.

Content of Communication

Within institutional settings it is often difficult to identify genuine topics about which language learners can and want to communicate with each other or with the teacher. At higher levels where learners are wishing to acquire the language for, say, professional or occupational reasons and are using the language in those contexts then the learners may well be genuinely interested in talking to each other about their own speciality. This would certainly fulfil the requirements of the learner's emphasis being not on form for its own sake but on exploiting his/her desire to convey a meaning by whatever means are available through the second or foreign language. More often than not in these circumstances the teacher is left outside—as a language teacher and not a teacher of medicine or law or engineering, he/she has a specialist knowledge which does not match that of his students. Real content discussion is thus often inhibited by the teacher being a comparative novice (often, indeed, a complete novice) in the areas in which students may wish to communicate. This may occur in all but the best ESP/EOP teaching establishments.

The situation is even more difficult at school or indeed higher education level when general English is being taught. Providing any authentic communicative tasks in a foreign language is extremely difficult where the foreign language is not used within the country concerned or where the learners do not expect to be using the language immediately for travel or tourist purposes. Many communicative syllabuses are made up largely of role playing situations and simulations to be used to engage the interest and motivation of the learner so that all possible communicative strategies are brought into play in order to bridge any communication gap present as a result of a lack of knowledge of the second or foreign language.

In practice many problems arise particularly in school settings. Authentic role play situations are hard to design, particularly in foreign language situations where children do not see a direct use for the foreign language at all. Even without the authenticity requirement, repeated role playing has its limitations as a classroom activity.

Class Size

One of the limitations of role playing activity is class size. Group work of any kind is extremely difficult to achieve in the classroom and it becomes close to impossible for any but the most brilliant and dedicated teacher when the number of learners in a class gets large. Obviously a class full of highly motivated adult learners provides by far the best conditions for this kind of activity. Adults who have given up time and money to attend classes voluntarily will go out of their way to perform in the way required of them but even for them there are limitations imposed by size and layout of classroom and the sheer numbers of learners for each teacher. In more 'normal' situations throughout the world language teaching classrooms are less favourable learning environments because of size, lack of a driving motivation on the part of pupils/students and because teachers are not paragons of motivated, dedicated, expertise but ordinary citizens of the countries they come from trying to do an ordinary job like any other citizen—no better and no worse. (I am leaving out the effects that may follow from the generally low pay that teachers receive.)

In summary, group work in any class makes extra calls on the teachers' confidence, expertise and willingness to do extra work. Large classes make such work almost impossible.

Communication and the Spoken Language

Communicative language teaching seems to be almost entirely associated with the teaching of the spoken language. Communication is taken by most, though not all, to refer to oral communication, not by conscious decision but by default. There is no reason why and many reasons why we should not make this assumption in the normal language teaching classroom. The written medium also provides an excellent means for enabling students to learn through a communicative mode.

Levels of language

One problem is widespread throughout the world, both in language classrooms and in others, namely a mismatch between the level of teaching implied by the syllabus in whatever form it exists and the actual level of knowledge of performance of the learners being taught. The incidence of the mismatch and the problems that it causes are not peculiar to language learning or communicative language teaching. The mismatch is important, however, in that it does affect language learning—if we accept the theoretical view that language learning requires 'comprehensible input' i.e. input that is comprehensible and processable by the learner and not just by the teacher. The problem is particularly acute in centralised school and higher education systems where the syllabus for any year may be imposed on all classes and hence all pupils irrespective of the level they have already achieved. Syllabus levels and hence levels of materials and teacher presentation more often than not reflect ideals or hopes rather than reality. For language learning an appropriate level and quantity of 'comprehensible input' is essential and a reading programme is a way in which this can be effectively achieved. It is to this notion that I now wish to turn.

Language and Literature

Almost all the attention of the past few years on providing genuine language input has been on how to achieve this through oral interaction. The use of reading for this purpose has been downgraded by communicative language teachers though not, of course, by teachers of literature. Perhaps one of the reasons for this has been the attack on the teaching of literature, certainly in the EFL context. The criticism of the teaching of English literature in countries where English is required for more mundane tasks has often been justified. Criticisms have been based on inappropriacy of level where original works of literature are given to learners whose proficiency is far below that required to understand and appreciate the works concerned; on inappropriacy of content where the learners require the language for study purposes, occupational purposes or international or intra-national communication; and on inappropriacy of cultural content as expressions of an overseas culture.

There should be no dispute that the study of a foreign culture and literature is a worthwhile occupation in its own right. It is not likely to be the most effective way of teaching language as a communicative system either for those at the earlier stages of language learning or for those who wish to use language for some purpose. In the move away from this kind of teaching, however, extensive reading appears to have got lost.

Reading as Input

We all recognise that a major problem for language learners is how to get exposure to the language they are learning. The problem is minimal for those living and studying in the country whose language they are learning. It is most acute for those who are learning in schools or other institutions in countries where the foreign language is rarely if ever used outside the classroom. In such circumstances the learner is usually solely dependent upon input from the teacher and from a textbook backed up, in fortunate circumstances only, by other supplementary material.

I have already referred to the difficulties in relying on the teacher as a source of good language. We also need to remember that we would hardly applaud if the teacher was talking throughout the lesson and the pupils or students were silent or inactive. If we turn to 'the textbook' then it is also clear that, measured as quantity of input, the textbook is very limited. A native speaker could probably read through most textbooks from cover to cover within an afternoon. Neither of the above sources is sufficient to provide the learner with an adequate language environment through which or for which the foreign language can be acquired.

Extensive reading can provide the essential ingredient for language learning because these three variables can be manipulated to suit a particular group of learners.

Quantity

Individual readers can provide a vast quantity of linguistic input. Books can be changed frequently and the range of titles can provide the learner with an unlimited supply of new material. Twenty different titles for a class of forty pupils allows for very extensive changes round of books at small cost. (It would be more accurate to say that there is no *extra* cost in providing unlimited reading for the learner once the initial decision is taken to provide reading i.e. a book for everyone). The possibility of reading a book a week, or even more, however small the book, would transform the quantity of 'input' that most foreign language learners receive, particularly at school.

Language Level

Input, however, is not enough. It needs to be 'comprehensible'. The failure to match pupil or student proficiency level with level of textbook or teaching materials is one of the major failings of educational systems throughout the world. The reasons are obvious: centralised or even partly centralised planning tends to require a large degree of uniformity of teaching practice as indeed does the need for economy. Uniform syllabuses for particular stages of school irrespective of individual variation, uniform textbooks, pressures from centralised examination systems, the perceived need to monitor teachers work, all tend to lead to the individual learners' needs becoming secondary if not forgotten. Yet years of attempts to spread the gospel of individualised learning have had only marginal effects on most educational systems.

There are many examples we can all quote where pupils within the school system start a foreign language, be it English or some other, and within a short while fall behind the textbook or the syllabus or whatever plan it is that the teacher is following. Thereafter year by year as the 'input' becomes less and less comprehensible and the gap between what the teacher is teaching and the learner's own level of proficiency widens a spiral of non-learning develops. This is frequently the cause of situations where seemingly little language learning occurs over the whole period of secondary or primary schooling.

Supplementary extensive reading is one way in which this spiral of non-learning can be broken. For English as a foreign language there is a very large quantity of already published books which have been 'simplified' in some way. Some publishers' series have been simplified or written according to structural criteria of word counts and syntactic complexity. Others have tried to incorporate or pay attention to such things as information structure. Such processes of simplification have been the subject of considerable criticism as our knowledge of the process of comprehension improves and there would be few people who would now feel confident in justifying the particular lexical or grammatical grading found in some of the series as even the *most* important factors affecting comprehension. Nevertheless on empirical grounds alone it is clear that graded readers do provide a pathway from simple to difficult reading and that individual books can be graded along a continuum though with a margin of inaccuracy which may be due to differences that individual readers or groups of readers bring to the reading process.

The effect of providing comprehensible as opposed to incomprehensible input can be very powerful not only on the possibility of learning but also on motivation. The introduction of a reading scheme designed for the particular level of the students concerned can often provide a student with the first 'success' he or she has ever really had in the foreign language i.e. the completion of a real task.

In summary one can say that individual readers graded from very elementary to advanced provide an ideal input which can be individualised to suit each learners needs. The content of a library is an ideal learner input as long as the choice of reading is closely and carefully tailored to the needs of the individual.

Interest

The ability to succeed is but one of the motivating factors in a reading programme. The other is the inherent interest of the task the learner is being asked to carry out. In the Edinburgh Project on Extensive Reading with which I have been associated the simplified and unsimplified books used have all been fiction. The reason for this is again pragmatic. Experience showed that the popularity of fiction far outweighed that of non-fiction though there is no reason why that should be so in all situations.

The task that a learner is asked to carry out in such a programme is truly a communicative one. While in a school situation there may be pressures on a teacher to engage in reading, once a book is taken up the reader becomes involved not in looking at the language for its own sake but in using the language to find out what is happening or will happen in the story. In other words the reading becomes a means to an end—the discovery of the twists and tails of an adventure, the trail of a romantic love story. The learner becomes unaware of 'learning' the language only of the pleasure of a story. There may of course be complaints from both teachers and even from some learners that reading stories is not work, is not serious enough to lead to language learning, but that is a problem of another kind.

The necessity for the reader to become fully engaged in the story makes the choice of books on offer extremely important. All of us know the effect of picking up *War and Peace* in place of a paperback by Barbara Cartland or Ian Fleming. Yet there are certain strongly held views on subject matter which inhibit the adoption or success of reading schemes. The first derives from the teaching of literature and places an over-high premium on choosing 'good' books as opposed to 'trash' or originals as opposed to simplified or abridged versions. In other words the main purpose of a reading scheme in a foreign language is forgotten—to provide maximum exposure to the language. Whether this is to be achieved through comics or through Shakespeare depends on the readers inclination.

A similar view derives from notions of only providing appropriate cultural content either on the grounds that large amounts of reading material from an external source will interfere with the transmission of local values or on the grounds that children in particular will only enjoy reading about things and places which are local and therefore within their experience.

The first objection is really about political and social priorities and the language teacher has no particular expertise to answer it either way. The second objection usually comes from teachers or others in the educational system who believe that the criterion of local setting affects pupil-reader motivation. There seems little evidence to support the view. What matters is how good a story is being told. Whether the setting is local, another continent or outer space, while not irrelevant, appears to be secondary to the ability of the author. For language learning purposes it is the motivation to want to know what will happen over the page, in the next chapter or at the end of the book that matters. It is the urge to use the language and not just look at the language (or the dictionary) that counts.

Reading as Topic

What I have been dealing with so far are the advantages that come from using extensive reading as the necessary input for language learning to take place. Reading of this kind can also provide the topic for real oral communicative work. As mentioned earlier in the paper, providing situations in which learners genuinely wish to exchange information or ideas in a foreign language is difficult. Reading, however, provides even an elementary learner with the opportunity and frequently the desire to evaluate what he or she has read and to communicate that to others.

The opportunities for discussion of this kind are least when members of a class have all read different books as would happen if using a library-based extensive reading programme. Opportunities are largely restricted to interchanges between individual learner and teacher who may well not have read the book concerned. Opportunities for class or group based discussion become possible even in a class library based system of individual reading when the number of titles available for the class is limited and most members of a class will be expected to have read most of the titles eventually. Class discussion on the content and quality of the books is then possible.

However, much more useful as a source of and stimulus for genuine communication both oral and written, is the old and traditional notion of the class reader. The difference from the class library system is that every member of a class will be reading the same book with all the possibilities of discussion, evaluation and debate that that raises quite apart from the possibilities of language exploitation that a long connected text makes available.

The interest that is aroused by storyline, characterisation, analysis of social or political issues raised or implied in the book should not be underestimated whether the learners involved are budding scientists or language specialists. The involvement in the text is normally far greater than that for isolated reading comprehension type passages.

For many school or institution based pupils reading for pleasure can provide by far the most authentic language experience that they have in the foreign language. They are operating as native speakers do in reading silently and alone, in reading to satisfy their own interests and curiosities, in reading to receive direct communication from the author through the text without mediation through the teacher and in relating what they have read to their own experience. For oral communication practice such reading input becomes invaluable since it provides the stimulus for individual experience and feelings which can form the basis for a genuine and interesting exchange of personal views and perceptions in a way which simulated role playing does not and can not. While there are many opportunities for real communication to take place in classes whose students are drawn from different countries or areas it is infinitely harder to provide real and genuine communication opportunities in a foreign language for a class all drawn from a similar background. Discussions about family or what individual have done over the week-end, holidays etc. have their limitations!

The Content of a Reading Programme

The systematic implementation of a Reading Programme, like any curriculum implementation, imposes constraints and perhaps forces a degree of rigidity which some might question. A compromise is possible between the demands of an educational system with its emphasis on uniformity and control and the requirement of freedom necessary for individuals to engage in reading 'for pleasure' though I do not intend to examine this aspect now. A brief description of the component of the Edinburgh Project on Extended Reading is, however, given in the Appendix. What is certain is that those old fashioned components mentioned at the beginning of the paper are all central—both to the implementation of a programme and to the language progress of pupils.

Conclusion

Let us return to the components and summarise their functions.

Class libraries —	provide unlimited amounts of input for the learner; input is independent of the teachers linguistic competence; input is independent of the teachers teaching ability. choice of books offered is a pragmatic matter—learner controlled, not teacher controlled. purpose of reading appears to be pleasure not language learning itself.
Class readers —	provide a shared knowledge and experience for a class as a whole provide unlimited opportunity for class-based genuine communication, both oral and written provide opportunity for language exploitation and language instruction based on inherently interesting materials
Simplifed texts —	allow for individualised programmes of reading provide comprehensible input provide motivation by division into levels thus showing targets and rates of progress

In conclusion we can only ask 'Why, with the possible exception of EAP teaching, has systematic reading been so neglected as a genuine communicative activity?' Can we think of a better and cheaper method of providing both comprehensible input and a genuine reason for wanting to communicate in the classroom?

APPENDIX

The Edinburgh Project on Extensive Reading (EPER) aims to provide all the necessary wherewithal for the implementation of a systematic reading programme. It is based at the University of Edinburgh in the Institute for Applied Language Studies and is directed by Mr David Hill. What is provided for the implementation of any scheme is as follows:

1. Current Readers	—	a database of all current readers in EFL with full specifications.
2. An Evaluation of Current Readers	—	an assessment of readers in terms of content, language simplification, topic interest, quality of illustrations, production etc.
3. System of Grading	—	a division of all simplified readers into 7 levels based not on publishers classifications but on experience of use; a listing of suitable easy unsimplified books to cope with the transition from simplified to unsimplifed.
4. Experience of Use	—	Information is starting to be collected of which titles have proved popular/suitable in different parts of the world.
5. Reading Aids	—	Reading aids for books judged suitable for use have been produced: (i) Introductions— to help readers choose (ii) Question slip—quick basic questions the answer to which provides the outline of the story of the book—used as a reading check (iii) Answer card—answers for the above for self checking.
6. Class Reader List	—	list of books, graded by level, suitable for use as a class reader.

7. Class reader teaching Aid — a teaching aid for the above to assist teachers who are not familiar with how to teach from a class reader.
8. Reading Charts — charts to enable teachers to plot their students' reading progress.
9. Tests—entry/progress — tests to indicate the reading level for pupils/students entering a reading programme
10. Administrators Manual — A basic manual for the systematic implementation of a reading programme, modifiable to take account of local circumstances.
11. Class Library Lists — Lists are available for complete class libraries, modifiable to suit size of class and other local requirements.

談中學中國語文科閱讀教材的份量問題

陳煒良

語文教育學院

近年來，香港中學生的中文水平直線下降，是有目共睹的事實。造成這種現象的產生有許多原因，我以爲學生讀得太少，是一個重要的原因。我現在把中學生學習中文教材的份量問題，提出跟大家討論。

學習語文是沒有捷徑的，必須多讀巧練，才會得到好成績。通過廣泛的閱讀，學生從教材裏吸取語文知識，擴大了自己對生活及詞匯的認識，發展智力，學習用詞造句、結構篇章的技巧，和各類體裁與表達方法。然後通過各種精心設計的練習，把從課文裏學到的語文知識變爲能力，應付學習和生活的需要。

閱讀的份量必須多，非如此不足以使學生的語文能力的發展有足夠的營養；閱讀的內容必須廣，非如此不足以使學生對生活現象有深廣的認識。香港中學生在中文課內所讀的課文有幾篇呢？這是語文教學上一個值得研究的問題。

根據教育署頒佈的中國語文科課程綱要的建議，中學一至五年級每周上中文課六至七節。但是事實上，每班每周有七節中文課的中學並不多，一般只有六節，或每六日循環周有六節或七節，算起來每周只有五節或六節。課程綱要又建議每周中文課六節的班級，每年教課文二十四至二十八篇，每周上課七節的，每年教三十至三十四篇。就一般情況來看，各中學中一至中三每年平均只教中文二十四至二十六篇，也有少至二十篇的。還有，現在許多中學都設有輔導班，照顧那些程度較差的學生。就中文科方面來說，部份班級每年所教的課文只有十八篇。至於中四和中五所讀的中國語文科會考課程，包括共同課文二十三篇，選教課文分兩組，一組五篇，一組七篇，即學生在兩年內要讀二十八篇或三十篇。合起來計算，學生在中學五年的中文課裏所讀課文，多的只有一百篇左右，少的就連九十篇還不到，以這個小小數目的課文作爲中國語文科教材的主要內容，要求訓練學生有合乎水準的聽說讀寫能力，實在是遠遠不夠的。

這份量跟中國、台灣和星加坡的中學中文課本的內容份量比較，也頗有距離。中國一九七八年頒佈的中學語文教學大綱試行草案，編定中學五個年級閱讀的課文共二百七十四篇，其後經過修訂，在一九八二年推行使用的五年制中學語文課本，課文總數共三百篇，分爲十冊，每冊三十篇，

即學生一年要讀六十篇。又根據中學語文教學一九八○年第十一期刊登的一篇文章，陝西省千陽中學進行了一個語文教學改革實驗，學生在初中兩年內讀了一百八十篇文章，另外在課外還背誦了一百五十首詩歌。在這樣大量增加學習份量，却沒有增加課時，學生反應是學習負擔不重。台灣國民中學初中三個年級的國文課本，包括每年必讀的課文三十二篇，選讀的八篇，即共四十篇；高級中學國文課本，規定高中一全年讀三十六篇，高中二、三兩級每年讀三十二篇。星加坡四年制華文中學的華文課本，共分八冊，供八學期使用，每冊約二十篇，學生一年也要讀四十篇。由上面列舉的資料，可見香港中學生所讀課文的份量，是比不上鄰近國家的中學生所讀的。

中學生每年要多讀一點課文，這要求是不是太高呢？我們首先看看中學語文教材的歷史情況。一九三四年國內開明書局出版的「開明國文讀本」，供初級中學生國文科精讀之用，全書分六冊，每學期用一冊，每冊選文四十二篇。一九三五年商務印書館出版的「復興初中國文」，全書六冊，每學期用一冊，每冊收精讀教材四十篇。四、五十年代中華書局出版的「新編高中國文」六冊，每冊收課文四十篇左右。這幾套課文的份量很多，那時教師是「自由講學」的，不一定全部講完，但教的也不少，中國在一九五○年到五五年的中學語文課本，每學期用一冊，每冊都是二十篇左右。一九六○到六六年的五年制和六年制中學語文課本，每冊都是三十篇。從歷史看，中學生每年多讀一點課文是應該而又可行的。

爲了提高學生的語文程度，增加學生學習課文的份量是必須的，但是，怎樣在教法、取材和教學時間方面來配合呢？

先說教材。學生在一定時間內，能學習多少份量的教材，是和教材的難易密切相關的。而教材的難易，又和它篇幅的長短、內容的深淺、語言的簡易、艱澀有關。中學生閱讀的課文應該是長短適中，內容具體，語句明白易曉，文言和語體的比例適當，題材廣泛，切合學生的能力、興趣和需要。這樣，學生就會覺得容易、有趣、實用，閱讀的速度、份量就可以大大提高了。

爲了增加學生學習課文的份量，我認爲課文應該分爲精讀課文和略讀課文兩部份。先說精讀課文。一篇好課文可以給予學生的「營養」是多方面的，除了內容的理解和詞語的認識外，還有安排結構、表達技巧、文體知識、思想內容、修辭手法、詞句運用、語法特點、……等，每一項還可以再分爲若干小目。如果要確定這課書的教學目的和內容，可供考慮的因素至少有七、八點之多。究竟我們對一課書的教學要求是面面俱到呢，還是集中一些呢？我以爲教學時間有限，如果要求每課教學都求全求備，對

課文裏某些「精華」不忍割愛，就勢不能顯出教材特點、突出教學重點，學生的印象也就不夠深刻，教學效果反爲不理想。我們應該考慮課文的特點，配合各年級教學要求，以主要的統率次要的，以帶有全面性的概括局部性的，使到教學的要求旣集中而又內容豐富。學生在每課、每節教學中都會有一「得」、兩「得」，積少成多，循序漸進，慢慢提高了語文知識和能力。因此，精講並不是對課文作精細的、全面的講，而是掌握着課文中某些特點作精細的分析，引導學生以點帶全，仔細學習。精讀課文一般適宜篇幅較短，便於教師精講，也便於學生多讀、熟讀，細心體會，鑽研文章的技巧。

略讀課文也不要求教師詳細講解，只要就課文的特點握要地指導學生學習，或組織課堂討論，讓學生發表意見，目的在培養學生學習的積極性和自學能力，擴大閱讀範圍，增長學生的知識，豐富學生的語言。略讀課文的篇幅可長可短，只要內容生動，對學生有吸引力，深淺適合學生程度，寫法上有某些優點就夠了。

把課文分做精讀和略讀兩種，來擴大學生的閱讀量，是近二、三十年來因應教學時間和教學環境而發展的一種趨勢。一九四九年以前，中學語文課本收課文雖多，但沒有指定哪些是精讀，哪些是略讀的。中國一九五○年到五五年出版的語文課本，每冊都是二十篇，全部是精讀課文。一九六○到六六年出版的語文課本，每冊三十篇，不分精讀課文和略讀課文，但說明可以精講，可以略講。現行的課本每冊有課文三十篇，初中指定精讀的約佔三分之二，略讀的約佔三分之一；高中精讀和略讀的各約佔一半。台灣高級中學國文課本，每冊收課文十六至十八篇，其中精讀的約佔三分之二，略讀的約佔三分之一。由此可見把本港中學中文課本的內容分做精讀和略讀兩部份，實在是可行的事。兩類課文的選文標準是一樣的。略讀課文要較富趣味性，以利自讀。

其次，在教法方面，我們怎樣使它和教材分量的增加相配合呢？語文教學的主要目的，並不是要學生強記一些語文知識，而是使學生發展智力，增長語文能力，來應付生活的需要。因此，用啓發教學的方法來培養學生的自學能力和習慣，是我們中文教學所致力的。在上中文課前，教師可以編定預習指導發給學生，指點他們初步認識課文內容、查考詞句意義，思索文章結構和表達技巧。上課時，學生就能夠對教師的提問、分析，作出敏捷的反應，對課文的領悟自然加快加深，學習的時間也因而縮短了。又因爲學生在預習時對課文有了基礎的認識，教師只須針對某些教材特點，教學重點，學習難點作深透的分析，對次要的問題只作簡短的討論，或指點學生自行解決。這樣，教學時間縮短了，教的課數增多了，教學卻有

特色，學生印象深刻，效果自然提高。運用這種方法還有一個好處，就是盡量發揮學生的能動性，培養他們積極的自學能力和自學精神。

在時間方面又怎樣和教材的增加相配合呢？中文科的教學內容豐富，既要增長知識，培養能力，還要發展智力，沒有充裕的教學時間，是難以完成任務的。即使以每周上課七節計算，香港中學生學習中文的時間，跟中國、台灣的比較，尚有不如，更何況有些中學每周的中文課，連六節也沒有呢？所以，如果教育署能硬性規定中學每周有七節中文課（若能增加更好），使教師有足夠的教學時間，運用精教、略教的方法，增加閱讀教材的份量，訓練學生多讀、多寫、多想，慢慢提高他們的語文能力。

總之，爲了提高中學生的中文水平，使他們有足夠的語文知識和能力來應付學習和生活的需要，和養成自學的能力和習慣，增加教材的份量是可行而且是必要的，爲了達到這個目的，在教材的選擇和組織上要有適當的安排，例如課文的內容、長短、深淺要適合學生的程度和需要，課文要分精讀和略讀兩種來增加閱讀量，又要在內容、體裁、結構和技巧上，把相似相關的課文組成單元，使教學時能互相比較，以此例彼，收舉一反三的效果。最重要的，是教師必須在每一課的教學中，能掌握教材的特點，切合學生的需要，或針對學生疑難的地方作重點教學，來擴大學生的閱讀量而又每課有得。這樣，學生的中文水平就有希望提高了。

語言和表象在寫作中的交互作用

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在創作過程中語言思維和表象思維肯定有交互作用。中文寫作在這一方面的研究並不多，原因就是思維很難量化和控制。我曾經模倣一位蘇聯學者的研究作過以下的實驗。

這個實驗在三間學校舉行，被試者計有61人，測試了116個次，他們的年齡和級別分配如下：

組別	級別	年齡	23	22	21	20	19	18	17	16	15	14	不詳	
1A	中三								7	12	4	1		24
	中五			3	1			1						5
1B	中三						2	2	1			3	2	10
2A	中三		1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2			3	17
		（複試）	1	1	2	2	2	2	1				6＋1	17＋1
2B							3	2	1			3	2	11
		（複試）					2	2	1			3	2	10
2C				1	2	2	2	2	2	2			8	21
共次數			2	6	7	6	13	13	15	16	4	10	24	116

第一次實驗只提供圖片，第二次圖片之外並加上口頭描述，第三次檢查性的複試。第二、第三次圖片共分兩類：第一類是日常生活背景的畫：一張是海灘，另一張海灘有旅行和游泳的人。第二類是大自然背景的畫：一張是草原和樹林，另一張樹林中有一隻獅子。第三張是學校生活背景的畫。

實驗時首先紀錄時間，包括整個過程所需時間；指導語說過以後，即開始記錄，每隔5分鐘在作文卷上加一標記，表示進度。其次抽樣（因爲人力欠缺）記錄學生的動作，(一)記錄被試者中斷自己的作業的時間和看畫片的次數，(二)記錄被試者不在看畫片時的其他動作。

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① H A 契爾尼柯娃，"學生在創作性作文過程中的想象實驗研究"表象與想象的心理學研究，科學出版社，1963，頁21－46。

② 三間學校之中，有兩間是夜中學，學生年齡較長，一間是津貼中學，學生年齡較幼。

整理時，時間數字資料可以使我們了解學生寫作各部份的速度。從文字資料，可以分析出學生創作過程的思維活動；分析時同時考慮到其他客觀資料——創作過程中各個階段的時間指標、問題、動作等。

(一) 簡單指導語的實驗

這次實驗純粹是用圖片引起學生的思維。實驗分A、B兩組進行。A組用普通海灘圖片，沒有人物，B組的海灘圖片，人物鮮明地顯出來，兩對男女，其中二人是在喝汽水模樣。實驗時只作簡單的指導語，並沒有描述圖畫任何的內容。

在第一個實驗中，發現學生寫作有下列幾種現象：

1. 直觀引起聯想多於純粹的再造想象：

   在A組29篇作文中，只有兩篇是描寫圖片的再造想象。B組10篇之中並沒有純粹的描寫，表象跟着引起聯想的佔大多數，有9篇。這可能和生活經驗有關係，生活經驗越豐富，聯想越多。單純描寫圖片的作文，字數比較少，寫起來漫無目的，見一樣寫一樣，也欠缺組織。

2. 沒有明顯人物的圖畫，不能引起詳盡的表象分析

   A組作文因爲不受細節的限制，29篇之中，差不多沒有一篇相似；但是實際利用圖畫的地方並不多，只是表面化的描述。這類作文大部份是學生回憶生活中某一件事，或者改寫某個故事，而對於圖畫其他部份很少加以詳細分析。

3. 有明顯細節的圖畫，能使學生的思維更有目的

   B組10篇作文內容差不多都離不開旅行游泳和野餐。可見學生的思維受到客觀的細節控制。

4. 綜合思維佔優勢的文章，往往缺乏生動的形容詞

   特別是A組的作文，因爲缺乏細節，很難引起學生的分析思維，29篇文中，只有5篇用到形象性的譬喻。B組10篇卻只有兩篇缺乏形容詞。

5. 分析思維佔優勢的文章，往往充滿形象性的詞語

   這類文章中有很多深細的描寫，這類可稱爲創造性的描寫，文中充滿形容語，比較、借喻、形象化、擬人化等等，質素也比前一種好。

6. 在相同時間內，A組作文字數比B組多

   整個作文過程中，這兩組的寫字的速度並不一致。最初5分鐘B組比A組快，因爲人物顯明，立刻吸引學生的注意力，引起聯想，第一個五分鐘內平均字數有40.5個，最多81個，最少有9個。

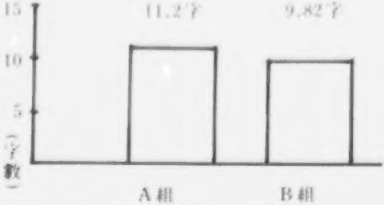
   A組29篇中有15人在最初五分鐘是沒有寫字的，最多的有81個字。很明顯地知道，學生在這段時間追憶、聯想；有些學生敏捷的，一開始就不停的寫，所以和B組最快的比較，也不相上下。

在寫作中段時候，B組似乎較A組落後了。特別是對細節加以分析的時候，學生不斷地望圖畫，或停筆想，下面是十位同學每五分鐘寫字數量，✓表示望圖次數：

時間	字數									
50				40分 9						
45			33	41						60
40	1		68	65	29	27		41	22	50
35	15	75	35	87	70	76		21	55	58
30	19	89	41	35	53	72	39	80	61	24
25	75	12	28	33	8	47	64	58	37	64
20	58	18	53	41	85	78	74	56	52	82
15	39	76	30	20	46	22	95	67	49	80
10	62	59	30	64	33	53	100	72	33	33
5	69	31	27	14	43	35	78	35	54	30
學生	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J

我們可以發覺學生望圖最多的五分鐘，字數也最少，例如E生在第二個五分鐘內看圖3次（見表），寫字33個；第五個五分鐘看圖三次，只寫了8個字。由此可見細節會引起學生分析，分析越細密，寫作速度越低。

A組對整個海灘感知，起初的聯想是較為困難的，但以後就速度大增。所以整體來算，都比B組寫得快。



平均算來，A組每分鐘11.2字，B組每分鐘寫9.82字。

（二） 指導語詳細的實驗

在這一組實驗中，除了圖片之外，還加上詳細的描述。我給A組學生看一張樹林的畫，同時加上指導語：

「在這張圖片上，你們看見樹林的一部份，在地上長滿了綠油油的小草；有些小草已呈現墨綠色了。這個森林的樹木很茂盛，有叢叢矮小的，也有些高大的。天空很明朗，沒有半點浮雲，這顯然是盛夏的天氣。現在請大家利用這一幅畫的內容，但不必把這張畫加以描述。可以用任何與這張畫的內容有關的題目來寫。」

B組的圖畫也是一幅樹林，但有附加細節——一隻獅子：

「在這畫上，你們看見是森林的一部份，是一塊草坪，旁邊生長了很多矮樹，其中有些長得較高，還有一棵已經枯了，僅僅剩下光禿禿的樹幹，顯然是一棵枯死了的老樹。天邊是白茫茫的一片，山頂上的薄雪反映出一片光亮，凋零的叢草疏疏落落的分佈在草坪上。這些顯然是冬天的景色。周圍顯出一片死寂，只有那隻雄獅正在那兒徘徊着。現在請大家寫一篇故事，寫時要盡量利用這張畫的內容，但不一定把它加以描述。寫時自己擬題目。」

C組是一張以學校生活爲背景的畫：

「這是一張學校的生活照片。有一群年輕的男女生在課室裡討論問題。最前面的有兩位女同學和一位男同學，正在利用骰子討論或然率的問題，老師在旁邊看和指導。後面的那一群討論另一個問題，有些在寫，有些在聽，有些在講，大家都集中精神在問題討論上。現在請你們利用這張圖畫的提示，寫一篇完整的故事。」

結果我發現有下列幾種現象：

1. 各組學生的思想，都受到指導語的限制，有些只是消極的複述一遍；但比率就不一樣。

組別	比　率	百分比
A組	$\frac{3}{18}$	$16\frac{2}{3}\%$
B組	$\frac{7}{10}$	70%
C組	$\frac{7}{21}$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$

上述的現象可能和圖畫的內容有關：(一)A組的森林因爲沒有明顯細節，學生是對整幅畫感知，所以指導語也不能發揮很大的作用。(二)獅子和課室比較，自然是後者能夠引起更多的聯想和生活經驗。

2. A組對圖畫的想象，只是短短幾句，很難得有幾個深細的分析、推想。

一般的作文都是回憶的文字。指導語起的作用不大。引用指導語一般都是在起首作文時描述背景，之後就手不停揮盡是回憶的文字。好像男生H的作文：「藍藍的天，白白的雲、樹和草，很能使我回憶到故鄉江南的情景……。」於是手不停揮的盡是回憶的文字。對於指導語較爲印象深的，好像男生B的「自然的嚮往」：「明朗的天空，沒有半點浮雲，顯然是一個盛夏的季節，綠油油的青草長滿整個大地，……這一切景象亦使到每一個人回想到大自然的美，紛紛的到各地旅行……。」以下就記述他一次旅行的經驗。

3. B組的獅子和枯樹成爲明顯的事物，而整個森林退爲次要。

學生的想象能力被細節及指導語的限制。大多數都把指導語掌握不放，對於圖中指導語沒有提到的細節，便完全疏忽了。

4. 獅子和森林對香港學生並不常見，所以不易引起學生表象創作。

指導語說明這是一隻雄獅，學生就說是雄獅，其實是一頭母獅；這一方面反映學生是受指導語限制，另一方面，反映學生對于獅子的認識不深。在生活經驗缺乏的情況下，逼學生創造故事是困難的。有些學生只能想起寓言故事"獅子和老鼠"。

5. 與生活經驗接近的圖畫，不單引起學生相類的聯想，而且更能引起學生情緒的共鳴。

C組中百分之一百的測驗卷是以學校生活爲題材，消極的複述指導語的只有5篇。其他的都能引起在學校的經驗；特別是對某一件特別事件的回憶。有些學生甚至有對話的紀錄：他慢慢的走過來了，我心中對他討厭極了，他作爲人師表，卻沒有一絲做師長的氣質，那俗不可耐的談吐，令我厭惡。上課時也總是講一些無關重要的話，市井俚語，在他口中層出不窮，他反以爲有幽默感，眞是肉麻當有趣。「胡老師，這個詞語怎樣解釋？」我問他，根本上我相信他的答案不會令我滿意的。「甚麼，這個問題豈不是太簡單了嗎？」說完，他胡扯了一陣，而問題中心尚未達到……他似是而非的。一面翻書本後面的註釋，一面說着。「不是，」我說，「我對這個問題簡直是不了解。」……他瞪着那突出的圓眼說，我知道他已是江郎才盡，也不再希望了……待我畢業以後，送你一個「誤人子弟」的橫額，作爲感謝，我心中暗暗下了決心，我望着他走去的背影，心中恨恨的說「去你的吧!!」

在他的腦海中，起初只不過是產生一個討厭的形象，後來就發展爲他跟這討厭人物頂咀的經過，在他的文字裏充滿了憤恨，鄙視的激動情緒，字體也越寫越潦草，這時，他的思想在飛奔着——這也是一般叙述實在經驗的特色。

作者情緒的激動，除了在語句看到之外，在其他一些客觀材料看到。寫作文時，忽而笑，忽而滿面怒容，忽而間歇一會，忽而揮筆直書，就好像自己是文中的人物一樣。同時在字數方面，也是驚人的，28分鐘，寫字607個，平均每分鐘21.7個，比第一組平均數字快一倍有多。

6. 更重要的是：學生能將舊有的經驗和知識，通過具體的直觀的表象，得到解放，得到提升，也就是領會圖畫的內容和意義。

也許學生從前聽說過輔導法，小組討論法的教學法，所以在21篇文章之中有10篇是談判這個問題，而且給圖畫富與很有意義的解釋和判斷。有學生說：「我很喜歡這張圖畫，也很喜歡畫中的老師和學生間的融洽感情，如果說圖畫中所表現的是中國學校的學習情況的話，我是不敢相信的。」另一位學生也說：「教學的方法很多，但我從沒有見過這樣的教學法，先生用實物來解釋一樣事物的重要性，這樣才不會空口講白話，相信這更爲清楚。」

（三） 檢查性的實驗

爲了檢查詳細語言指導，對第二組實驗所寫作文的過程有什麼影响，故在一個月之後，讓同一學生再看同樣的畫作文，但不再造詳細的指導。一般的現象約有下列數點：

1. 詳細指導中所提到的詞在第一次實驗裡用到了，在第二次實驗裡，使用頻率較少；甚至不用。例如：

指導語	第一次實驗	第二次實驗
「森林」 你們看見是森林的一部份	1. 在一個很大的森林裡 2. 這個森林一定很少人到 3. 行入去那個密密的樹林裏	在一個很大的一部分
「樹」 1. 旁邊生長了很多矮樹 2. 光禿禿的樹幹 3. 一棵枯死的老樹	1. 有很多小的樹 2. 其中有幾棵是高的 3. 那些樹很密 4. 一定有很多奇形怪狀的樹林	1. 有很多樹木 2. 其中有幾株特別高 3. 有很多矮而密

指導語	第一次實驗	第二次實驗
「天邊」 天邊是白茫茫一片	天上有一片白雲	沒有用這個詞
「山頂」 山頂上的薄雪反映出一片光亮	高山頂有一片雪	山頂上已有些雪
「草」 凋零的叢草疏疏落落的分佈在草原上	1. 草地的草很密 2. 近着樹腳的草很疏	地上長滿了青綠綠的草
「雄獅」 只有那隻雄獅在那兒徘徊着	1. 只有一隻獅子在行 2. 看這獅子眞可憐 3. 我相信這獅子等待很久 4. 這獅子在做什麼	1. 有一隻獅子在行走 2. 獅子一定在找尋食物 3. 可憐的獅子四週徘徊
「冬天」 這顯然是冬天的景色	1. 這是冬天的景色 2. 因爲這是冬天	沒有用這詞

2. 第二次用形容語比第一次多

第一次實驗	第二次實驗
1. 草已枯了 2. 十分寒冷 3. 一片清冷 4. 樹木已枯頹了 5. 一頭大獅子 6. 高而枯的大樹 7. 樹枝很細	1. 草已枯黃了 2. 我坐在枯樹下 3. 有些矮樹林 4. 一棵枯了的樹 5. 一座高山 6. 瘦削的雄獅 7. 豐富的點心 8. 高的枯樹 9. 正在發抖的我 10. 飢餓的獅子 11. 一個陌生人 12. 可憐的獅子

3.　明顯的細節在第二次實驗時仍然能夠限制思想

B組11篇作文，複試時有四篇的結構和內容與第一次實驗時完全一樣；但A組21篇中竟沒有一篇相同

第一次試驗題目	第二次試驗題目
仁慈的獅子	仁慈的獅子
一個可怕的冬天	森林奇遇記
獅子在原野	獅子在廣大的草原上
在森林裡的景象	森林和獅子

這種重複性，可知文中所表現出的記述獨特的定型性來。這裏反映了學生脫離了具體材料(圖畫)來寫作文的傾向。他們的記述都有較爲簡單的、概括的性質，這也是他們所以進而建立寓言形象的緣故。

結論

在這個實驗裡，客觀的刺激就是：畫片和指導語。這些刺激並不能完全制約反應，因此，有少部份個別想象過程的出現。其他都受客觀實驗條件所影响。例如改變畫的某部分或細節，那麼就會引起想象過程本身的相應變化。這是能估計得到的反應，從而控制這些反應在寫作過程中趨往某一方面。這樣，只要知道畫片內容那些客觀變化，那些部分、細節對作文內容發生影响的話，就可以在相當的程度控制反應。若同時加入的語言刺激，也是同樣地控制了作文的思維過程。可見，由於實驗條件的改變，我們研究的過程就有了改變，而這種改變，是不難從固定的刺激物估計出來的。

在作文過程中，表象可以進行改造。例如：創造性想象表現在虛構，表現在創作的才能上，這是大部分學生表現在分析細節時所表現出來的。這也表現在不少作文所寫的人物特徵上，這些事物，都是學生們所沒有遇見過的。或者是在另外一種情況下經驗過的。其次，想象活動表現在構思情景，事件發展和其推論裡。想象還表現在尋找形象語句的過程裡，這個過程的基礎就是改造表象。

畫片的思想內容是發展想象活動的最強刺激。有些學生即使創作才能弱些，但在充滿思想內容的作文中也表現了足夠的創造能力，順利完成了作業。

INNOVATIONS IN THE TEACHING OF GRAMMAR

William Cheng

The purpose of the paper is to explore some of the problems non-native ESL teachers encounter in teaching grammar and to suggest the general direction which could be followed in the development of new textbooks and teacher training courses to make the teaching of grammar more effective.

The place of Grammar in the ESL Programme

Grammar teaching is a topic that is hotly debated. It is not my intention to enter into polemics concerning the necessity of teaching grammar. Since the grammatical system underpins the language, there can be no doubt that grammar has to be taught and mastered at some stage or other. In this connection I should like to refer the reader to four articles, three of them published this year and one in late 1984. They will serve to give perspective to the role of grammar in the curriculum. They are:

(i) 'The Status of Grammar in the Language Curriculum' by Jack Richards in *RELC Anthology Series 14: Communicative Language Teaching* pp 64–83 (1985);
(ii) 'Making Informed Decisions about the Role of Grammar in Language Teaching' by Marianne Celce-Murcia in *TESOL Newsletter* Vol 19:1. pp 1, 4 & 5 (Feb. 1985);
(iii) 'Making Grammar Work more Creative or the Sad Tale of Grammarella' by Tom Hutchinson in *World Language English* Vol. 4:1 (Oct., 1984);
(iv) 'Learning Grammar' by William Littlewood in *Institute of Language in Education Journal* Vol. 1:1 pp 40–47 (late 1985).

The four articles complement one another and taken together will offer proof, if proof be indeed necessary, that grammar has still a very important place in the language curriculum.

The main body of the paper will focus on the following:

(*a*) Some recently published reference and pedagogical grammars;
(*b*) Some of the limitations in textbooks currently used, particularly in the teaching of grammar;
(*c*) Teaching language awareness—an area for textbook writers and teacher trainers to consider;
(*d*) Grammar teaching in the communicative classroom.

Reference and Pedagogical Grammars for ESL Teachers

It is interesting to note that publishers are becoming aware of the growing demand for books on grammar and the teaching of grammar. Two recent additions are *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* by Randolph Quirk et al (1985) and *A Very Simple Grammar of English* by Celia Blissett and Katherine Hallgarten (1985). The former is a monumental piece of work which can be regarded as definitive. The latter is a very small but useful book and is probably one of the most helpful books for teachers who want to present the basic patterns of English. The essential information is presented in the form of tables supported by natural examples and short, simple explanations (in red) which stress meaning and use. On the other side of the Atlantic, *The Grammar Book: an ESL/EFL Teachers' Course* by Marianne Celce-Murcia and Diane Larson Freeman (Newbury House) is also worth mentioning as a pedagogical grammar.

Some of the limitations in textbooks currently used

Linguistic Science and Language Teaching was published more than two decades ago and parts of the book are now definitely out-dated but some of the criticisms against traditional grammar are still valid. The authors identify the flaws of traditional grammar as follows: (1) unclear categories, (2) heterogeneous criteria, (3) fictions, (4) conceptual formulations and (5) value judgements, (6) inaccurate phonetics and (7) confusion of media. The English language course-books currently used in Hong Kong contain sections on grammar. While not all the weaknesses mentioned above are found in our textbooks, there is still much room for improvement in respect of presentation, exercise types and introducing the communicative use of the items taught. The following examples will illustrate this. I shall deal first with the presentation aspect of the present progressive and the present perfect. This will be followed by a discussion on the exercise types used for consolidating what is taught.

In most textbooks, presentation is in the form of examples followed by a summary of grammatical rules. Sometimes rules are given first, followed by examples. The examples are often in the form of isolated or uncontextualised sentences. Seldom are new grammatical items presented in authentic texts which provide an extended context. Since ESL students have more often than not an implicit faith in rules which they use as a crutch or an 'infallible' guide, it is imperative that the rules given be helpful and accurate. Unfortunately, even in the most popular textbooks some of the rules given are not only unhelpful but misleading.

If students are to profit from a textbook presentation of a grammatical structure, several factors have to be considered:

(*a*) The form of the structure;
(*b*) The meaning of the structure;
(*c*) The situations in which it can be used appropriately;
(*d*) The communicative use of the structure.

The first is often the main focus of attention in textbooks. The others, especially (*d*), are often not given attention in textbook presentation. Let me illustrate by giving some examples. Suppose we take a familiar tense—the present progressive (more popularly known as the present continuous). When the present progressive is first introduced in a coursebook, it is usually presented through a series of pictures showing action in progress with the captions given underneath, e.g. John is running. Jane is opening the door, etc. Sometimes a single picture is used and different people are shown performing different acts. The rule is given that the tense, or more accurately 'aspect', is used to describe action in progress or in textbook terms 'action which is continuing'. One could not say that the sentences are incorrect. The present progressive is often used to describe actions in progress. Naturally, students are later puzzled to find another rule which says that there are a number of verbs which are not normally used in the progressive, e.g. want, mean, understand etc. In this connection it may be useful for textbooks to introduce at an appropriate stage the conceptual difference between 'stative' and 'dynamic' verbs avoiding however, actually using the two terms which may be familiar to students of linguistics but are less likely to be familiar to the local language teacher. A further complication arises when students have to learn that the simple present is often used for describing 'action in progress' in certain contexts, e.g. a football commentary, or when describing steps in a demonstration. I use the word 'complication' intentionally because at a summer course on language teaching methodology organised by the English Language Unit, a graduate teacher teaching upper forms asked me to explain why the simple present and not the present progressive should be used in an exercise in which the particular sentence was one extracted from a football commentary. She obviously believed that the rule that the present progressive is used for action in progress was inviolable in all cases.

Let me return to the original point about the presentation of the present progressive through a series of pictures or a composite picture. The danger is that what is learnt is only the correct form of the tense. Firstly, although they are 'correct sentences as isolated linguistic units of random occurrence', they are not examples of language use. Moreover the problem is compounded when teachers decide to create a more vivid impact by giving a demonstration. This results in the use of language that has reality only in the classroom setting but never (or rarely) in real-life situations. The following is an example:

Teacher (draws a tree): What am I doing? I am drawing a tree. Class, I am drawing a tree.
Teacher: Draw a house near the tree, Jack. What are you doing?
Jack: I am drawing a house.
Teacher (to class): What is he doing?
Class: He is drawing a house.

The presentation does not teach students the communicative value or use of the structure since in real-life situations one does not ask what a person is doing when he is performing an action in plain sight. The only exception I can think of occurred once when a former colleague found a friend on all fours sweeping the floor with one hand and then the other. The situation was odd enough to make her ask; 'What are you doing?' Back came the explanation, 'I am looking for my contact lens.' Such bizarre happenings are, of course, rather rare in real-life. A more natural situation would be the following:

Peter: All set to go? My car's outside. Oh, where's Jane?
June: She's still in her room. She's probably combing her hair or powdering her face. You know how fastidious she is about her appearance.

Let me deal with the question of teaching technique and that of presenting the communicative use of the tense in turn. In some of the more recent methodology books on teaching grammar, several devices are used to obviate difficulty. Pictures which are blurred or out of focus are used to make students guess what the people in the photographs are doing. An alternative device is to show pictures with certain parts erased, i.e. a picture of a man playing a cello with the cello missing. Students say what they think the people are doing. Thus 'I think he's playing the cello. She's playing the violin. They are playing basketball' etc. A third technique is to show pictures of people miming and students have to say what they are doing. This could be made more realistic and interesting by making students play the miming game. This could be adapted to suit different levels. (See Maley's *Drama Techniques in Language Learning* pp. 122–125 for a useful example.) A fourth device is to adapt the popular communication game 'Find the Difference' to make students do pair work in which each will question the other on details in the pictures given. Each picture has the same background and number of people (say, a man, a woman, and some boys and girls etc.) each doing a different activity. Student A asks Student B, 'Is the man in your picture reading a book?' Student B answers, 'No, he is writing a letter. What is the man in your picture doing?'

Although the above activities make the presentation or practice of the tense more interesting and realistic they are still rather limited in directing students' attention to the many functions or communicative uses of the present progressive.

In most textbooks the different 'uses' of the present progressive are presented at different stages. The tense or rather aspect of tense is defined as being used to describe:

(*a*) something happening at the moment,
(*b*) something true at the moment but not always,
(*c*) present plans for the future,
(*d*) a temporary habit, usually with the adverb 'always' and conveying annoyance.

The rules are only helpful up to a certain point. They are not sufficient to sensitize students to the various communicative purposes of the present progressive. Even if we focus mainly on the first 'rule' (*a*) given above there are still gaps in textbook or grammar book presentations. Consider the following sentences:

1. 'Sir, he's cheating' or
2. 'He's playing dumb'.
   (The speaker is pointing out something that is happening to another person who is unaware of it.)
3. I'm getting too fat for my clothes.
   (Here the speaker is making a statement about something that is changing.)

4. He's painting the garage.
   (More context is required. It could be in answer to an enquiry concerning the whereabouts of another person. It could imply that the person described has finally come round to doing the task. It could also be similar to (5) below.)
5. I'm looking for the receipt you gave me.
   (Here the speaker is explaining what he is doing because the listener is unsure.)
6. The dog's scratching the door.
   (The speaker is directing someone's attention to it and suggesting indirectly that prompt action should be taken, in this case, opening the door to let it in.)
7. Boss to secretary, 'Are you typing my speech?'
   (More context is required. It could mean 'You'd better be doing it now.' or if she is typing it, the question is a genuine question and it may be followed by a remark like 'I'll get someone else to type this memo.')
8. To clerk, 'I'm working at home today.'
   (Implied message: 'Don't expect me at the office and don't let me be disturbed.')
   I might add that the above is a genuine example.

The above list is certainly not exhaustive but it provides examples of different communicative uses which the student will not learn without proper guidance, yet it is precisely in this area that textbooks and even the popular reference grammars are 'weighted in the balance and found wanting'.

Let me go on to another point. Consider the following conversations in the classroom setting:

(*a*) Lesson in progress
Teacher (to boy talking with another student): 'What are you doing?'
Boy: 'I'm talking.'
Teacher: 'You are cheeky/That's very cheeky of you.'
Boy: 'Sorry, sir.'

(*b*) Teacher (to student bending down): 'What are you doing, Tom?'
Tom: 'I've dropped my pencil.'

or

(*c*) Teacher: 'What are you doing, Tom?'
Tom: 'I dropped my pencil.'

(*a*) requires no comment; (*b*) and (*c*) however need some elaboration. Why is the present perfect used in the former and the past tense in the latter? In (*b*) the probability is that the child has not yet found the pencil, i.e. the dropping of the pencil is still relevant in present time. In (*c*) the child has found the pencil and he will probably hold it up to show the teacher as he responds. In this case the dropping of the pencil is not relevant in present time.

It is therefore necessary to have the context of situation: who is speaking and who is listening, the purpose of each speaker and the physical location.

What is crucial in the selection of the tense is the *meaning* the *speaker* wants to give. This is often missing or at least not sufficiently emphasized in textbooks or grammar book exercises.

When one has to make a choice between two tenses, it is the actual situation and the perceptions of the speaker and the meaning he intends to convey that are crucial. Textbook rules stipulate that the present perfect should not be used with an adverbial of past time or when the context is clearly that of past time. The term 'current relevance' is also used in connection with the choice of the present perfect. Students often find such rules conceptually difficult. In doing a written exercise in which one has to use either the simple past or the present perfect, the student is expected to read the whole sentence, 'He (read) three books last month' and decide on the basis of the adverbial 'last month' to use the past tense. Alternatively, if he encounters the following:

'He ________ (read) from books up to now.'

He is supposed to use the present perfect because of the cue 'up to now'. It is doubtful if such exercises can really help students to master the use of the two tenses since it involves a deliberate search for linguistic clues and then making a decision based on the clues. This is several degrees removed from real-life when one makes a decision based on one's perception of the situation and not on linguistic clues previously provided. Certainly such exercises will not help students to respond spontaneously as in the examples involving Tom.

On a recent teaching practice supervision visit, I found a teacher trying to demonstrate one use of the present perfect by performing an action and commenting, 'I have closed the door.' She continued by instructing a student to do another action and asking the class, 'Has she closed the door?' etc. Quite apart from the fact that such a question-and-answer chain would be unrealistic in real-life as one does not describe the obvious, the choice of tense was unfortunate. As Jack Richards points out in his article 'Introducing the Perfect: An Exercise in Pedagogic Grammar' in *TESOL Quarterly* Vol. 13:4 pp. 495–500, the simple past tense would be more appropriate. It is not difficult to devise an activity for pair work in which the present perfect would naturally be used. Students could be asked to sit back to back. Student A would give directions about drawing a picture and student B has to draw the picture. Thus student A says, 'Draw a tree at the bottom corner of your paper.' Student B does this and then says, 'I've dont it.' In this case the use of the present perfect would be justified.

I have dwelt on the subject at some length because helping non-native ESL teachers to acquire sensitivity to language use as opposed to mere knowledge of rules and language forms should be the major concern of grammar books. This should also be an important aspect in teacher training courses when the subject of grammar teaching is taken up. Both my colleaque, Margaret Falvey and I have come to the conclusion after years of experience in teacher training that *developing language awareness in ESL teachers should be a very important component in TESL methodology* courses. Most training courses already include a component on language awareness but fall short of dealing with the problems described above. The kind of language to which I refer is one which enables the teacher to utilize this awareness in a monitoring or evaluative process during lesson planning and in the classroom. Teachers may go into the classroom with a whole repertoire of techniques for pair and group work or even communication games to arouse the students' interest, but unless the teachers are sensitive to language use as opposed to usage, their teaching will be less effective.

Let me come now to exercises. Textbook exercise types are often manipulative drills which give context-free practice. Moreover they are often sentence-based exercises which lead to cognitively undemanding activities. Even when the exercise consists of a connected text, the content is sometimes neutral and pedestrian. Consider the following:

Example: Complete the following sentences by giving the past tense of the verb in brackets.

John __________ (visit) his uncle in the New Territories yesterday.

This is even less attractive than the exercise I mentioned earlier. Presumably the adverbial 'yesterday' is *intended* to act as a cue for the student to complete the sentence by filling in the blank with 'visited'. If the purpose is to give students practice in *using* the simple past tense, then the exercise does not achieve its purpose since all that they are required to do is to give the right from of the verb, in this case 'visited'. The student does not even have to examine the whole sentence. A slightly better one is the type where the student has to make a choice. However, as pointed out earlier, such an exercise still has its limitations.

There are other types of exercises such as sentence completion, matching, sentence transformation, sentence construction or dialogue writing based on a model. Some of them may be more useful and interesting than others. Examples can be found by consulting textbooks currently used. However, the point I want to make is that for language work to be effective, there should be some kind of communicative activities and activities which are cognitively demanding. The exercises should preferably be text-based and not be in the form of isolated sentences. Contextualization is also an important factor. The materials should as far as possible be authentic and interesting in content. Some of the exercises in a book like *Use of English: Grammar Practice Activities for Intermediate and Upper-Intermediate Students* by Leo Jones (1985) fulfil the requirement although there are also some exercises that are rather traditional.

Teaching Structures through Situations

Let me come to another major point in lesson planning and that is contextualizing the structure. *The Report of the 1st Commonwealth Conference on the Teaching of English as a Second Language* contains a statement worth repeating:

'Sentences should be taught through situations; the situations chosen must be realistic—they must have meaning for the learner.'

Presenting structures through appropriate situations is still a useful and effective technique. Articles on teaching structures through situations can be found in past issues of *Modern English Teacher*, especially those published between 1976 and 1979. *Selections from MET* edited by H Moorhead (1979) contains a number of these articles. Another source is *Situations and Aids for Teaching Structures* by Liz Baines et al (1976). The book covers practically all the basic grammatical structures and for each structure there are from 7 to 15 situations and visual aids suggested for teaching purposes.

Various devices can be used to provide contextualization. Games or activities such as Alibi and Predicaments can provide a useful context for practising the question form of the past tense and the second conditional, respectively. Sketches can be used to present and practise the modal perfects as in 'Teaching the Modal Perfects' by Donald Bowen and Coral Fillips McCreary (1977) in *TESOL Quarterly* Vol. 11:3. Pictures, charts, maps and questionnaires are often used to provide suitable contexts. Many examples can be found in *Teaching Grammar: Form, Function and Technique* by Sandra L McKay (1985). Another technique for teaching structures is through the use of songs. I have seen at least one teacher using popular songs to teach language structures. He used '500 miles', 'If I were a Hammer', 'The House of the Rising Sun', 'Tom Dooley', 'I'll Never Find Another You', 'Call On Me', 'Red River Valley' and 'The Exodus Song' to teach the various tense combinations of the conditional. Local teachers will be familiar with T. L. Tsim's radio programmes for teaching English (grammar) through old favourites. Cassette tapes of ELT songs such as *Mister Monday*, *Sunday Afternoons* and *Goodbye Rainbow* are of course well known and are frequently used in the classroom.

To Drill or Not to Drill?

In the heyday of the structural approach, pattern practice was considered the most effective method of helping students develop automaticity in using a structure. Different types of drills were used in the ESL classroom. Those included: expansion and contraction drills, mini-dialogue drills, question drills, clause combination drills, progressive-substitution drills, simple substitution drills. ESL teachers are now generally disillusioned with drills. They found them boring, mechanical and often ineffective. And yet it still remains true that students have to practise using a structure before automatic control is achieved. What can be done to make the activies interesting and effective, challenging and purposeful? 'Section II Collaborative sentence-making games' in *Grammar Games* by Mario Rinvolucri (1984) contains twenty sentence-making games, a number of which can fulfil the purpose stated above. Examples are 'Rub Out and Replace', 'Silent Sentence', 'The Marienbad Game', 'Contract and Expand', 'Sentence Collage', 'My Sentences—Your Paragraph' and 'From Pattern Sentence to Poem'. Another approach is through the use of problem-solving discussions which will involve the use of certain structures. A description of this technique is given in *Challenge to Think* by Christine Frank and Mario Rinvolucri (1980). Under the title 'Creative Drills' the authors give 22 examples of such drills.

Humanistic Awareness Exercises

Since the publication of Gertrude Moskowitz's *Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Classroom*, ESL teachers have become increasingly aware of the potential of humanistic awareness exercises in language teaching. Christine Frank and Mario Rinvolucri's *Grammar in Action* (1983) contains 130 examples of such activities and between them they cover almost all the tenses and problem areas. Teachers will find a host of useful ideas in the book.

Games for Grammar Teaching

Teachers have always found games a ready ally when the students' interest begins to flag. Games are now recognised as having a definite role to play in language teaching, quite apart from their incidental use to relieve boredom. Three useful sources are *Language Games and Contests* by W. R. Lee, 2nd edition (1979), *Games for Language Learning*, (new edition) by Andrew Wright et al (1984) and *Grammar Games* by Mario Rinvolucri (1984).

Two other books on grammar teaching are worth mentioning. A book that tries to bridge the gap between grammar acquisition and meaningful communications is *Bridge the Gap* by Jami Ferrer and Patty Werner de Poleo (1983). It adopts a three-tier approach.

Tier 1: Highly controlled exchanges
Tier 2: Controlled yet somewhat longer exchanges
Tier 3: Free exchanges

Most of the major grammatical structures such as tenses, modals, participles, clauses, infinitives and gerunds are covered and some of the suggestions are innovative. The latest addition to the field of grammar teaching methodology is *Teaching Grammar: Form, Function and Technique* by Sandra L. McKay (1985). The book contains an assortment of stimulating and useful techniques for teaching grammatical topics.

I have tried to provide some help to local teachers by mentioning a number of books which give innovative and practical ideas for grammar teaching. I include an appendix which I hope will provide ready reference for the teacher looking for useful ideas to teach some of the more important or difficult grammatical structures.

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Teaching Grammar—Activities and Games

Structure	*Situations & Aids for Teaching Structures*	*Bridge the Gap*	*Grammar in Action*	*Teaching Grammar*	*Use of English (pp 99-119)*	*Grammar Games*
	Page No	*Page No*	*Page No*	*Page No*	*Communication Activities No*	*Page No*
Verb Tense etc						
Simple present	1	43-48	39-45	7-8		54, 108, 117
Verb to be	1			3-5		
Simple present—habit	7			66-67		100
Present progressive	8	21-28		5		97
There is/are		11-19		48-49		
Simple past	20	49-54	46-55	5-6	5 & 15, 18 & 26	35, 59, 115 129, 135
Simple past & simple present			56-6060			77
Past progressive	21	29-32	61-63			
Simple future	23	33-38	74			
Future progressive		39-42				
Present progressive/going to for future	29					
Present perfect + just, yet, etc	30					
Present perfect (indefinite) etc	31	55-69	68-70	9-10	5 & 15, 18 & 26	28, 47, 81, 104, 121
Present perfect progressive						70
Past perfect	50			11-13		106
Various tenses together			64-65	69-70		
Imperatives/giving directions etc	9, 33	1-10		1-3, 67-69	11 & 57	
Passive	51		79, 85		29 & 48	9, 35
Reported speech	64		81-83		34 & 51, 31 & 48	

Teaching Grammar—Activities and Games—*Cont'd*

Structure	*Situations & Aids for Teaching Structures*	*Bridge the Gap*	*Grammar in Action*	*Teaching Grammar*	*Use of English (pp 99–119)*	*Grammar Games*
	Page No	*Page No*	*Page No*	*Page No*	*Communication Activities No*	*Page No*
Modals						
can/could (ability)	24	81–84				
Can/could/will/would/may (requests & promises)	25	85–86			8 & 19	
Should/shouldn't/ought to	55	93–101		133–135		
must/mustn't/needn't	48					
may/may not (possibility)	41	87–91		132–133		
Should have/shouldn't have	55	103–106				
must be/can't be/must have been etc.	56					74
Interrogatives/questions/question tags etc.				32, 123	1 & 6, 3, 9 & 12, 22 & 32	22, 47, 84
Infinitive of purpose	34					
verb + infinitive/(pro)noun + inf	60	142–143	88, 106, 109			118–119
verb + gerund	59	144	108, 110			
verb + infinitive or gerund	57	145	107		33 & 39	
need + ing	49					
after, on, before, by + ing	58					112
used to	42		71			
get/be used to	43		85			
need + ing	49					
Participles		108–116				
Have something done						68

Teaching Grammar—Activities and Games—*Cont'd*

Structure	*Situations & Aids for Teaching Structures*	*Bridge the Gap*	*Grammar in Action*	*Teaching Grammar*	*Use of English (pp 99-119)*	*Grammar Games*
	Page No	*Page No*	*Page No*	*Page No*	*Communication Activities No*	*Page No*
Clauses	28	117-138		100-122	36 & 41, 37 & 43, 25 & 50	37
Defining/non-defining	40					
1st conditional	44		76	134-135		47, 56, 61, 66
2nd conditional	45		77, 80, 84, 86-87			112
3rd conditional	46					90
Other parts of speech						
Adjectives	12		90-94, 97	13		
Comparatives	16, 17			20-23		
Superlative	18					
Adverbs of frequency	10		89	15-17, 25-27		
Adverbs of manner	39		91			
Prepositions of place (location)	36	1-10		54-63	14 & 27	
Prepositions of time	37					
Articles	65					92
countable/uncountable nouns how much/how many/some/any				17-20, 63-66	16 & 45	
Conjunctions					23 & 54	13, 73

Note Many of the games in *Games for Language Learning* (new edition) by Andrew Wright, David Betteridge and Michael Buckby can be used for practising language structures. Please refer to the index (pp. 207-208).

講詞法時要處處顧到句法

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漢語語法的研究對象，一般分爲“詞法”和“句法”兩部分。詞法研究詞的抽象性的分類，如“實詞”和“虛詞”的劃分，如從意義和作用上去分別“詞類”。此外，還可以研究詞的構成方式，以及詞的“本用”和“活用”等。至於句法部分，主要爲研究句子的結構和變化，也就是研究用詞造句的規則。

在語法教學中，分析詞法時不能離開句法。因爲如果只是給詞分類，而不去接觸結構和用法問題，這些詞就會孤立於句子以外，看不到詞組織成句的語言規律了。

譬如講述形容詞時，除了在意義和作用上分類外，還要說明這類詞的語法特點。我們指出形容詞表示性質或狀態，運用了可以使語言彩色鮮明，生動形象；同時，也指出形容詞主要做修飾名詞的定語，從而構成合成詞或短語，它的位置通常都放在被修飾的中心詞的前面。構成合成詞的，例如：

龍馬銀鞍，朱軒繡轂。（江淹《別賦》）

抱劍辭高堂，將役霍將軍。（李白《送張秀才從軍詩》）

船終於開了，立在船尾，我們有機會看見船身壓過的海面，一道滾着白沫的湍流，歷史的遺迹，時代的波動啊。（蕭乾《雁蕩行》）

構成主從短語的，例如：

目極千里兮傷春心。（《楚辭・招魂》）

其長兵則弓矢，短兵則刀鋋。（《史記・匈奴傳》）

我也怕思想發霉，樂意跟他出去看看新鮮景緻，就到了陶然亭。（楊朔《京城漫記》）

以上六例，凡加“•”旁點的是形容詞，“。”旁點的是中心詞。形容詞又可置於主語後單獨做描寫句的謂語，如：

故至德之世，其行塡塡，其視顚顚。（《莊子・馬蹄》）——塡塡，顚顚，形容詞做謂語。

形容詞做謂語時，通常受程度副詞和否定副詞的修飾，如：

臣之罪甚多矣。（《左傳》僖公二十二年）——甚，程度副詞。

前沿陣地上肅靜極了·不要說沒有一星燈火·而且連一點聲音也沒有。（劉白羽《英雄島》）——極·程度副詞。

回也不愚。（《論語·爲政》）不——否定副詞。

此外·在句子裏·形容詞經常充當狀語和補語。如：

他日·驢一鳴·虎大駭·遠遁。（柳宗元《三戒·黔之驢》）——大、遠·形容詞做狀語。

折荻尺寸·然明讀書。（《顏氏家訓·勉學》）——明·形容詞做補語。

又譬如講述程度副詞時·我們指出這類詞是用來修飾動詞、形容詞的·有表示程度的作用；同時·也指出這類詞的基本職能是充當狀語·幫助謂語表達各種意義。修飾形容詞·一般在被修飾的語詞之前。例如：

王有孽子不害·最長·王弗愛。（《史記·淮南王傳》）

自是之後·爲俠者極衆。（《史記·游俠傳》）

如水益深·如火益熱。（《孟子·梁惠王下》）

近年來我的記憶力開始衰退·有一些記得很牢的事情也漸漸地模糊了·彷彿有一把板刷蘸着水在我的腦子上面擦洗·要使我忘掉一切。（巴金《最後的時刻》）

今年的春天分外冷·張野給黃佳英披上了自己的上衣。（劉賓雁《本報內部消息》）

也有把副詞後置於形容詞的·如"君美甚·徐公何能及君也"（《戰國策·齊策》）。後置的程度副詞只可用"甚"字（僅限於古代漢語）·其它的不能後置。上舉的"肅靜極了"是現代漢語的說法·古漢語沒有把"極"字後置的習慣。程度副詞主要爲修飾形容詞的·至於修飾表動作性的動詞·古漢語裏只限於其中少數幾個·如"頗"、"稍"等字·如：

語未卒·衞律還·頗聞余語。（《漢書·李陵傳》）

自繆公以來·稍蠶食諸侯·竟成始皇。（《史記·秦始皇本紀》）

現代漢語修飾動詞的程度副詞·例子就比較多：

現在我已經忘記了車站的名字·在記憶中反正是一個相當大的站·停車時間比較長。（季羡林《一個抱小孩子的印度人》）

孫小姐口氣裏決不肯和那寡婦作伴·李梅亭卻再三示意·餘錢無多·旅館可省則省。（錢鍾書《圍城》）

老沈說他精神很好·叫我放心·不妨打下瞌睡以養養精神。（陳若曦《南遷》）

微雨裏的青山·顯得格外嫵媚。（王尚義《狂流》）

翠翠當時竟忘了祖父的規矩，也不說道謝，也不把錢退還，只望着這一行人中那個女孩子身後發痴。（沈從文《邊城》）

"已經"表示時間，"再三"表示頻率，"不妨"表示然否，"格外"表示程度，"竟"表示語氣，"只"表示範圍，都是現代漢語裏各種不同的程度副詞。

講述詞法時，能夠接觸結構和用法問題，"詞"和"句"就不會割裂開來。相反地，分析詞法如果離開句子，只是羅列許多虛詞和實詞，而給它們分類，那麼，這種教學方法收到的效果，跟一般詞典如劉淇《助字辨略》、王引之《經傳釋詞》、楊樹達《詞詮》，以及《國語辭典》、《現代漢語詞典》等所提供的比較，不外是多了一番分類手續，多了一點語法術語而已。再舉介詞的教學法爲例，來說明這個問題：

西門豹簪筆磬折嚮河立。（《史記·滑稽列傳補傳》）

夫水，嚮冬則凝而爲冰。（《淮南子·俶眞》）

公子與侯生決，至軍，侯生果北嚮自剄。（《史記·信陵君列傳》）

有鳥赤首烏翼，大如鵠，方東嚮立。（柳宗元《遊黃溪記》）

如果僅指出句中的"嚮"字是介詞，或者進一步指出第一例是介處所，第二例是介時間，第三、四例是介方位等，這都不算接觸到結構和用法的眞諦，只是《經傳釋詞》加上語法術語的一種說法，對於語法學習者，是沒有什麼實益的。我們要同時指出介詞是表示實詞和實詞之間關係的一種語詞，必須和名詞或代詞結合，組成"介賓結構"，才能用在句子裏做動詞或形容詞的狀語。所以介詞在句子裏面，要帶個名詞或代詞做它的賓語，在任何條件下，都不能單獨運用。例如：

吾自衛反魯，然後樂正。（《論語·子罕》）

子擊磬於衛。（《論語·憲問》）

季氏富於周公。（《論語·先進》）

苛政猛於虎也。（《禮記·檀弓上》）

"自衛"、"於衛"等，就是介賓結構。"自衛"置於動詞"反"前，"於衛"置於動賓結構"擊磬"之後，我們稱前者爲"前置狀語"，後者爲"後置狀語"。用"於"字構成的介賓結構，在古漢語裏如用在形容詞後，就有"比"的意義。"富於周公"即"比周公富有"、"苛政猛於虎"即"苛政比虎猛"的意思。這種用法的"於"字，表比較的詞序，恰好和近代的用法相反，形容詞一在介賓結構前，一在介賓結構後。介賓結構在古漢語裏也有倒置的，如用"面"、"向"、"嚮"、"鄉"等表示方所，而所帶的賓語是"東"、"西"、"南"、"北"等方位詞，習慣上一般把賓語倒置於介詞前。如：

東面而征，西夷怨；南面而征，北狄怨。（《孟子・梁惠王下》）

爲垼于西牆下，東鄉。（《儀禮・士喪禮》）

總而言之，講詞法時處處顧到句法，才眞正捉摸到了漢語由詞組織成句的語言規律；在教學上，才眞正把語法教活、教好。

TASKS FOR LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

Prem Mathur
The British Council, Singapore

Introduction

The description of tasks in the paper is based on the approach developed over the last five years in conducting in-service teacher training courses at the British Council, Singapore. The participants are non-native speakers of English as a second language, with a near-native competence in both oral and written skills and with at least two year's teaching experience. The task types described have been used in the following types of courses:—

- Methodology courses leading to the R.S.A. Diploma.
- Short Courses, 40 hours each, on specific aspects of methodology, e.g., Listening and Communicative Approach.
- Short courses, 20 hours each.
- Workshops, of 3 to 4 hours duration, on specific skill areas, e.g. Remedial Teaching.

This is to establish that the task types have been used in different formats quite successfully. The claim to success is based on the consistently good results at the RSA examinations (100% at the last examination) and feedback from course participants, local education officers, and visiting specialists.

Rationale

The advocacy of tasks however, is not based on the external evidence alone; there are certain internal criteria which are more significant. Very briefly they can be stated as follows:

1. 'Practise what you preach': Since a communicative approach is what we generally advocate, the training methods are also 'communicative'. In procedural terms it implies a series of things to do, and as little 'lecturing' as possible.
2. Learning by doing is the cornerstone of the approach. What this implies is that the participants' beliefs, attitudes, knowledge and know-how are involved in the learning process. The approach has been seen to generate a better learning environment, a high level of morale and a feeling of freedom to make one's own decisions.
3. A necessary condition for the above-mentioned is to adopt a non-prescriptive approach—to allow participants (Ps) to evolve or acquire their own strategies and approaches. Tasks are instrumental in keeping the training non-prescriptive.
4. Participants should feel that what they do on a course is relevant to their needs and situation and feel involved, cognitively and affectively, in the training process. The approach helps to achieve this. Ps have, almost

without exception, expressed a feeling of satisfaction—of having enjoyed the course and having learnt something. They find the course 'challenging' as well as 'useful', this is what they say when they recommend a course to their colleagues.

5. Another criterion is that theory should be seen to be relevant to day-to-day teaching problems, that is, theory should serve methodology. By putting tasks at the core of training sessions theories gain a new relevance and learning becomes meaningful.

Although this approach has been tried out in in-service courses only, in principle it should be useful in pre-service courses as well. In fact since it is a procedural approach it can easily be adapted for diverse situations, for example, language proficiency tasks can be introduced, if required, in the context of methodology components, e.g. remedial grammar in the context of teaching grammar, writing skills in the context of teaching writing, etc. Moreover, pre-service trainees will be able to relate their concepts of teaching and learning acquired through their own learning experiences to the new information and concepts introduced in the course.

Global Procedures

Since tasks cluster around main topics (Language Learning, Teaching Reading, etc) let me first describe what happens in a session devoted to a sub-topic, or in a part of the unit devoted to a topic. The following figure represents an idealised structure of a training session or unit.

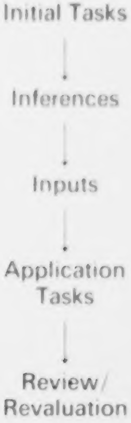

Fig. 1

Later on we will have a closer look at tasks, but first a few illustrations.

Illustration 1

Topic *Language Learning Theory*

1.1 Ps learn a small chunk of an unfamiliar language, or a language text devised for the purpose, such as Dakin's Novish*

1.2 Ps reflect on the process of learning and make hypotheses in the light of *their* theory of language learning. Does the experience support/negate the theory?

1.3 Tutor input, as necessary, with reference to current language acquisition theories.

1.4 Ps consider implications for teaching methods in use

1.5 Ps look at a unit from a course in use, or at samples of different types of teaching materials and evaluate them in terms of 1.4

After a session or two of the kind Ps would look at more specific methods and materials and then prepare their lesson plans for teaching practice of some kind.

The main thrust here is towards a reformulation of Ps' beliefs or theories in the light of current knowledge about language learning processes. It should be obvious that in a dynamic learning situation, such as this one, the Ps' 'knowledge' will be continually reformulated and would not get fixed, become static, until such time as they have evolved their own individual strategies for coping with the various kinds of situation they encounter. Ideally they should continue to learn, and readjust or reformulate their principles and practice, unless they become 'specialists' and preach new orthodoxies!

I have tried both types of task suggested in (1.1) and have found them very effective, and fun to do. On longer courses, such as one year full-time Diploma courses the process of language learning can be extended to enable Ps to learn the target language with some degree of command, but they would require more sophisticated tools for monitoring the long term process.

Illustration 2

Topic *Comparison of Speech and Writing*

2.1 One of the Ps is asked to give oral instructions on how to use the OHP or the video player or any gadget that is available in the classroom. This is recorded on a cassette recorder.

2.2 Then he is asked tell the class how to use a Xerox machine, which is not in the room. This too is audio-recorded.

2.3 Ps write instructions about how to use these gadgets.

2.4 The audio-recordings are played and Ps are asked to compare them with the written versions.

2.5 Ps make a list of differences between the oral and written versions they can perceive.

2.6 The tutor comments and provides additional features

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* J. Dakin, Language Laboratory and Language Learning, Longman pp. 23-29

162

2.7 Ps are invited to reflect on implications for teaching.
2.8 Class discussion
2.9 Follow up readings are suggested.

Ps are able to point out quite a few differences using their commonsense and previous knowledge. It remains for the tutor to fill in the gaps and guide them to relate this knowledge to teaching methods. The Ps realise from this experience that there is no automatic transfer from oral to written skills and that there are things other than grammar that need attention.

Illustration 3

Topic: *Reading Skills*

3.1 Ps are given a text to read and do a range of comprehension exercises of the type given in course books they use.
3.2 They are then asked to look at the different questions and exercises and decide what specific skills they are aimed at. This requires them to examine the relationship between parts of the text and the comprehension exercises through reflection on how *they* answered the questions.
3.3 Ps make a list of reading skills. The tutor supplements.
3.4 Ps evaluate the given exercise types and think about improvements.
3.5 The tutor at this stage may remind them of some of the facts or principles previously covered and pose some questions about the organisation of a reading lesson, e.g., Should each lesson cover all the listed skills? Which skills can be best practised with the given text? etc.

This is just a broad outline of a training session. It would be impossible to convey the richness of the discussion and outcomes without recording and transcribing the whole thing.

Illustration 4

Topic: *Listening Comprehension*

4.1 Ps listen to an audio/video-recorded debate. They are asked to judge the speakers. (Before this they prepare and agree on criteria for judging).
4.2 In small groups they compare individual views and come to a consensus.
4.3 Groups declare their judgements and comments. Differences in views between groups are then discussed and debated. Parts of the tape are played again for reference.
4.4 Ps are asked to reflect on this 'demonstration' of a listening comprehension lesson.
4.5 Tutor comments

A range of points are made through a session of this type—purpose for listening, use of contemporary authentic texts, employment of oral communication and note-taking in a natural fashion, etc. Such sessions demonstrate a method as well as reinforce certain basic principles of teaching.

Task Types

Through these brief illustrations I have indicated the general nature of the training procedures, and shown that the sessions are very much

P-centered. Individual and group tasks involve a range of communication strategies and one could classify tasks in terms of these strategies, for example:

- Information recall and sharing e.g. (3.3) pupils make a list of reading skills
- Consensus seeking, e.g., deciding on how much weighting to give to accuracy in composition testing.
- Brainstorming and problem-solving e.g. what to do to minimise the use of L1 in group work.

However tasks can also be viewed from the angle of cognitive processes that are activated in the process:—

Reflection: Where Ps review and reflect upon an experience e.g., of a method, as in illustration 4 above.

Analysis: Where Ps have to analyse a language event or a text, as in illustration 2 (differences between Speech and Writing).

Inference: Tasks involving making hypotheses about teaching from some knowledge of language structures or processes as in illustration 2.5.

Application: As in lesson planning and materials adaptation tasks where a set of acquired principles are put into practice.

Global Tasks

Learning, as we are all well aware, is a very complex and dynamic process and is not amenable to very neat classifications. Training sessions of the type illustrated are dynamic events and involve a range of communication strategies and cognitive skills. When it comes to global tasks—lesson planning and teaching, a whole range of knowledge and skills is employed.

It should be pointed out that Ps are required to perform these global tasks as a natural culmination of each unit. The following will give an idea of the organisation of a typical unit:

Language learning task
↓
Reflection
↓
Inferences
↓
Theoretical inputs
↓
Comparison of different materials/methods based on approaches
↓
Feedback (and inputs)
↓
Adaptation of 'traditional' materials for communication practice
↓
Teaching (video-recorded)
↓
Review and evaluation of method

We use video-recorded teaching practice on the course. Small groups of Ps prepare a lesson for specific learners and the lesson is shared by two or three teachers. Students from local schools come to the Council Centre for these lessons. This practice is different from the traditional micro-teaching in that the lessons prepared and taught are not for practising microskills; full lessons, lasting 35 minutes, are prepared for a specific group of students coming for these lessons. It is 'micro' teaching only in the sense that each P teaches for only about ten minutes in a lesson.

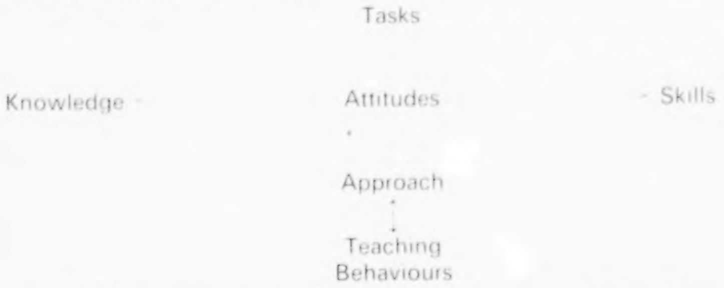
The important thing is that preparation and teaching is done *cooperatively* by a group of Ps with the assistance of the tutor. The performance is not evaluated by the tutor; the exercise is very much a part of education.

The other kind of global task done, this time by individual Ps, is the Project. This is done over period of time, with some guidance from the tutor. This requires planning of teaching at macro and micro levels. A teaching scheme is prepared covering a few weeks, with details of materials and procedures used. Here the Ps have to put into practice all that they have learnt and assimilated. They have to take into account the realities of the situation as they have to use this scheme in their own classes and comment on what happened, that is, they evaluate the process themselves. Since this task forms the culmination of the course it is evaluated by tutors, not so much on the basis of the 'success' but rather on the basis of the quality of Ps' perception of the teaching-learning process.

Summing Up

Tasks, things that course participants *do*, are instrumental in educating them. Their knowledge, skills and attitudes undergo some changes through the experience.

This process can be visualised in follows:



As the figure suggests, teaching experience in the classroom continually modifies the approach, or it should. It all depends on whether or not teachers have been educated in a way that enables them continue to learn. And tasks attempt to do just that.

The interactive nature of the procedures used, the inherent flexibility and adjustability of the nature and extent of tutor input and the resultant scope for learning to take its own course, help to inculcate learning modes different from those that result from traditional 'prescriptive' methods of training—where trainees receive a set of principles, a body of knowledge, samples of model materials and methods, and they practise them.

Finally it should be made clear that tasks can be used in almost any training situation, provided that the aim is to *educate* teachers and not to produce automatons. Once general needs of participants have been identified and a list of topics has been prepared, which I suppose would more or less be the same for general methodology courses, the course planner can decide what main tasks to include for initiating the process for each unit. Then the tutors, on discovering the participants' specific needs, can decide about the nature of further tasks and the extent of input required at appropriate points in each unit. Where there is a problem of time, more tasks can be 'directed', through which participants arrive more quickly at the kinds of decision desired. This means taking short-cuts, and to that extent it would undermine the spirit of the creative construction process, but one cannot always have ideal conditions and compromises of this nature become inevitable. Under constraints of time one uses 'Socratic' lectures, or even straight 'teacher talk', but one could choose topics which could justifiably be covered this way. As far as methodology is concerned one cannot conceive how anybody can learn from just listening to talks about how to teach—there is no direct route from theory to practice. *Tasks* provide contexts for mediation between theory and practice.

COMPUTER AWARENESS AND LANGUAGE—TEACHER EDUCATION

Workshop prepared and presented by David Foulds & Anthony Cheung
Notes written by David Foulds

The purpose of this workshop is to address the question of computer-training for language teachers. We shall, in a short presentation, give a few details of our own experience of the use of computers in language-teaching at the Hong Kong Polytechnic, and we shall offer a 30 minute hands-on session to give those who are not too familiar with the subject (or know nothing about it at all) a taste of some of the kinds of things that are beginning to happen here and elsewhere. Armed with this information plus your own knowledge and experience, we would like you to discuss, in small working groups, (*a*) whether or not you think the use of computers in language teaching is, or is likely to be, important enough to be included as a regular feature of language-teacher training, and (*b*) if so, what form you think a 'Computing for LT' syllabus should take. In the final 30 minutes of the workshop we shall try to arrange a balanced sharing of views and ideas.

HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC
DEPARTMENT OF LANGUAGES

The Use of Computers in the Department

This short paper is in three main parts. The first gives details of the equipment we are using, the second shows how we are using it at present, and the third gives some thoughts about possible future developments.

1 *Equipment*

Over the past two years the Department has been fortunate in obtaining funds and other support for the purchase of a considerable amount of computing equipment.

The bulk of this takes the form of 60 BBC-B micro-computers: these are distributed partly in two computer rooms which are used for both class-work and 'library' style free access study, and partly in offices for the use, in relative privacy, of staff. One of the computer rooms is 'networked' which means, among other things, that all the people working in that room can share a common filing system. We expect all computers in the department to be connected to this network within the next few months.

We also have a WANG word-processor in the Department's general office, which has both English and Chinese (classical and simplified) software, and one IBM PC(XT) used at present almost exclusively for work with a major language-testing exercise.

2 *Current Uses*

At the present time the equipment is being used to a greater or lesser extent, for all of the following purposes—preparation of routine documents (letters/memos/lists etc), preparation of lesson handouts, statistical analysis of test data, computer-literacy work with HDTR (translation) classes, CAL(L), student word-processing and the development of administrative data bases.

The use of computers for office work and statistical analysis is nowadays considered fairly routine and I shall therefore not go into details.

The production of lesson handouts, done both on the office word-processor and on the BBC-B micros, is seen as advantageous from a number of different points of view. Handouts can very easily be corrected, updated, stored, accessed, and rearranged to suit various course parameters, when prepared on a word-processor. A more interesting development however, is that lecturers are beginning to see the even greater possibilities of preparing word-processor files, rather than printed handouts, for student use. These are not just for the students to read, but for them to work on and modify in some way.

Computer-literacy work with HDTR classes is something of a special case, and arises from the increasing understanding that computers are already beginning to make an impact in the translation business—the offices that deal with the routine translation of commercial and administrative papers. Not only are they there in the form of word-processors, but the automatic translation of natural languages, once something of a joke, and in any case only possible on very large installations, is now taken very seriously indeed. We want our translation students to leave with at least a little knowledge and experience of computers and an informed awareness of how they might affect their working lives.

Computer-aided instruction is now seen in many organisations as a useful staff-training device: if it works for large corporations there is no reason why it should not have a place in regular educational institutions. The question is, will it work for language learning? Computer-aided language learning—CALL—is something that we have been experimenting with. For the most part we have concentrated on small demonstration programs of the game/exercise/exploratory puzzle type. We have found that these can be used both as a testing and as a reinforcement aid, and, given the right class setting, they can and do stimulate considerable discussion. At present CALL is used on a voluntary, self-access basis, but we plan to begin integrating this work into regular course programs in the near future.

Student word-processing is currently the most popular computer-room activity with both staff and students. We have, this term, taught over 20 classes to use the BBC-B VIEW word-processor. Use of the word-processor is not mandatory owing to limitations of time, space and equipment available, but students are encouraged to use it for the writing of assignments and projects if they wish. We have found not only that work is neater—we have to try very hard to avoid marking up for neatness alone!—but it is certainly worked on more thoroughly and with greater care, and the tiresome business of correcting and restructuring is now very easy to deal with.

3. Future Developments

It is only too tempting, with equipment of this sort, to allow one's imagination to wander and dream up all sorts of schemes. We shall therefore limit our remarks to projects currently under discussion. These are, the integration of CALL packages into selected courses by writing program materials specifically for those courses and including the evaluation of student performance in CALL as an element of student assessment; the automatic presentation and marking of simple tests; the exploration of text analysis as a language-teaching device; the further exploitation of our student word-processing facilities.

The integration of CALL packages into selected courses is very largely an administrative matter, and speaks for itself.

We already have done some work on the presentation and marking of tests. We have, of course, the inevitable multiple-choice presentation package which does all the expected things—rearranges the order of questions and distractors each time the test is run, keeps score, gives immediate feedback, and so on. Another approach is the use of the computer screen as an answer sheet onto which the user can type his one-word or short phrase answers. Marking can be arranged to allow for alternative answers and common spelling mistakes.

Text analysis as a language teaching tool is by no means a new idea: in a sense the parsing of Latin sentences is text analysis and was used in the past to develop students' linguistic abilities (in some cases, it worked!). The computer, however, allows us to do very different kinds of analysis. One that we have been looking at for a few months is concordancing—the sweeping through text to find—and print out in context—specified words. Another, more recent development, is the rapid calculation of readability indices—a facility about which we have reservations, but it certainly gives rise to discussion.

As staff and students become more generally competent in the use of the word-processor, and as more of the computers are linked to a common communications network, we expect to be able to start developing word-processor files for student use for editing, merging, and completion exercises, introducing peer-critiquing of—and on—word-processor files, developing marking and advisory techniques on the computer network, and building up text, exercise and resources data bases.

The Evaluation of Computers, and the Things they do

Computers can do a few jobs very well, very reliably and very quickly: but there are many things they cannot do at all.

Computers are not alive, or human, or intelligent. They are machines which we humans use to do things we cannot easily do ourselves. We are not overawed by aeroplanes, though they fly and we do not; or bulldozers, though their strength is much greater than ours; or vacuum cleaners whose power to breathe in vast quantities of air and dust greatly exceeds the capacity of human lungs. Why should we think computers are in some way different to these?

Think of the computer as a tool or aid: decide exactly what you want to do, find out the things it can do, then think of ways to exploit it for your own purposes. Later, allow your understanding of the computer to generate new ideas about how to achieve your objectives.

Some of the things that computers are good at:—

They can count, do calculations, put things in, and out of, order, pick random numbers, keep time, display text, store information, check lists, compare things, follow a sequence of instructions, branch from one set of instructions to another, respond to certain kinds of external stimuli, display colours, make noises, control other machines, etc.

Other useful features:—

They are accessible, untiring, unaffected by repetition.

Some things they cannot do (yet!):—

They cannot produce film and photo quality graphic displays, speak very well, understand much of what they hear, make 'fuzzy' judgements (e.g. that's *almost* right), see, know what is going on in the world without being told, guess what the user wants, etc.

Q. Can a computer be as good as a teacher?
A. How good is a teacher?!

Should we compare an ordinary computer with an exceptional teacher? Or should we think, instead, of the computer as a dim but reliable and—within limits—knowledgeable assistant. The latter view is likely to be the more productive.

SOFTWARE DEMONSTRATIONS

1 *Chinese Word-processing*

This is not a true word-processor, but a package which enables our HDTR (translation) students to learn the essentials of operating one of the better known ideographic word-processors. The user can type in, correct, delete, insert, save and load text in the normal way. New characters can be designed, and old ones modified, if required.

The program draws on a bank of 1 000 different Chinese characters (conventional), designed by HDTR students. The 1 000 characters chosen, incidentally, are taken from the early parts (Yrs 1–3) of the HK Primary Chinese syllabus.

The immediate value of this package is as an ideographic word-processor operation training package for local translator job-skills enhancement. However, it clearly has other possibilities.

2 *Data-base Management (Viewstore)*

VIEWSTORE is a commercially produced data-base management package programmed especially for use with the BBC-B microcomputer. Like other packages of this type it enables the user to store various kinds of information which can then be manipulated and rearranged at will.

It clearly has value in helping with day-to-day administrative requirements of teaching such as the maintenance and printing out of class records and student scores. This is the purpose to which it is being put at the moment. However, it seems likely to be very useful as a resources listing device, and we have hopes that it will help with the time-tabling of the 600 or so course/classes and 9 000 contact hours we teach in the Department of Languages each year.

3. *Text Manipulation Games*

The computer is a remarkably good text-handler. Not only can it rearrange the width of typed lines (a regular feature of most word-processors), but it can juggle the lines about in any way you care to arrange, present lines one at a time and in various orders, separate all the letters of a word, or all the words of a sentence and present them in a different order, replace words, or parts of words, with blanks, change one letter for another and produce coded text,—the possibilities seem endless.

This home-made package presents a sample of such programs. CLOZE removes words from a text at intervals chosen by the user, replaces them with blanks and asks the user to reconstruct the text. SEQUENCER presents sentences from a text one at a time and in random order, asking the user to make a judgement about sentence order at each presentation. SCRAMBLED TEXT rearranges the order of both lines and columns of text and asks the user to reconstruct—a real attention grabber. LETTER-BOARD allows a text to be reconstructed by displaying all the instances of a given letter in the order chosen by the user—one 'game' is to discover the minimum number of different letters required for the text to become comprehensible.

4. *English Word-processing (View)*

The VIEW 1.2 word-processor, like VIEWSTORE, is a commercially produced package especially written for use with the BBC-B. Although it has its limitations it is a relatively easy word-processor to learn to use, it has all the essential features of most commercially available word-processors, and it has the added advantage that its files can easily be processed by other types of programme (see TEXT ANALYSIS, below). The user can type-in, correct, insert, save and load text, change formats, move blocks of text, copy, merge, search, and add a selection of print controls. Staff have found it perfectly adequate for the production of drafts, and one or two who know most of its features very well say they can produce professional-quality documents on it.

As a language-teaching aid it can be exploited in a number of ways. The simple fact that it takes all the worst chores out of writing has in itself a very stimulating effect—writing boring business correspondence becomes, believe it or not, 'fun'. Much can also be done by getting students to work on common files, by preparing semi-finished files and asking students to complete them, by—where a network is available—getting the members of a class to inspect and comment on each others work incognito (not so easily

171

arranged in open class and where hand-writing is a give-away), and much more.

5 *Voice Synthesis*

'Talking' computers have been around for quite a long time. The Texas-instruments spelling toy was very popular only a year or two ago. The problem is to go further than just spelling, and either to have a computer improve its diction—they are still pretty tinny and Dalek-like—or else find uses for them where voice-quality is not so important.

We believe we have found one such use at least. Admittedly we do not go much further than letters, but the Maritime IPA (the Alpha-Bravo-Charlie-Delta code use by ships and aircraft) is something we have to teach from time to time, and it would be just as well to give our own students as much practice as possible. Also, listening to IPA code in real life often occurs under very difficult circumstances. The ether is noisy, the ship is rolling through a typhoon, and the message is being broadcast by a non English speaker, so top quality reproduction is not essential.

6 *Interactive, Text (Move based Simulations)*

Better known as 'Adventure Games', interactive text, or move-based simulation programs consist of a story line where, at each step or move, the reader makes some sort of decision: the story adapts itself to the reader's input with sometimes interesting, sometimes dire, consequences.

It was noted at Lancaster a year or two ago that programs of this sort stimulate a good deal of discussion where they are worked on by a pair or small group of students, and that the interest generated is so great that students will willingly say what they want to say in the target language if required to do so. Also it was thought that the exercise, by its very nature, would give a lot of practice in the use of modals, conditionals and so on.

We can certainly confirm the points about interest and stimulation. Stories other than these of the Fantasy and Science Fiction type are becoming available bit by bit.

7 *Text Analysis*

Currently we have two home-made packages that come under this heading. CONCORDANCER searches through a series of word-processor files for words (or even parts of words, or short phrases) specified by the user, and prints these out (on screen or printer) surrounded by the text to their left and right. The amount of text that can be searched is limited to the number of word-processor files (roughly 500-600 words long) that can be kept on a disk (roughly 25). The writing of new text to be searched is done simply by producing a word-processor file and giving it the required name.

It has been suggested that text analysis of this sort can be used to advantage in a language-learning situation. We do not have enough experience to comment, but it would be remarkable if good use could not be made of programs of this sort in some teaching situations.

172

ROLLING FOG came about as the result of a serious request from a colleague for a quick reading comprehensibility index calculator: we decided to use the Gunnar FOG formula—in a 100 word sample the average sentence length plus the number of long (three or more syllables) words multiplied by 0.4 gives the US public school grade attainment considered necessary for full comprehension. The program we demonstrate calculates the index for every possible one-hundred-word sample in the text. Texts, once again, are entered by VIEW word-processor, the only additional requirement being that they end with the word ENDS!

The program may lead to a reconsideration of the value of readability indices, but more important, it certainly gives a clear idea of how computers make very light work of boring, repetitious tasks.

8 *Auto-tester*

Setting, presenting and marking tests is a never-ending chore of language-education. AUTO-TESTER may help relieve the load. In this instance the 'programme' is not totally computerised. The test is on paper, and can take any shape or form the teacher desires. The computer program presents an answer sheet which allows the user to type in anything—letters, numbers or words—up to 15 characters long (there is another version offering more space), and an answer file where the teacher can enter not only the correct answer but also up to nine other acceptable or near acceptable answers. The program marks each user's work as soon as he finishes, and records his performance and score in a file.

At present the program is limited to one test per disk, but up to 100 students can try the test and have their work marked and recorded. Clearly this cannot be used on a class basis, but it may have some value if used in an individual self-access, self-assessment mode.

9 *Reading*

These programs were written to explore possible use of computers in teaching and giving practice in reading comprehension. As they stand they demonstrate possibilities, they are not finished programs.

TIMED-READER is based on the simple idea of setting a maximum display time for each page of text. Students are asked to chose a period of time (in seconds) for the display of each page. They are then presented with the text three times, being given a task at the start and a simple test at the end of each reading.

PARATEXT makes use of the idea of giving a paraphrased version of a text, paragraph by paragraph, in English that is simpler in structure and vocabulary than the original. It incorporates a simple branching feature. On completing his reading of each paragraph the user responds to a multi-choice item: if successful he moves to the next paragraph, but if not he is shown the simplified paragraph and then returns to the original. After he has re-read it, he attempts the multi-choice item again.

ANNOTEXT enables the user to obtain help when he comes to difficult phrases in a text: by using the arrow keys he can move the cursor to the part of the text that is causing difficulty and, when the <RETURN> key is pressed an explanatory note appears at the bottom of the screen. At the same time a record is made of the parts of the text that attract calls for help.

10 Miscellaneous

A further selection of small computer-based exercises. **ANAGRAMS** takes words and rearranges the order of the letters: the user has to reconstruct the word and is given clues where this proves difficult. Any number of word-lists can be used with this program, within the limitations of disk space. It would be useful, perhaps, for vocabulary reinforcement.

FLASH-PHRASE and **FLASH-TESTER** both make use of a very simple device—the timed presentation of screen displays—to give practice and reinforcement, and to test, items of vocabulary. Both draw on a fairly large bank of words, dividing them into four levels of difficulty. In each case the user starts at the lowest level and, if he is able to re-type the words flashed on the screen within the limits set—he must have at least 5 gos, and must not allow his score to fall below 80%—he automatically moves on to the next level at which the display time is reduced, and the words increase in difficulty. The 'Ships Names' set is particularly hard to complete without considerable practice—and seems to have practical value.

CORRECTOR focuses on common errors that occur in the writing of business correspondence. Each sentence displayed can be corrected by deleting, inserting or modifying a single word: in this program the user is told whether he should insert, delete or modify, but it would be possible to rewrite the program so that no such clues are given.

11 Simulated Dialogue

If you load a substitution-table into a computer it will run through all the various combinations of words and phrases for as long as you like. Or you can program it to display at random any one of the total number of choices possible. Set up a series of such substitution tables and program the computer to make a randomised choice from each one in turn and you might be able to produce the illusion of an unplanned conversation or dialogue. Our **SHOP** dialogue is a long way from perfection, but perhaps it is good enough to suggest possibilities.

The use for such a program would be, in the first instance, to serve as a model of dialogue in a number of situations. The English required for buying fruit is perhaps not of great practical value, but dealing with more general enquiries in English in a retail setting is certainly a daily concern for counter staff in stores situated in the more touristy areas of Hong Kong.

Apart from simply watching the dialogue, one can think of a number of other possible features, all of which seem within the bounds of possibility—linking, perhaps, with a voice synthesiser to give audio as well as visual text, developing the 'persona' of characters so that some are polite, rude, jolly, ill-tempered, patronising, shy, and so on. One might add mechanical features so that the speed of delivery could be controlled, or the user given a chance to predict what is going to be said next. One might even, perhaps, be able to allow the user to join in.

12. Dynamic Multi-choice

The use of computers to present, mark, and randomize multiple-choice items is now fairly routine: they are particularly useful where, as is the case with computer software, it is very difficult to make allowances for all the various possibilities of open-ended questioning. Immediate feedback, in the form of a 'right' or 'wrong' response with perhaps, additional helpful information where the answer is incorrect, open up possibilities for the use of multi-choice items for teaching and reinforcement, rather than simply testing.

This package includes a Base Program, a file Editor and two series of student files. The Base Program demonstrates the operation of the program. Its content has been prepared by staff and is on medical terminology. The contents of the program need not be solely done by teachers: they can also be the outcome of students efforts. The file Editor is written to make inputting easy for both staff and students. The two series of student files, one on shipping knowledge and the other on medical terminology, are examples of students' work.

普通話上聲變調中的一個問題——由上聲字變來且與上聲字相連的輕聲詞語讀法

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前言

1.　普通話上聲變調通常指下列兩種情形：

（一）兩個上聲連讀時，前一上聲由214變讀35，即變讀陽平。①

上(214) + 上 —— 陽(35) + 上

很冷 hěn lěng　　好馬 hǎo mǎ　　理想 lǐ xiǎng

（二）上聲在非上聲（陰平、陽平、去聲、輕聲②）前變"半上"，調値由214變讀21，就是只降不升。③

陰　　　　　　陰
陽　　　　　　陽
上(214) + 去 —— 半上(21) + 去
輕　　　　　　輕

北方 běi fāng　　好人 hǎo rén　　努力 nǔ lì　　喜歡 xǐ·huan

2.　上述變調規律可在一般現代漢語參考書籍或漢語教科書中找到；但下面有關上聲變調的情況就不是所有有關書籍都有記載的：

如果兩個上聲連讀時，第二個已變輕聲，那麼，第一個上聲字可有兩種不同的讀法，有的讀陽平，④ 有的讀半上。

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① 胡裕樹認爲變成"近於陽平"（見《現代漢語》增訂本，上海教育出版社，1981）。徐世榮把這變調叫作"直上"，調値爲24（見《普通話語音知識》，文字改革出版社，1980）。

② 這裏的輕聲是指本調不是上聲的字。如果本調是上聲，前一上聲會有兩種變法，亦即本文討論中心，詳見下文。本文拼音按音節分寫。

③ 後者（半上）一般不把它當作變調。下文所述的"不變"即指這一種。

④ 趙元任認爲第一個音節的變調跟上聲不完全相同，因爲它保留了一點兒上聲的下降部分的聲門收縮，其調値是325，不同於一個單純的陽平35（見趙元任著、呂叔湘譯《漢語口語語法》，北京商務印書館，1979，頁39）。

上(214)＋輕(上)—— 陽(35)＋輕(上) ˧˥˧

小姐 xiǎo·jie　　手裏 shǒu·li

上(214)＋輕(上)—— 半上(21)＋輕(上) ˨˩˦⑤

姐姐 jiě·jie　　奶奶 nǎi·nai　　椅子 yǐ·zi

3. 詞典一般只注輕聲，不注變調。詞典只告訴我們"耳朵"唸 ěr·duo，"馬虎"唸 mǎ·hu，實際應唸 ˧˥˧ 還是 ˨˩˦ 呢？詞典上沒有。而且，這種變法並無公認的變調規律，所以亦不能利用規律推求。致使教者（尤其是那些不是以普通話爲母語的教師⑥）及學習者在碰到這情況時，均感無所適從。本文的寫作目的，就是參考有關文獻的各種說法，希望探求出一些比較具體的規律或原則，以方便教學雙方。下文第22節更將我們搜集到的有關詞語，一一臚列出來。讀者如果不想按規律推求，詞語表即可提供實際讀法。

見諸文獻的討論

4. 上文提到，關於兩個上聲連讀，後字爲輕聲時前字如何變讀的問題，一般漢語教科書或現代漢語參考書都甚少討論；而提及的約可分以下三類：

(甲)只指出問題，而沒有給予任何解釋的；

(乙)指出問題，並作簡單說明的；

(丙)專文討論。

茲分述如下：

(甲)只指出問題，而沒有給予任何解釋的。

5. 胡裕樹《現代漢語》增訂本(1981)說：

> 如果第一個字是上聲，第二字是由上聲變來的輕聲，那麼第一個字就有兩種不同的變法。有的變爲"半上＋輕聲"，例如：
>
> 耳朵　馬虎　椅子　奶奶　嫂嫂　姐姐
>
> 有的變爲"近于陽平＋輕聲"。例如：
>
> 小鬼　老虎　手裏　腳手　打掃　可以⑦

6. 金有景《普通話語音常識》(1981)說：

> 如果上聲後頭是一個從上聲變來的輕聲，就有兩種不同的變調法。一種是變成"半上＋輕"。例如："癢癢、姐姐、椅子、管子"。另一種是變成"陽平＋輕"。例如："老虎、水手、打掃、想想"。⑧

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⑤ 輕聲的調値並不盡相同，它的音高是隨著前一個重音的聲調而有所改變的。輕聲在陽平後頭，音高是中調三度；在上聲後頭，音高是半高四度。（詳見《國音學》，國立臺灣師範大學國音教材編輯委員會編纂，正中書局，1982，頁274－275）

⑥ 以普通話（或北京話）爲母語的教師又不知道怎樣解釋爲什麼"小姐"要唸 ˧˥˧ 不唸 ˨˩˦；"姐姐"一定要唸 ˨˩˦ 而不唸 ˧˥˧。

⑦ 同①

⑧ 金有景《普通話語音常識》北京出版社，1981，頁70。

又說有些例子是兩種讀法都可以的：

> 也有兩種變調法都可以的例子。例如："改改"、"姥姥"可以讀"半上＋輕"，也可以讀"陽平＋輕"。⑨

7. 《漢語教科書》(1963)說：

> 第三聲後有由第三聲變來的輕聲時，有時這個第三聲讀爲第二聲，有時讀成半三聲。
>
> 如：3 + 0 ˨˩˦˦ —— ˧˥˧ lǎo·shu 老鼠
>
> 3 + 0 ˨˩˦˦ —— ˨˩˦ jiě·jie 姐姐⑩

8. 梁猷剛《漢語拼音教學》(1983)說：

> 如果兩個上聲音節中第二個音節的本調是上聲而在具體的詞中已讀輕聲，那麼，第一個音節的上聲可有兩種不同的讀法，有的變讀陽平聲，有的變讀半上聲。例如：
>
> "陽平聲"＋輕聲　可以　手裏　本領　打掃
>
> "半上聲"＋輕聲　奶奶　姐姐　本子　椅子⑪

(乙)指出問題，並作簡單說明的。

9. 蕭少文《語音常識》改訂版(1964)說：

> 有一點要注意，要是第一字是上聲，第二字是從上聲來的輕聲，就有兩種不同的變法。有的變成"半上＋輕聲"，有的變成"陽平＋輕聲"。
>
> 上＋上 ˨˩˦˨˩˦ —— 上＋輕 ˨˩˦˦ —— 半上＋輕 ˨˩˦
>
> 早起⑫　喜鵲⑬　嫂嫂　姐姐　老老(外祖母)　椅子　管子
>
> 第一字是上聲，第二字是輕聲的"子"字，都讀成"半上＋輕聲"，同"椅子"，"管子"一樣。
>
> 上＋上 ˨˩˦˨˩˦ —— 陽＋上 ˧˥˨˩˦ —— 陽＋輕 ˧˥˧
>
> 老虎　水手　打掃　可以
>
> 也有兩種讀法都可以的例子，比方"寶寶"，可以讀"半上＋輕聲"，也可以讀"陽平＋輕聲"。⑭

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⑨ 金有景《普通話語音常識》北京出版社，1981，頁70。肖正芳按："改改"、"姥姥"一般不讀"半上＋輕"。

⑩ 《漢語教科書》時代出版社，1963，頁66。陰平、陽平、上聲、去聲亦可用"第一聲、第二聲、第三聲、第四聲"來表示。

⑪ 梁猷剛《漢語拼音教學》廣東人民出版社，1983。

⑫ zǎoqi〈方〉早晨，見《現代漢語詞典》。

⑬ xǐque 又讀 xǐqiao，見《國語辭典》，頁3 053。

⑭ 蕭少文《語音常識》改訂版，文化教育出版社，1964。本書收入《語文彙編》第四輯。此段文字又見於蕭少文編《漢語語音學》香港宏圖出版社，無出版日期。

10. 董同龢《漢語音韻學》(1968)說：

> 兩個上聲字相連時，第一個字的聲調都變得和陽平一樣，例如"好馬"，"打狗"。有時候雖然第二個字已變輕聲，第一個字也是照樣的變，如"小姐"，"走走"。（但注意：詞尾"子"前面的上聲字不變如"李子"，語助詞前面的上聲字也不變，如"走了"。）⑮

兩位董先生都認爲詞尾"子"前面的上聲字不變(即讀半上)。趙元任、楊聯陞在1966年出版的《國語字典》中也有同樣的看法，並指出"寶寶"可以有兩種讀法。⑯

11. 《語文基礎知識六十講》(1984)除了指出上聲在輕聲"子"前讀"半上"外，還表示上聲重叠表稱謂時前字也不變陽平：

> 上聲在輕聲前有兩種變法：其一，輕聲本調是陰平、陽平、去聲，則變"半上・輕聲"，例如：手巾、老實、打扮。其二，輕聲本調是上聲，則變爲"陽平・輕聲"，例如：手法、老虎、打掃。但不完全如此，例如：上聲在輕聲"子"前，或上聲重叠表稱謂時，則按"半上・輕聲"變調，如：毯子、奶奶。⑰

12. 同樣理論亦見於傅國通《現代漢語語音》(1983)：

> 如果第一個字是上聲，第二個字是由上聲變來的輕聲，那麼就有兩種不同的變調情況：有的變成"直上＋輕聲"。⑱例如：本領、手裏、想起、老鼠、馬腳、允許、打掃、可以。有的變成"半上＋輕聲"。例如：耳朵、馬虎、馬匹。第二字是"子"、"了"等上聲字變來的輕聲，⑲都唸成"半上＋輕聲"。例如：椅子、管子、果子、好了、走了、講了。"奶奶"、"姐姐"、"姥姥"等稱呼，也都唸成"半上＋輕聲"。⑳

13. 李平、孫福全《普通話語音常識》(1980)用"叠音名詞"，但所舉例子均爲稱謂詞：

> 兩個上聲字相連時，後一個已變輕聲，前一個還變陽平。例如：本領、老鼠、水裏、想起、比比。但叠音名詞和附有詞尾"子"或"了"

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⑮ 董同龢《漢語音韻學》，廣文書局，1968，頁27。原文例子有國際音標注音。"了"作爲語助詞時唸輕聲le，不唸liǎo，所以前字是不會變讀陽平的。

⑯ 趙元任、楊聯陞合編《國語字典》，哈佛大學出版社，1966；頁xvii：In the case of 寶寶, a common pet name for a baby, both ˥˧ and ˩˥ are used, varying from family to family. A 3rd-Tone word with the diminutive suffix 子 always follows the pattern ˩˥, as in 椅子 'chair.'

⑰ 《語文基礎知識六十講》北京市工農教育研究室、北京人民廣播電台編，北京出版社，1984，頁15。

⑱ 參①。

⑲ 參⑮。

⑳ 傅國通《現代漢語語音》浙江人民出版社，1983，頁90。

的詞，第一個上聲則唸半上。例如：奶奶、姥姥、姐姐、椅子、本子、腦子、谷子、打了、走了、好了。㉑

14．上面所述，都是從不變（或變半上）的角度去討論，徐世榮《普通話語音知識》（1980）則從變的角度來說明，指出後字可輕可不輕的，前字要變“直上”[22]；重疊式動詞的前一個字亦要變讀“直上”。

有一部分詞，輕聲不太固定，不輕也可的，如“想起”、“手裏”等，前一字不變“半上”而變“直上”；重疊式動詞，如“走走、洗洗”等，前一字也不變“半上”而變直上。[23]

15．此外，也有從變與不變兩方面去作較全面討論的，例如劉銘在《國語》（1975）中指出輕聲字爲虛字時前字不變，爲實字時要變：

1．假如那個輕聲字是一個“虛字”（就是加不加這個字那個詞的本義不變），那麼第一個字還是變成半上聲。如姐姐、椅子、剪子、癢癢、姥姥等等。

2．若是那個輕聲字是一個“實字”（就是加不加這個字對那個詞的詞義有影響），那麼第一個字應該由第三聲變成第二聲。如小姐、老虎、水手、打掃等等。[24]

16．趙元任《漢語口語語法》（英文原著於1968年出版）則認爲兩個字構成一個詞時不變，兩個字組成一個短語或重疊式動詞就要變：

大體上如果兩個字在一個詞之內，結果就是第一種模式，即 ˨˩˦，如“癢癢”，“姐姐”，“寶寶”，“椅子”以及其他詞根爲第三聲而詞尾爲“子”的名詞。如果兩個字組成一個短語或重疊式動詞，如“咬你”，“買點ㄦ”，“養養(ㄦ)”，“想想(ㄦ)”那麼第一個音節就像在第三聲前的第三聲變化一樣，要升高爲第二聲。[25]

17．台灣師大的《國音學》（1982）又從後字是否一定要讀輕聲這個角度去看這個問題。如果上聲後面跟着的輕聲是非讀輕聲不可的，那麼前字就要讀半上：上聲＋輕聲（固定上輕）→ 半上＋輕聲。例如奶奶、耳朵、姥姥、姐姐。如果上聲後面跟着的輕聲是可輕可不輕的，那麼前字就要變讀陽平：上聲

㉑ 李平、孫幅全《普通話語音常識》陝西人民出版社，1980，頁64。

㉒ 參⑴。

㉓ 同⑴徐世榮書，頁123。

㉔ 劉銘《國語》第一冊，香港中文大學校外進修部、商業電台、佳藝電視合辦“國語”課程教材，1975，頁124。另見劉銘《國語》第一冊，香港中文大學中國語文研習所、校外進修部，1985，頁5－6。

㉕ 同⑷。

+輕聲(比較上輕) → 陽平+輕聲。例如可以、所以、手裏、哪裏、眼裏、老鼠、老虎、小姐、打手、跑跑。㉖

(丙)專文討論

18. 專門討論這個問題的文章不多。北京語言學院的《語言教學與研究》1981年第4期登載了一篇美國京諾拉著溫潔譯的文章，題目是《在變調方面的一個小問題(節譯)——當一個三聲詞素後面跟一個非重讀三聲詞素時會發生什麼變化？》，㉗作者是俄亥俄州立大學東亞語文學系教師。她分析了《漢語詞典》（商務印書館1959）和《普通話輕聲詞滙編》（商務印書館1963）中的上上連讀而後字爲輕聲的雙音節詞，發現如果後字是虛意詞素，前字就發半三聲；如果後字是一個實意詞素，前字就變二聲。

19. 1983年第2期《語言教學與研究》另有李明《關於輕聲語素前的上聲變調問題》一文。作者以《普通話輕聲詞滙編》(商務印書館1963)、《北京話輕聲詞滙》（中華書局1957）和《現代漢語詞典》（商務印書館1973試用本）爲資料，對其中的"上聲+輕聲(包括非上聲變來的輕聲)"詞滙進行了統計分析，結果看出"上聲+輕聲"詞滙的變調基本上遵循上聲的變調規律，就是說第一個上聲字怎樣變化取決於後面輕聲字原來的聲調。至於如"椅子"、"耳朵"兩詞的前字讀半上，作者認爲是不符合變調規律的。根據作者分析三種資料所得，這種不符合變調規則的詞大約有140－150個左右，其中絕大多數都是"子"尾詞。除去"子"尾詞，作者只搜集到21個詞：

寶寶　吵嚷　打扮　倒騰　耳朵　宇古　鼓搗　姐姐
姥姥　馬虎　腼腆　奶奶　撇咀　嚷嚷　嫂嫂　嬸嬸
挑唆　顛攞　癢癢　主意　仔密

其中吵嚷(→chāo·rang)、打扮(→dǎ·ban/dá·ban)、倒騰(→dáo·teng)、嚷嚷(→rāng·rang)、挑唆(→tiǎo·suo/tiáo·suo)、主意(→zhú·yi)、仔密(→zi·mi)等7詞的後字不是由三聲變來的，不在本文討論範圍之內。餘下的14個（除"寶寶"、"腼腆"有二讀外）都按下面規律變調：

上聲+輕聲(上聲變來的輕聲)──→"半上"+輕聲。

該文並指出詞尾"子"之前的上聲字一般都讀半上，只有"法子fá·zi"是例外的。此外，文章結尾說：

㉖ 《國音學》國立臺灣師範大學國音教材編輯委員會編纂，正中書局，1982，頁259－260。有些輕聲的輕化很固定而明顯，非讀輕聲不可的，就是固定輕聲，固定輕聲的本調爲上聲的叫做固定上輕。另外有些只稍微輕化，甚至有的人口中並不輕化而仍用本調的軟音，那就是比較輕聲，比較輕聲的本調爲上聲的，叫做比較上輕。（ ，260及278）

㉗ 該文譯自1976年美國西東大學出版的李英哲和布蘭奇．斯皮爾編《中文教學法》，原發表在《中國語文教師學會學報》VI, 2(1971)。

普通話和北京話裏還有相當數量的詞的第二個音節可以讀輕聲，也可以不讀輕聲。這樣的詞如果它的兩個音節都是上聲而當第二個音節讀輕聲時，則不管詞的內部結構如何，一般都按正常規律變調，即第一個上聲音節變爲陽平。[28]

簡明易懂的規律

20. 站在普通話教與學的角度而言，我們認爲《國音學》和李明文末所提出的"從後字是否必讀輕聲去看這個問題"最爲簡明易懂，切合實際教學的需要。他們的意思是上聲字後面跟着的輕聲是可輕可不輕的，那麼前字就要變讀陽平，如"小姐、可以、哪裏"三個詞語中的"姐、以、裏"唸本調也可以，那麼前字"小、可、哪"就要變讀陽平。李明認爲這是遵循上聲變調規律的變調。

如果上聲後面跟着的輕聲是非讀輕聲不可的，那麼前字就讀半上，如"椅子、姐姐"兩個詞語的後字"子、姐"一定不可以唸上聲本調，那麼前字"椅、姐"就不變調，即讀半上。[29] 李明認爲這種讀法是不符合變調規則的。（參第17及19節）

21. 要判定詞語的後字是否必讀輕聲需要對普通話具備一定水平的聽說能力，[30] 至於劉銘和京諾拉提出的"虛實"原則，就不受這個限制，因爲那是從詞義來決定，更適合一般普通話學習者的需要。這個原則的意思是如果詞語的後字是一個"實"字，前字就要變讀陽平，如"小姐、老虎"中的"姐、虎"是"實"字，不可省，故"小、老"要變讀陽平。如果後字是一個"虛"字，那麼前字就不變，即讀半上，如"耳朵、椅子"中的"朵、子"是"虛"字，省去不影響詞的本義，故"耳、椅"要唸半上。[31]

查檢由上聲字變來且與上聲相連的輕聲詞語的讀法

22. 普通話教學工作者如果不想用規律推求上文討論的輕聲詞語的讀音，可逕查本文附錄一的詞語表。該表具體列出由上聲字變來且與上聲字相連的輕聲詞條及其實際讀法。凡見於《現代漢語詞典》(1983年版)的有關詞語及其注音均收錄在表中。聲調讀法乃根據肖正芳女士及其北京朋友們的實際讀音。

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[28] 所舉例子有水土(聯合式)、手筆(偏正式)、瑪瑙(單純詞)、古董(後附加式)。這些詞的第二個字在《現代漢語詞典》中均爲本調上聲而非輕聲。

[29] "法子"是例外，參第19節。

[30] 一般詞典並無提供詞語是否必讀輕聲的資料。如"小姐、姐姐"二詞的後字在《現代漢語詞典》中均作輕聲。

[31] 有小部份詞語如馬虎不能應用這原則。

23. 有些詞組式結構的詞語一般詞典是不收的(所以亦不見於附錄一)・其中也有由上聲變來且與上聲相連的輕聲詞語。現按這些詞語的輕聲部份分類、舉例並說明這些詞語的聲調實際讀法如下：

(1) 方位詞"裏"

表裏 biǎo·li ˧˥꜊

口裏 kǒu·li ˧˥꜊

眼裏 yǎn·li ˧˥꜊

館裏 guǎn·li ˧˥꜊

手裏 shǒu·li ˧˥꜊

嘴裏 zuǐ·li ˧˥꜊

——第一音節變讀陽平

(2) 趨向動詞"起""起來"

打起(來) dǎ·qi·lai ˧˥꜊꜉

講起(來) jiǎng·qi·lai ˧˥꜊꜉

寫起(來) ·xiě·qi·lai ˧˥꜊꜉

搞起(來) gǎo·qi·lai ˧˥꜊꜉

想起(來) xiǎng·qi·lai ˧˥꜊꜉

引起(來) yǐn·qi·lai ˧˥꜊꜉

——主要動詞變讀陽平

(3) 重疊式動詞的第二音節

擺擺 bǎi·bai ˧˥꜊

打打 dǎ·da ˧˥꜊

賭賭 dǔ·du ˧˥꜊

擠擠 jǐ·ji ˧˥꜊

跑跑 pǎo·pao ˧˥꜊

審審 shěn·shen ˧˥꜊

想想 xiǎng·xiang ˧˥꜊

吻吻 wěn·wen ˧˥꜊

走走 zǒu·zou ˧˥꜊ [32]

比比 bǐ·bi ˧˥꜊

抖抖 dǒu·dou ˧˥꜊

滾滾 gǔn·gun ˧˥꜊

剪剪 jiǎn·jian ˧˥꜊

掃掃 sǎo·sao ˧˥꜊

躺躺 tǎng·tang ˧˥꜊

選選 xuǎn·xuan ˧˥꜊

咬咬 yǎo·yao ˧˥꜊

——第一音節變讀陽平

(4) 作賓語的人稱代詞

找我 zhǎo wo ˧˥꜊

請你 qǐng ni ˧˥꜊

——動詞變讀陽平

(5) 補語"死"(表示程度)

打死 dǎ·si ˧˥꜊

渴死 kě·si ˧˥꜊

苦死 kǔ·si ˧˥꜊

——動詞或形容詞變讀陽平

以上所列詞組式的詞語・雖然不見於附錄一的詞語表；但可以利用第17節的規律・即後字可輕可不輕的・前字變讀陽平。

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[32] 例子見京諾拉文章(註26)頁96。

21. 附錄一收錄見於《現代漢語詞典》的有關詞語共209個，其中大部分是"子尾詞"，有161個，佔77%；其餘是"非子尾詞"，有48個，只佔全數的23%。

作爲後綴的"子"是一定要唸輕聲的，所以161個"子尾詞"中，除了"法子"的"法"是例外地變讀陽平以外，其餘的都唸"半上＋輕聲"。

至於那48個"非子尾詞"，有些前字變讀陽平，有些不變（即讀半上），有些就兩種讀法都可以。現在把這48個詞語分兩欄具列於下，左邊表示前字變讀陽平，右邊表示前字一定要唸半上；至於可變可不變的則歸入左欄，並以*號顯示。

˧˥·|

把攬 bǎ·lan
把手 bǎ·shou〈方〉
*寶寶 bǎo·bǎo
扯手 chě·shou〈方〉
打點 dǎ·dian
打手 dǎ·shou
打整 dǎ·zheng〈方〉
*搗鼓 dǎo·gu〈方〉
*點補 diǎn·bu
*抖摟 dǒu·lou〈方〉
*鼓搗 gǔ·dao〈方〉
裹腳 guǒ·jiao
裹腿 guǒ·tui
緩醒 huǎn·xing〈方〉
講法 jiǎng·fa
繳裹儿 jiǎo·guǒr〈方〉
老奶奶 lǎo nǎi·nai
老鼠 lǎo·shǔ
*腼腆 miǎn·tiǎn
哪裏 nǎ·li
氆氌 pǔ·lu
起火 qǐ·huo
*苣蕒菜 qǔ·mǎi cài
*晌午 shǎng·wu〈口〉
想法 xiǎng·fa

˨˩|

打馬虎眼 dǎ mǎ·hu yǎn
耳朵 ěr·duo
耳朵底子 ěr·duo dǐ·zi〈方〉
耳朵眼儿 ěr·duo yǎnr
生古 gǎ·gu〈方〉
姐姐 jiě·jie
盡自 jǐn·zi〈方〉
姥姥（老老）lǎo·lao
馬虎 mǎ·hu
奶奶 nǎi·nai〈口〉
嫂嫂 sǎo·sao〈方〉
嬸嬸 shěn·shen〈方〉
顯擺 xiǎn·bai〈方〉
癢癢 yǎng·yang〈口〉
咬耳朵 yǎo ěr.duo〈口〉 ˧˥˨˩|
（共15個）

小姐 xiǎo·jie
小拇哥儿 xiǎo·mu gēr（方）
小拇指 xiǎo·mu zhǐ（口）
小水 xiǎo·shui
*早起 zǎo·qi（方）
找補 zhǎo·bu
子口 zǐ·kou
走水 zǒu·shui（方）
(共33個)

48個"非子尾詞"當中，有33個的前字是要或可以變讀陽平的。假如這些變讀算是正常（李明說遵循規律）的變調，那麼我們要研究的是其餘的15個前字非讀半上不可的"非子尾詞"。

15個不變讀陽平的"非子尾詞"中，有5個是方言詞，有4個鑲嵌有"耳朵"這個詞，有2個內有"馬虎"這二字；其他是"姐姐、姥姥、奶奶"等親屬稱謂，還有一個是"癢癢"。所以，這15個詞語中，較常用而需記住的只有"耳朵、姐姐、姥姥、馬虎、奶奶、癢癢"等6個詞語。

結論

25. 我們是站在普通話教與學的立場來寫本文的。經過上文的一番探討後，對於這些由上聲字變來且與上聲字相連的輕聲詞語的讀法，在規律或原則方面，我們認爲下面兩條已經足夠應用：

(1) 就聲調而言：後字可輕可不輕的，前字變讀陽平；後字非輕不可的，前字唸半上。
(2) 就詞義而言：後字爲實字，前字變讀陽平；後字爲虛字，前字唸半上。

26. 讀者如果不想按規律推求，翻查附錄一的詞語表亦可得到答案。第23節已分析了附錄一的詞語。事實上，那些不按變調規律的唸法(即唸半上)，大部分是"子尾詞"，佔全數的$\frac{2}{3}$強；而剩下不到$\frac{1}{3}$的詞語，需要記住唸半上的只有"耳朵、姐姐、姥姥、馬虎、奶奶、癢癢"等6個。

27. 還有一點，我們想指出的是：隨着時間的推移，輕聲有逐漸減少的趨勢。

有些老北京人口中仍存留着的輕聲詞，到了較年青的中年或青年北京人已不再唸輕聲；而且經過漢語規範化，很多可輕可不輕的詞語已慢慢唸回本調。例如前文有些學者提到的"老虎"一詞中的"虎"字，趙元任、楊聯陞合編的《國語字典》(1966)唸輕聲；但《現代漢語詞典》(1978初版)已

唸本調。《普通話輕聲詞匯編》(1963)[33]收錄由上聲字變來且與上聲字相連的輕聲詞語23個（見附錄二），其中有8個不見於附錄一。這並不是說《現代漢語詞典》不收這8個詞，而是《現代漢語詞典》已把它們全唸本調。這8個詞是：本領、打掃、可以、馬腳、瑪瑙、馬匹、首領、小鬼。

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[33] 《普通話輕聲詞匯編》中國文字改革委員會普通話語音研究班編，北京商務印書館，1963。

附　錄　一

由上聲字變來且與上聲字相連的輕聲詞條讀法

說明：

(1) 詞條（包括注音、解釋及例句）抄錄自《現代漢語詞典》北京商務印書館，1983。

(2) 聲調讀法乃根據肖正芳女士及其北京朋友們的實際讀音。

(3) ˨˩꜉ 表示半上＋輕聲（音高是半高四度）。

(4) ˧˥꜊ 表示陽平＋輕聲（音高是中調三度）。

(5) 三個音節的語詞，如果第二個音節是輕聲，不僅跟前一個音節的聲調有關，並且跟後一個音節也有關：陰平、陽平跟去聲當中的唸高調，上聲跟陰平、陽平當中的唸低調。比方工業部 gōng·ye bù ˥꜉˥˩，學不會 xué·bu huì ˧˥꜉˥˩，解放軍 jiě·fang jūn ˨˩꜋˥，兩個人 liǎng·ge rén ˨˩꜋˧˥（羅常培、王均《普通語音學綱要》北京商務印書館，1981，頁 135）。

矮子 ǎi·zi ˨˩꜉
粑子 bǎ·zi ˨˩꜉
把攬 bǎ·lan ˧˥꜊
　盡量佔有；把持包攬
把手 bǎ·shou 〈方〉 ˧˥꜊
把子[1] bǎ·zi ˨˩꜉
　例：一把子韭菜
把子[2] bǎ·zi ˨˩꜉
　例：練把子
把子[3] bǎ·zi ˨˩꜉
　見拜把子
擺子 bǎi·zi ˨˩꜉〈方〉瘧疾
拜把子 bài bǎ·zi ˥˩˨˩꜉
　舊時指朋友結爲異姓兄弟
板子 bǎn·zi ˨˩꜉
膀子 bǎng·zi ˨˩꜉
寶寶 bǎo·bǎo ˧˥꜊ 及 ˨˩꜉
本子 běn·zi ˨˩꜉
筆杆子 bǐ gǎn·zi ˧˥˨˩꜉

秕子 bǐ·zi ˨˩꜉
　空的或不飽滿的子粒
婊子 biǎo·zi ˨˩꜉
餅子 bǐng·zi ˨˩꜉
柄子 bǐng·zi 〈方〉 ˨˩꜉
　例：刀～
跛子 bǒ·zi ˨˩꜉
堡子 bǔ·zi ˨˩꜉〈方〉村莊
䅟子 cǎn·zi ˨˩꜉
　一種草本植物
鏟子 chǎn·zi ˨˩꜉
場子 chǎng·zi ˨˩꜉
廠子 chǎng·zi ˨˩꜉〈口〉工廠
吵子 chǎo·zi ˨˩꜉ 見打吵子
扯手 chě·shou ˧˥꜊〈方〉韁繩
打擺子 dǎ bǎi·zi ˧˥˨˩꜉
　〈方〉患瘧疾
打吵子 dǎ chǎo·zi ˧˥˨˩꜉
　〈方〉吵架；吵咀

打底子 dǎ dǐ·zi ˧˥ ˨˩ ˦
打點 dǎ·dian ˧˥ ˧
收拾
打榧子 dǎ fěi·zi ˧˥ ˨˩ ˦
把拇指貼緊中指面，再使勁閃開，使中指打在掌上發聲
打馬虎眼 dǎ mǎ·hu yǎn ˧˥ ˨˩ ˦ ˨˩˦
〈方〉故意裝糊塗蒙混騙人
打手 dǎ·shou ˧˥ ˧
打整 dǎ·zheng ˧˥ ˧〈方〉收拾
撣子 dǎn·zi ˨˩ ˦
胆子 dǎn·zi ˨˩ ˦
搗鼓 dǎo·gu ˧˥ ˧ 及 ˨˩ ˦
〈方〉反復擺弄
戥子 děng·zi ˨˩ ˦
底子 dǐ·zi ˨˩ ˦
點補 diǎn·bu ˧˥ ˧ 及 ˨˩ ˦
吃少量的食品解餓
點子¹ diǎn·zi ˨˩ ˦ 例：雨～
點子² diǎn·zi ˨˩ ˦ 例：想～
頂子 dǐng·zi ˨˩ ˦
抖摟 dǒu·lou ˨˩ ˦ 及 ˧˥ ˧
〈方〉振動衣、被、包袱等，使附着的東西落下來：把衣服上的雪～乾淨。
斗子 dǒu·zi ˨˩ ˦
肚子 dǔ·zi ˨˩ ˦ 例：豬～
不子 dǔn·zi ˨˩ ˦ 〈方〉墩子
垛子 duǒ·zi ˨˩ ˦ 例：城～
耳朵 ěr·duo ˨˩ ˦
耳朵底子 ěr·duo dǐ·zi ˨˩ ˦ ˨˩ ˦
〈方〉中耳炎
耳朵眼儿 ěr·duo yǎnr ˨˩ ˦ ˨˩˦
耳子 ěr·zi ˨˩ ˦
法子 fǎ·zi ˧˥ ˧ 例：想～
榧子 fěi·zi ˨˩ ˦

尕古 gǎ·gu ˨˩ ˦
〈方〉（人的脾氣、東西的質量、事情的結局等）不好
稈子 gǎn·zi ˨˩ ˦
稿子 gǎo·zi ˨˩ ˦
埂子 gěng·zi ˨˩ ˦
田地裏稍稍高起的分界線，像狹窄的小路
狗腿子 gǒu tuǐ·zi ˧˥ ˨˩ ˦
鼓搗 gǔ·dao ˨˩ ˦ 及 ˧˥ ˧
〈方〉反復擺弄
鼓點子 gǔ diǎn·zi ˧˥ ˨˩ ˦
鼓子詞 gǔ·zi cí ˨˩ ˦ ˧˥
宋代一種說唱文學
骨子 gǔ·zi ˨˩ ˦
例：傘～
骨子裏 gǔ·zi·li ˨˩ ˦ ˧
拐子 guǎi·zi ˨˩ ˦
管子 guǎn·zi ˨˩ ˦
館子 guǎn·zi ˨˩ ˦
鬼點子 guǐ diǎn·zi ˧˥ ˨˩ ˦
〈方〉壞主意
鬼子 guǐ·zi ˨˩ ˦
鬼子姜 guǐ·zi jiāng ˨˩ ˦ ˥
〈方〉菊芋
棍子 gǔn·zi ˨˩ ˦〈口〉棍
果子 guǒ·zi ˨˩ ˦
果子醬 guǒ·zi jiàng ˨˩ ˦ ˥˩
果子酒 guǒ·zi jiǔ ˨˩ ˦ ˨˩˦
果子狸 guǒ·zi lí ˨˩ ˦ ˧˥
果子露 guǒ·zi lù ˨˩ ˦ ˥˩
果子鹽 guǒ·zi yán ˨˩ ˦ ˧˥
裹脚 guǒ·jiao ˧˥ ˧
裹腿 guǒ·tui ˧˥ ˧
餜子 guǒ·zi ˨˩ ˦
一種油炸麵製食品

海子 hǎi·zi ˨˩꜉ 〈方〉 胡

喊嗓子 hǎn sǎng·zi ˧˥˨˩꜉

緩醒 huǎn·xing ˧˥꜊

〈方〉 失去知覺之後又恢復過來

幌子 huǎng·zi ˨˩꜉

伙子 huǒ·zi ˨˩꜉

假嗓子 jiǎ sǎng·zi ˧˥˨˩꜉

剪子 jiǎn·zi ˨˩꜉

鹼子 jiǎn·zi ˨˩꜉〈方〉 鹼鹼

講法 jiǎng·fa ˧˥꜊

耩子 jiǎng·zi ˨˩꜉ 〈方〉 耬

膙子 jiǎng·zi ˨˩꜉ 〈口〉 繭子

例：兩手起～

餃子 jiǎo·zi ˨˩꜉

繳裹儿 jiǎo·guǒr ˧˥꜊

〈方〉 生活費用

角子 jiǎo·zi ˨˩꜉ 〈方〉

姐姐 jiě·jie ˨˩꜉

盡自 jǐn·zi ˨˩꜉〈方〉 老是

卷子 juǎn·zi ˨˩꜉

蹶子 juě·zi ˨˩꜉ 及 ˧˥꜊

騾馬用後腿向後踢叫尥

(liào)～

坎子 kǎn zi ˨˩꜉

例：土～

口子¹ kǒu·zi ˨˩꜉〈口〉量詞，指人

口子² kǒu·zi ˨˩꜉

破裂的地方

款子 kuǎn·zi ˨˩꜉ 〈口〉

老奶奶 lǎo nǎi·nai ˧˥˨˩꜉

老鼠 lǎo·shǔ ˧˥꜊

老子 lǎo·zi ˨˩꜉ 〈口〉 父親

姥姥(老老) lǎo·lao ˨˩꜉

冷臉子 lěng liǎn·zi ˧˥˨˩꜉〈方〉

冷子 lěng·zi ˨˩꜉

裡脊 lǐ·ji ˨˩꜉

李子 lǐ·zi ˨˩꜉

裡子 lǐ·zi ˨˩꜉

例：棉襖～

臉子 liǎn·zi ˨˩꜉ 〈方〉

兩口子 liǎng kǒu·zi ˧˥˨˩꜉

檁子 lǐn·zi ˨˩꜉

領子 lǐng·zi ˨˩꜉

柳拐子病 liǔ guǎi·zi bìng ˧˥˨˩꜉˥˩

柳子戲 liǔ·zi xì ˨˩꜉˥˩

攏子 lǒng·zi ˨˩꜉

籠子 lǒng·zi ˨˩꜉

簍子 lǒu·zi ˨˩꜉

馬虎 mǎ·hu ˨˩꜉

馬子 mǎ·zi ˨˩꜉ 〈方〉 馬桶

碼子 mǎ·zi ˨˩꜉

猛子 měng·zi ˨˩꜉

見〔扎猛子〕

靦腆 miǎn·tiǎn ˧˥꜊ 及 ˨˩꜉

抿子 mǐn·zi ˨˩꜉

婦女梳頭時抹油用的小刷子

笢子 mǐn·zi ˨˩꜉

同'抿'子

抹子 mǒ·zi ˨˩꜉

抹灰泥的器具

哪裏 nǎ·li ˧˥꜊

奶奶 nǎi·nai ˨˩꜉ 〈口〉

奶子 nǎi·zi ˨˩꜉ 〈口〉

蝻子 nǎn·zi ˨˩꜉

腦子 nǎo·zi ˨˩꜉ 〈口〉

捻子 niǎn·zi ˨˩꜉ 例：紙～

碾子 niǎn·zi ˨˩꜉

紐子 niǔ·zi ˨˩꜉

排子車 pǎi·zi chē ˨˩꜋˥˥

用人力拉的一種車

痞子 pǐ·zi ˨˩꜉ 惡棍

譜子 pǔ·zi ˨˩꜉

氆氌 pǔ·lu ˧˥꜊
藏族地區出產的一種羊毛織品，可以做床毯、衣服等。
起火 qǐ·huo ˧˥꜊
帶着葦子杆的花炮，點着後能升得很高。
起子^{1} qǐ·zi ˨˩꜉
起子^{2} qǐ·zi ˨˩꜉ 例：～客人
卡子 qiǎ·zi ˨˩꜉
例：頭髮～
淺子 qiǎn·zi ˨˩꜉
盛東西的用具
苣蕒菜 qǔ·mǎi cài ˨˩꜉˥˩ 或 ˧˥꜉˥˩
曲子 qǔ·zi ˨˩꜉
饊子 sǎn·zi ˨˩꜉
〈方〉油炸的麵食
嗓子 sǎng·zi ˨˩꜉
嫂嫂 sǎo·sao ˨˩꜉ 〈方〉
嫂子 sǎo·zi ˨˩꜉
傻子 shǎ·zi ˨˩꜉
色子 shǎi·zi ˨˩꜉
（骰子 tóu·zi）
晌午 shǎng·wu ˧˥꜊ 及 ˨˩꜉〈口〉
嬸嬸 shěn·shen ˨˩꜉〈方〉
嬸子 shěn·zi ˨˩꜉ 〈口〉
黍子 shǔ·zi ˨˩꜉
耍子 shuǎ·zi ˨˩꜉ 玩兒
甩臉子 shuǎi liǎn·zi ˧˥˨˩꜉
〈方〉
水舀子 shuǐ yǎo·zi ˧˥˨˩꜉
索子 suǒ·zi ˨˩꜉〈方〉
毯子 tǎn·zi ˨˩꜉
帖子 tiě·zi ˨˩꜉
梃子 tǐng·zi ˨˩꜉
門窗兩側直立的邊框
筒子 tǒng·zi ˨˩꜉

土粉子 tǔ fěn·zi ˧˥˨˩꜉〈方〉
土狗子 tǔ gǒu·zi ˧˥˨˩꜉
〈方〉螻蛄
瓦壟子 wǎlǒng·zi ˧˥˨˩꜉
蚶子
崴子 wǎi·zi ˨˩꜉
〈方〉山、水彎曲的地方
網子 wǎng·zi ˨˩꜉
葦子 wěi·zi ˨˩꜉
蘆葦
尾子 wěi·zi ˨˩꜉ 〈方〉
戲館子 xì guǎn·zi ˥˩˨˩꜉
喜子 xǐ·zi ˨˩꜉
蟢子
蟢子 xǐ·zi ˨˩꜉
蠨蛸的通稱
顯擺 xiǎn·bai ˨˩꜉
〈方〉顯示並誇耀
想法 xiǎng·fa ˧˥꜊
小伙子 xiǎo huǒ·zi ˧˥˨˩꜉ 〈口〉
小姐 xiǎo·jie ˧˥꜊
小拇哥兒 xiǎo·muger ˧˥꜊˥
〈方〉小指
小拇指 xiǎo·muzhǐ ˧˥꜊˨˩˦
及 ˨˩꜉˨˩˦ 〈口〉小指
小晌午 xiǎo shǎng·wu ˧˥˨˩꜉ 及
˨˩˧˥꜊
小水 xiǎo·shui ˧˥꜊ 尿
小小子 xiǎo xiǎo·zi ˧˥˨˩꜉
〈口〉幼小的男孩子
小子 xiǎo·zi ˨˩꜉〈口〉
啞子 yǎ·zi ˨˩꜉ 〈方〉
癢癢 yǎng·yang ˨˩꜉〈口〉 癢
咬耳朵 yǎo ěr·duo ˧˥˨˩꜉〈口〉
舀子 yǎo·zi ˨˩꜉

椅子 yǐ·zi ˨˩·˦

飲子 yǐn·zi ˨˩·˦

宜於冷着喝的湯藥

引子 yǐn·zi ˨˩·˦

影子 yǐng·zi ˨˩·˦

影子內閣 yǐng·zi nèigé ˨˩·˦˥˩˧˥

崽子 zǎi·zi ˨˩·˦

罵人的話

揝子 zǎn·zi ˨˩·˦

早起 zǎo·qi ˧˥·˧ 及 ˨˩·˦（方）

扎猛子 zhā měng·zi ˥˨˩·˦（方）

游泳頭朝下鑽到水裏

砟子 zhǎ·zi ˨˩·˦

小的石塊、煤塊

掌子（礃子）zhǎng·zi ˨˩·˦

採礦或隧道工程中掘進的工作面

找補 zhǎo·bu ˧˥·˧

把不足的補上

褶子 zhě·zi ˨˩·˦

例：裙子上的～

疹子 zhěn·zi ˨˩·˦

種子 zhǒng·zǐ ˨˩·˦

種子地 zhǒng·zidì ˨˩·˦˥˩

培育留種子的作物所用的田地

肘子 zhǒu·zi ˨˩·˦

主子 zhǔ·zi ˨˩·˦

爪子 zhuǎ·zi ˨˩·˦（口）

子口 zǐ·kou ˧˥·˧

器物跟蓋ㄦ相密合的部分

走水 zǒu·shui ˧˥·˧（方）

帳子帘幕等上方裝飾的短橫幅

嘴子 zuǐ·zi ˨˩·˦（方）

例：山～

左嗓子 zuǒ sǎng·zi ˧˥˨˩·˦

歌唱時聲音高低不準

（共212個）

附 錄 二

見於《普通話輕聲詞滙編》[34]的由上聲字變來且與上聲字相連的詞語（*表示《現代漢語詞典》作本調）

寶寶 bǎo·bao
*本領 běn·ling
扯手 chě·shou
打點 dǎ·dian
*打掃 dǎ·sao
打手 dǎ·shou
抖摟 dǒu·lou
耳朵 ěr·duo
裹腿 guǒ·tui
脚手 jiǎo·shou
姐姐 jiě·jie
*可以 kě·yi
姥姥 lǎo·lao
老鼠 lǎo·shu
（共28個）

裡脊 lǐ·ji
馬虎 mǎ·hu
*馬脚 mǎ·jiao
*瑪瑙 mǎ·nao
*馬匹 mǎ·pi
腼腆 miǎn·tian
哪裏 rǎ·li
奶奶 nǎi·nai
嫂嫂 sǎo·sao
*首領 shǒu·ling
顯擺 xiǎn·bai
*小鬼 xiǎo·gui
小姐 xiǎo·jie
找補 zhǎo·bu

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[34] 《普通話輕聲詞滙編》中國文字改革委員會普通話語音研究班編，北京商務印書館，1963。

「常用字標準字形研究計畫」報告(一九八五年九月)

李學銘

語文教育學院

目 次

一、緣起 80
二、研究意義 80
三、研究範圍 81
四、研究字形的原則 84
五、研究過程 84
  1. 籌備工作 84
  2. 資料蒐集 85
  3. 字形分析 86
  4. 院外人士參與 87
  5. 《常用字標準字形芻議表》名稱與形式的商議 88
  6. 《常用字標準字形芻議表》名稱的議定與字形的寫定 88
六、遭遇的困難和解決的辦法 89
  1. 物資缺乏 89
  2. 時間匆促 89
  3. 文字歸部 89
  4. 語文課本 89
  5. 參考資料 90
  6. 文字正俗 90
  7. 筆畫規律 91
七、未來的修訂與改進 91
  1. 常用字的選定 91
  2. 標準字形的重訂 92
  3. 字表形式的修訂 92
  4. 字表體例的檢討 93
八、結語 93

一、緣起

語文教育學院自一九八二年成立以來，工作範圍不斷擴展。學院設立初期，主要工作，是爲在職語文教師開辦復修課程，其後更舉辦了與語文教學有關的研討會和研習班。由一九八四年開始，中文系爲了配合學院的發展，提出了一個與語文教學有關的研究計畫，這個計畫，就是「常用字標準字形研究計畫」。這個計畫的提出，可說是語文教育學院工作範圍擴展的一部分。

我們提出這個研究計畫，主要基於下列理由：

1. 許多小學中國語文教師，都表示他們在語文教學上，經常受到字形歧異的困擾。
2. 教材上的同一文字，往往出現多種字形的情形，令教師與學生無所適從。
3. 社會上的語文傳媒，如報章、書刊、電視、海報、標語、告示、字幕、標籤、招牌等等，常常有同字異形的現象，影響了語文教學效果。

站在語文教學和學習的立場，我們覺得，漢字字形的確有值得規範的理由。因此，我們的工作，要爲每一個常用字，決定標準的字形。所謂「標準」，可能從正，有文字學上的根據，也可能從俗，以便適應大多數人的書寫習慣。換句話說，我們無意爲每一文字，訂定正字的標準。要爲每一漢字訂定正字字形，往往會引起學術上的爭論，眞是談何容易！我們的著眼點，是小學語文教學，因此我們所提供的標準字形，主要以小學教師和學生爲對象。我們希望，常用字標準字形的研究，對小學語文教學和小學語文教材，會有積極性影響。如果進一步可以影響到社會上語文傳媒的字形，減少歧異的現象，那是意外的收穫了。

二、研究意義

漢字中有許多形體不同而同音、同義的字，這些字，我們稱爲「異體字」或「異形字」(以下稱「異體字」)。

甲骨文中的異體字非常多，甚至一字有幾十種形體的，金文中的異體字也不少。戰國時代，更是「言語異聲，文字異形」，影響了人與人間的溝通。秦代整理各國文字，主要目的，在減少異體字，但保留下來的異體字，仍然不少。楷書通行以後，歷代都實行文字規範，這對文字的寫法，起了約束的作用。可惜用字的人，未必人人留意文字的筆畫。因此，隨著時代的進展，異體字續有增加，我們仔細察看歷代字書、韻書所收錄的異體字，就可以看出這方面的情況。現時我們常用的《康熙字典》和《中華大字典》，收字很多，根據統計，《康熙字典》收字四萬九千零三十個，

《中華大字典》收字比《康熙字典》更多了一千多個。爲什麼字數會愈來愈多？這固然是因爲社會發展和語言發達，新字、生詞不斷產生的緣故，但最主要的理由，還是因爲出現了大量異體字。

異體字的出現，對人與人間的溝通和語言的表達，可說並無補益。「常用字標準字形研究」，是一種規範常用字字形的工作，這項工作，爲大家提供一字一形的標準，減少異體字。談規範，就要注意到文字的根源，形狀、筆畫的規律，即使改革文字，也會牽涉到形狀、筆畫問題，如果有繁體標準字作爲參考，把字簡化起來，就會較爲容易，而形狀、筆畫，也較易於符合規律。異體字，在書面語溝通方面，更會造成許多障礙，異體字愈多，給讀者帶來的困難也愈大。如果大家都用共同認可的標準字形來傳意，人與人間的書面語溝通，就順當得多了。

常用字標準字形研究，對於教材的編寫和出版，也非常有利。因爲編寫教材、出版教材、印刷教材的人，如果都有標準字形這類資料作爲參考，大家就會有可循的標準，教材上就不會出現太多使教師和學生都受困擾的異體字了。站在教學的立場，異體字多，只會增加記憶的負擔，引起學習的煩擾，使教師和學生，都大感不便。提出標準字形，也即是建議大家在同一字的幾種不同寫法中，選用一種寫法。這樣，從積極方面說，就是讓學生在減輕記憶負擔的情況下，多認識生字、新詞；從消極方面說，沒有了異體字，學生就會較易把標準字形記得清楚，他們寫錯字的機會，也會相應地減少了。

我們相信，常用字標準字形的研究，會有利於中國語文教學，尤其是會特別有利於小學的中國語文教學。

三、研究範圍

目前的漢字有多少？《中華大字典》收字最多，連重文在內，約有五萬多個。在這五萬多個字中，一般人所用的常用字，大抵是五千字左右。在五千常用字中，根據語文學者的研究，小學階段的常用字，大抵是三千字左右。在本港，究竟哪五千字，才是一般人的常用字？究竟哪三千字，才是小學階段的常用字？我們不能有確實的答案，因爲這牽涉到非常複雜、繁重的調查、歸納、分析、統計工作。以台灣教育部的「國民學校常用字彙研究」爲例，他們在教育部國民教育司督導下，由國立編譯館成立「國民學校常用字彙纂訂委員會」從事選取常用字的研究，由1963年開始工作，至1967年完成，耗時四年之久。又以台灣師範大學國文研究所的《常用國字標準字體表》的研訂工作爲例，他們由1973年2月成立編纂處，至1978年5月發表《常用國字標準字體表》的初步訂正本，前後共用了五年多時間。雖則這五年多的時間，他們既用來選定常用字，也用來研訂「標

準字體」，但我們也該可以推想他們用在選用常用字方面的精神與時間。據他們報告，他們用在選定常用字的時間是三年多。到了台灣教育部正式公布《常用國字標準字體表》的最後修訂本時，已是1982年9月1日的事了。至於我們的研究工作，實際上是去年七月才開始，直到現在，只不過是一年多的時間，研究的成員，除提供諮詢意見的院外委員不計外，只限本院中文系的同事，在有限時間和有限人力、物力的條件下，我們根本不能再作選定常用字的研究工作。因此，我們只好把研究範圍較爲縮窄，而且把工作的重點，放在手寫繁體楷書標準字形的研訂上。下面所述，就是我們的研訂範圍：

1. 從下列資料選取常用字
   - 甲、 台灣教育部《常用國字標準字體表》，1982年10月正中書局，字數4 808。
   - 乙、 香港教育署課程發展委員會《小學中國語文科課程綱要》所附錄的《小學常用字表》，1980年香港政府印務局，字數2 746(包括異體字42)。
   - 丙、 新加坡教育部《小學華語分級字表》，1980年5月教育出版社(新加坡)，字數1 973。
   - 丁、 《學生常用字字典》編寫組《學生常用字字典》，1983年10月福建人民出版社，字數5100餘。

   在上述四種資料中，我們選取常用字時，原則上以《常用國字標準字體表》和《小學常用字表》爲依據，其他兩種資料，只用來作爲輔助參考。根據了解，《小學常用字表》的2 746字，事實上並沒有越出《常用國字標準字體表》所收字的範圍，因此，我們會從《常用國字標準字體表》中刪除一些顯而易見的不常用字，但不可能根據《小學常用字表》爲《常用國字標準字體表》補上一些常用字。
2. 考察下列資料中的字形：
   - 甲、 兩種字形表
     - (1) 《常用國字標準字體表》(1982年版)
     - (2) 《小學常用字表》(1980年版)
   - 乙、 五種較通行的小學中國語文課本
     - (1) 現代教育出版社小學中國語文課本
     - (2) 長春出版社小學中國語文課本
     - (3) 新亞洲出版社小學中國語文課本
     - (4) 大雅出版社小學中國語文課本
     - (5) 模範出版社小學中國語文課本

丙、　四種由植字公司所提供的楷書字形資料

　(1)　森澤楷書字形

　(2)　森澤新楷書字形

　(3)　寫研石井楷書字形

　(4)　寫研模得雅楷書字形

我們選取上述小學中國語文科課本作爲考察的對象，主要根據一個原則，就是由課本的銷量來決定。這五種語文課本，根據了解，目前的銷量都是暫居前列的。在原定計畫中，我們還要考察五種銷紙最多的報章，這五種報章是：東方日報、星島日報、明報、成報、華僑日報，但最後決定用上述四種植字字版的字形來代替，因爲這四種字形資料，一方面已包括了大多數報章的楷書字形，同時我們用來作爲考察對象的語文課本，也是用「森澤機」來植字的。不過，語文課本雖用「森澤機」來植字，但由於香港教育署課本審查委員會對字形筆畫的要求較嚴，因此印刷公司往往會用人手先行修改植好的字形，然後才把課本拏去付印。因爲印刷公司所改的是已植好的字形而不是字版上的字形，所以常有漏改的情形；語文課本中時有前後字形不統一的現象，主要就是這個理由。爲了要看到小學語文課本中的實際字形，我們一方面要考察植字字版的字形，另一方面，仍然把上述五種語文課本中的字形資料，列入考察範圍之內。

3.　研訂字形，只限手寫繁體楷書

漢字字形，有所謂「印刷體」和「手寫體」，在本港來說，前者往往指一般印刷品上所通用的橫幼豎粗的方體楷書或仿宋字，後者則指便於手寫的繁體楷書。「手寫體」也會出現在印刷品上，但一般不會多用。至於本港目前小學各科課本，凡是用中文的，都用「手寫體」，這是教育署課程發展委員會的規定。可見手寫繁體楷書，對本港小學的教學，尤其是本港小學的語文教學，有非常大的影響。現時我們的「常用字標準字形研究計畫」，就是研訂手寫繁體楷書的字形，爲方便教師的教學和學生的學習，提出字形標準，把字形加以規範，實在非常必要。

除了教學和教材的理由，我們把手寫繁體楷書作爲研究對象，還有下列理由：

甲、　「手寫體」是我們現時日常書寫的文字字形。

乙、　大部分「印刷體」的文字，在字形方面，與「手寫體」的分歧不大，字形不同的只佔少數。

丙、　「印刷體」的字形，不斷受「手寫體」的影響。

丁、　字形規範，往往要注意筆畫的規律，本港現時所使用的繁體字，將來或許會受到改革，但把文字筆畫改革，也要注意規律。現在我們爲手寫繁體楷書提供了標準字形，對文字字形將來的改革，無疑會有積極的意義。

戊、．限於時間、人力、物力，我們目前只能集中精神，先爲手寫繁體楷書訂定標準字形。不過，有了這個基礎，將來進一步研訂「印刷體」的標準字形時，就會較爲方便了。

四、研訂字形的原則

漢字經過幾千年的發展變化，字數愈來愈多，加上結構複雜，字形不統一，因此在決定標準字形時，難免會使人產生不知所從的困惑。而且研訂字形的工作成員，並不限於三兩人，各人的看法與判斷，又往往會有很大的差異。爲了減少研訂時的困惑，更爲了使各研訂成員之間有共同的準則與默契，我們在決定字形的選擇時，主要根據下列原則考慮：

1.　普遍性：形體不一定有文字學上的依據，但在繁體字通行地區，書寫的人較多，符合約定俗成的原則，例如：取「為」不取「爲」；取「佇」不取「伫」。

2.　學術性：形體符合初形本義，在文字學上有依據，通行時間不短，直到目前，仍然有人認識、書寫。例如：取「丟」不取「丢」；取「往」不取「徃」。

3.　規律性：筆畫的形狀或長短，符合規律，認字的人，較易掌握，而又不過分違反大多數人的書寫習慣。例如：敬、驚、擎、警、儆、觀、權、舊、護、蔑、夢、寬等字的「艹」部分，都不作「艸」或「卄」。

在上述三項原則中，優先考慮的次序如下：

甲、　完全符合三項原則；

乙、　符合兩項，其中有「普遍性」；

丙、　只符合「普遍性」；

丁、　符合兩項，不包括「普遍性」，但也有人認識、書寫；

戊、　只符合其中一項，不包括「普遍性」。

五、研究過程

常用字標準字形研究的工作過程，可分爲幾個階段說明：

1.　籌備工作（1984年 7 月及以前）

爲配合語文教育學院多方面的發展，院方於一九八四年初建議中、英文系分別提出不同的研究計畫。中文系同事經多次商討後，擬定了多項研究計畫，並決定先提出本研究計畫，作爲中文系的第一項研究。研究計畫

經院方同意後，即著手進行籌備。籌備工作的第一步，是組織工作小組。組織工作於一九八四年六月底完成。根據組織，本研究計畫的工作成員，分爲兩個小組，一個是「資料蒐集小組」，一個是「資料分析小組」，再由一統籌者統籌兩小組的工作。原則上，兩小組各司其職，但實際上，「資料分析小組」在「資料蒐集小組」進行工作時，也同時做著資料蒐集的工作，只不過所蒐集的資料性質，跟「資料蒐集小組」所蒐集的，並不完全相同。稍後「資料蒐集小組」的成員，也會介入「資料分析小組」的工作。研究計畫原先由范國統籌，但因范國於七月離職，所以七月以後，轉由李學銘負責統籌。下面所列，是研究計畫工作者的名單：

統籌者：李學銘

資料蒐集小組：

何國祥、謝曾淑貞、鄭佩芳、唐唐秀玲、劉關之英

資料分析小組：

陳煒良、姜貝玲、何偉傑、施仲謀、陳國球、梁燕冰、陳蘇潔玉

籌備工作的第二步，是釐訂一份較詳細的研究工作進度表，以便研究工作可以在預期內順利完成。按照進度的要求，研究工作須在一九八四年七月正式開始，十月底「資料蒐集小組」完成剪貼工作，「資料分析小組」開始根據剪貼資料，進行字形分析；一九八五年三月組織「常用字標準字形研究委員會」，邀請院外人士參加；九月，研究工作完成，並由統籌者向院方提交研究總結報告及《常用字標準字形芻議表》。

2.　資料蒐集(1984年 7 月開始)

「資料蒐集小組」的成員，在一九八四年七月正式開始工作，他們先分工蒐集多種字形資料，並把字形資料剪貼在預先設計的《字形資料蒐集表》上，以供比較研究。這些資料，來源不同，現按剪貼次序開列如下：

(1)　《常用國字標準字體表》(1982年版)
(2)　《小學常用字表》(1980年版)
(3)　《說文解字》上的篆字(平津館校刊本重印本)
(4)　森澤楷書字形資料
(5)　森澤新楷書字形資料
(6)　寫研石井楷書字形資料
(7)　寫研模得雅楷書字形資料
(8)　現代教育出版社小學中國語文課本
(9)　長春出版社小學中國語文課本
(10)　新亞洲出版社小學中國語文課本
(11)　大雅出版社小學中國語文課本
(12)　模範出版社小學中國語文課本

「資料分析小組」在「資料蒐集小組」完成工作前，先盡快購置或影印較重要資料，以便工作成員細讀或翻閱。原則上，「資料分析小組」的成員，在分析字形前，應對下列資料較爲熟悉：

(1) 東漢許愼《說文解字》(平津館校刊本重印本)
(2) 唐顏元孫《干祿字書》(《四庫全書》影印本)
(3) 唐張參《五經文字》(同上)
(4) 唐唐元度《九經字樣》(同上)
(5) 宋戴侗《六書故》(同上)
(6) 宋李從周《字通》(同上)
(7) 宋郭忠恕《佩觿》(同上)
(8) 宋張有《復古編》(同上)
(9) 宋婁機《班馬字類》(《四部叢刊》影印本)
(10) 元李文仲《字鑑》(《四庫全書》影印本)
(11) 遼釋行均《龍龕手鑑》(同上)
(12) 明焦竑《俗書刊誤》(同上)
(13) 清段玉裁《說文解字注》(經韻樓本重印本)
(14) 《康熙字典》(1958年1月中華書局影印同文書局版)
(15) 《中華大字典》(1965年2月中華書局重印本)
(16) 丁福保《說文解字詁林及補遺》(1970年3月台灣商務印書館重印本)
(17) 高樹藩《形音義綜合大字典》(1971年3月正中書局)
(18) 顧雄藻《字辨》(1977年8月香港商務印書館)
(19) 陸爾奎、方毅《學生字典》(1983年9月香港商務印書館)
(20) 台灣教育部《常用國字標準字體表》(1982年9月正中書局)
(21) 香港教育署課程發展委員會《小學常用字表》(1980年香港政府印務局)
(22) 《國語辭典》附錄《漢字表》(1982年2月日本小學館)

「資料分析小組」的成員，除必須細讀或翻閱上述資料外，並爲其中一些難以檢索的資料編製文字筆畫索引，以便將來運用這些資料時較爲容易翻檢。此外，「資料分析小組」的成員，並須以上述資料爲基礎，著手編製一份較詳細的參考資料分類書目，使字形研訂工作進行時，有較多參考資料可以掌握。這份參考資料分類書目，在研究計畫完成前，仍在不斷增訂。參考資料分類書目，見本報告附錄二，今從略。

3．字形分析（1984年10月）

「資料蒐集小組」完成資料剪貼工作後，「資料分析小組」的成員即在一九八四年十月著手字形的分析工作。分析工作包括下列幾項：

(1) 比較《常用國字標準字體表》和《小學常用字表》所載字形的異同，並錄出兩表字形歧異的字，編成對照表，以便優先審核、分析。這份《兩表字形歧異對照表》，也分發給一百五十位參加中文系復修課程的小學中國語文教師試寫，藉以觀察他們對字形的認識和他們的書寫習慣。小學語文教師的試寫資料，我們視爲研訂標準字形時的輔助參考。

(2) 根據《字形資料蒐集表》，選出異體字較多的字，由「資料分析小組」的成員，按照預訂體例，撰寫字形分析短文。短文的內容，須把所知異體字羅列出來，並從各字形中選出一字作爲標準字。至於選擇的論據和理由，要有扼要的說明。「資料蒐集小組」的成員，亦須在完成蒐集資料後，撰寫字形分析短文。所有字形分析短文，見本報告附錄三，今從略。

(3) 統籌者除選擇一些爭論性較多的字形撰寫分析短文外，並根據各工作成員陸續交來的分析短文，嘗試爲《字形資料蒐集表》上的 4 808 字逐一寫定標準字形，如有需要，則附三兩簡括按語。在 4 808 字中，其中有一些字，在本港並不常用，甚至完全不用，這些字，也在嘗試寫定字形時註上符號，以便訂定《常用字標準字形芻議表》時，把這些字刪除出來。由於刪除的時候，雖有多方面的考慮，但仍不免有主觀的判斷，而且又未經過嚴格、精密的客觀調查、統計，因此我們決定把已刪除出來的字，仍附在《常用字標準字形芻議表》的後面，藉供參考。

4. 院外人士參與(1985年3月)

研訂字形的工作，除由統籌者和「分析小組」的成員負責外，「常用字標準字形研究委員會」亦於一九八五年三月組成，並於三月三十日召開第一次會議。委員會的成員，雖有本院中文系的同事，但來自不同院校、機構的院外人士，卻佔大多數。我們邀請院外人士參與研究計劃的目的，主要是希望他們能客觀地給予學術與專業意見，以收心得交流、集思廣益之效。委員會的成員，重要工作之一，在爲四千多常用字提供字形研訂和字數增刪的意見。下面所列，是委員會的成員和他們所屬院校或機構：

顧問：羅忼烈教授（香港中文大學教育學院）
主席：李學銘先生(語文教育學院)
秘書：姜貝玲小姐(語文教育學院)
委員：陳志誠先生(香港理工學院)
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5. 《常用字標準字形芻議表》名稱與形式的商議(1985年3月)

本研究計畫的最終目的，是要研訂一份《標準字形表》，關於《標準字形表》的名稱與形式，「常用字標準字形研究委員會」的委員，曾在一九八五年三月三十日的會議中作過詳細的討論。會中委員踴躍發言，提供了不少積極性意見。名稱方面，最初有幾項不同的提議，尤其是對是否採用「標準」兩字，委員的意見不盡相同；後來大家同意名稱暫定爲《常用漢字標準字形表》，最後決定則待下次開會討論。形式方面，各委員曾就音序編排和部首編排的利弊作過考慮。經交換意見後，委員認爲，音序編排無疑有不少優點，但最後還是決定採用《康熙字典》所列部首爲準的部首序。理由是：⑴部首與字形有極密切的關係，採用部首序，可顯示字形表的特質；⑵本港大多數人，並不熟習漢語拼音，他們所熟習的，是部首筆畫的檢索方式。其他有關《標準字形表》在形式方面的細節，委員會同意交由本院中文系同事商討、擬定。經商討後，我們決定：同部首字，以畫數多少排列次序，畫數少的在前，畫數多的在後；同畫數字，則按部首以外的「起筆」決定排列次序；起筆符號，簡化爲「、」、「一」、「丨」、「丿」四種，例外的起筆，則排在最後。

6. 《常用字標準字形芻議表》名稱的議定與字形的寫定（1985年8月至9月）

按照「常用字標準字形研究委員會」工作範圍的要求，委員會的成員，須就《字形資料蒐集表》上的四千多常用字，逐一寫出他們對字形選取的意見。由一九八五年五月至七月，委員會的顧問和委員，陸續把他們有關字形審定的書面意見交回。這些意見經歸納、整理後，可以看出委員會各成員對於字形的選取和不常用字的刪除，在意見上並不完全一致。「資料分析小組」把意見分歧的資料加以統計、歸納後，擬成一份《選取字形意見表》和《不常用字表》，供顧問委員和商討、裁決。「常用字標準字形研究委員會」在一九八五年八月三十一日召開，各委員詳細交換意見後，最後決定了標準字形的選取和不常用字的刪除，並把字表名稱定爲《常用字標準字形芻議表》。這份《常用字標準字形芻議表》，終於在一九八五年九月寫定，內容可說已包括了多方面人士的意見，其中既有本院中文系同事的心思與辛勞，更重要的是，其中也有院外多位學者與專業人士的寶貴心得。字形的研訂，是一項吃力而不討好的工作，自古至今，爭論是

非常多的。因此，我們相信，《常用字標準字形芻議表》的內容，必然會有不少地方未能盡如人意；但我們可以肯定，這決不是「閉門造車」的研究成果。《常用字標準字形芻議表》見本報告附錄一，今從略。

六、遭遇的困難和解決的辦法

本研究計畫在進行期中，曾遭遇一些困難。有些困難，並不難於解決；有些困難，要解決可並不容易。現把這些困難概述如下，藉以反映部分工作情況。其中一些項目，附有解決辦法的說明：

1. 物資缺乏：語文教學或語文學習的研究，是本院重要工作之一。但本研究計畫進行時，院方並沒有撥出特定的研究費，因此，一切物資的籌畫，都只能在中文系原有的經費內撥付。至於資料的蒐集、影印，文具用品的供應等等，在在需財，在這方面，院方有時限於客觀條件，未能供應充足。本系同事爲了這項研究，即曾自行支付了一些難以報銷的費用。我們期望將來進行任何研究計畫時，院方能提供適當的研究費。

2. 時間匆促：本研究計畫由去年七月才正式開始，直到現在，只不過是一年左右的時間。在外地也有有關標準字形的研究，但一般需要四至六年的時間。爲減輕工作壓力，我們已縮窄了研究範圍，並且跳過了常用字調查與統計的工作，直接以《常用國字標準字體表》和《小學常用字表》中所收的字爲研究對象。但時間不足，仍然是顯而易見的。加上中文系的同事，平日既要負擔語文教師複修課程的課節，又要處理非教學性的複雜事務，一切研究工作，只能在課節與雜務之間的空隙進行。至於晚上在家裏翻閱、分析資料，已是經常的事了。同事的工作負擔固然沈重，而研究工作的時間運用，也有捉襟見肘之苦。幸在同事同心協力之下，終於在預期進度中完成這項研究。

3. 文字歸部：「資料蒐集小組」所剪貼的資料，包括《常用國字標準字體表》、《小學常用字表》、《說文解字》的字形。這三項資料，在文字歸部方面，都有本身特別的地方。例如「最」字、「獎」字，一般字典入「曰」部、「大」部，《常用國字標準字體表》則入「冂」部、「犬」部。又例如《小學常用字表》依筆畫數排檢，《常用國字標準字體表》卻依部首排檢。排檢方法不同，要把這兩項資料中的字形作對照剪貼時，無疑產生了檢索的困難。至於《說文解字》對文字的歸部又自有一套，而且楷書和篆書在形體方面又有很大的分別，因此在檢索字形剪貼時，又出現不少困擾，而且難免有疏漏的情形。字形資料的蒐集和剪貼，較預期爲難，所以完成剪貼的時間，也比預算爲長。

4. 語文課本：根據研究計畫，我們要剪貼五家出版社所出版的小學中國語文課本中的字形資料。影印課本的課文，再加以剪貼，需要頗大的

影印費用，這對我們來說，無疑是一種經濟上的負擔。爲節省費用計，我們決定先影印六年級課本的課文，字形資料不敷應用，則利用課本所附生字新詞表以補不足。如有需要，也翻閱其他年級的課文，遇到所需字形時，才影印那一頁。這或可約略解決影印過量的問題。此外，同一出版社的課本，有時也會出現異體字的情形，例如現代教育課本的「叙敍」、「**啟**啓」；長春課本的「么幺」、「館舘」；新亞洲課本的「淒悽」、「麪麵」等等。這些資料，稍一不慎，就會忽略過去。「資料蒐集小組」爲了要留意剪存這方面的資料，無疑頗增加了工作的壓力。

5. 參考資料：參考資料的蒐集和整理，對研究工作很有幫助。但本院中文系同事平日工作負擔既重，也不便經常往各大圖書館走動，因此難以蒐集到大量有關參考資料。幸而我們現時所掌握到的資料，一般都可爲我們解決分析字形上的困難，但跟學院式研究比較起來，我們的參考資料篇目，應該還要加長。此外，「資料分析小組」爲參考資料編製索引時，也有一些麻煩。由於有不少參考資料屬於篆書，當我們把篆書寫成楷書以便編製筆畫索引時，立刻出現畫數難以肯定的情形，如：史、前、萬、西、眉、更、叟、頪等字，在《字通》的楷書說明文字中，形體卻是：「叓」、「歬」、「萬」、「卥」、「眉」、「㪅」、「叜」、「頪」，我們編製筆畫索引時，無論按照《字通》原來字形的筆畫或按照通行字形的筆畫來編排，檢索起來都不理想。這是編製筆畫索引困難的一端。還有一點值得一提的，就是有關字形的參考資料非常多，但所見愈多，困惑愈大，因爲這些資料的說法，往往衆說紛紜，莫衷一是。只參閱現時掌握到的資料，已使我們時常爲了某一字形，要很費神地翻檢、爬梳、整理，又用了不少時間，才可以找出其中端倪。

6. 文字正俗：本研究計畫，主要在提供一字一形的標準，減少異體字。不過在決定標準字形時，往往會產生選擇上的困擾。因爲如果完全以文字學上的正字爲依據，其中有些字，可能並不常用，但如果完全以普遍通行爲依據，其中有些字，可能是俗字，也可能是筆畫有誤的字。堅持「正」或堅持「俗」，都會有顧此失彼的毛病。例如溫温、巢巢、閒閑、次次、刮刮、祕秘、脊脊、館舘、傻傻、肅肅、任任、者者、叟叟、冊册、幺么、獎奬、黃黄、刹剎、反反、丟丟、片片、研硏、充充、師師、丸丸、周周等字，究竟該以哪些字爲標準字？在研究過程中，有主張從正的，有主張從俗的，有主張各字形盡量並存以供參考的，有主張只選擇一字作爲標準的；意見分歧，並不一致。原則上，我們認爲《標準字形表》與《異體字表》的性質絕不相同，如無必要，我們只選擇一字爲標準字，不提供異體字。但如果的確有習用已久而又相當通行的異體字，我們才在備註欄內說明，以示可以並存。字形的取捨，在研訂過程中，眞是使人大傷腦筋。

7. 筆畫規律：標準字形的研訂，屬於字形規範的工作。談規範，就要注意到文字的根源，筆畫的規律。不過，在漢字中，有不少筆畫的形狀、長短，經過了篆書、隸書、楷書的演變，已經沒有規律可言，勉強使筆畫符合規律，只會使字形不自然，又違反大多數人的書寫習慣。例如寺、志、貴這三個字的上半部，在篆書都是「㞢」，「㞢」的楷書是「之」，我們如果把「之」代替了寺、志、貴的上半部，當然不可以，甚至把「土」、「士」、「㞢」三種寫法中的一種統一其他兩種，也難以令人滿意。因此，我們只好讓寺、志、貴等字從「㞢」的部分各自保留不同形狀，並不勉強歸於一律。又例如「肉」字，作偏旁或字的某一部分時，一般會寫作「⺼」，如肋、肌、肝、肘、肚、肥、胖、胎、能、胤等字是；也有人主張「⺼」、「月」不分，以免徒增煩擾。但這樣一來，筆畫也就無所謂規律了。我們經仔細考慮後，決定「肉」字是左偏旁時，作「⺼」，如「胸」、「肥」；左上、右上作「夕」，如「然」、「將」；其他作「月」，如「胡」、「娟」。又例如「夂」、「夊」本來不同，但形狀非常接近，如果要講究筆畫規律，從「夂」的字都不能寫成「夊」，但這樣一來，恐怕會增加辨別、記憶的難度。因此，我們甘冒筆畫不辨的批評，把「夂」、「夊」併而為一，如愛、憂、夏、麥、俊等字是。不過，遇到一些字形，我們有時也會堅持筆畫的規律，至於是否會受到「食古不化」的貶斥，也就不去管了。研訂標準字形，不可忽略筆畫形狀、長短的規律，已是常識問題，不煩細說。但過分重視規律，有時又會增加研訂的障礙。考慮筆畫規律，往往要一筆一畫地推敲，這的確是耗時而又勞神的工作！

七、未來的修訂與改進

《常用字標準字形芻議表》，終於在種種客觀條件限制下，完成了主要的研訂工作。所謂「主要」，表示這份《常用字標準字形芻議表》，的確只是「芻議」，還不能看作是個最後階段的定稿。在可能範圍內，我們應該對這份字表作進一步的修訂，一方面使它的內容更充實、更精確，另一方面使它在語文教學上，發揮更為有利的作用。下面所列，是未來可以做的修訂或改進工作：

1. 常用字的選定：常用字的選定，牽涉到時代因素、地方因素、用途因素。每一時代有每一時代的常用字，每一地方有每一地方的常用字，每一用途也有每一用途的常用字，最可靠的選取常用字方法，是通過調查、統計、分析來進行，調查、統計、分析的資料愈多，選出來的常用字愈能代表一般性、普遍性、常用性。由於時間、人力、物力的局限，《常用字標準字形芻議表》中的所謂「常用字」，只以《常用國字標準字體表》、

《小學常用字表》和其他兩種資料作爲參考的依據，並沒有通過科學化的調查、統計、分析。我們也做了刪除「非常用字」的工作，但只是一些人的認識、經驗判斷，認識、經驗判斷，當然也有價值，但客觀性是不強的。不過，談到科學化的調查、統計、分析，眞是「茲事體大」，決不是目前我們缺乏時間、人力、物力的條件所能做到。我們寄望將來條件改善後，可以通過調查、統計、分析的方式，著手選定適合現時本港的常用字，而《常用字標準字形芻議表》中的所謂「常用字」，就要重新調整、選擇，使能更適合本港語文教學的要求。

2. 標準字形的重訂：我們研訂字形時，已盡量根據一些原則來考慮，這些原則，包括了普遍性、學術性、規律性；同時我們也充分考慮了不同院校、機構的學者和專業人士的意見。此外，我們也邀請了一百五十位參加復修課程的小學語文教師，試寫一些筆畫有分歧的字形，藉以觀察他們的書寫習慣和對字形的看法。但事實顯示，無論是我們中文系的同事也好，或是院外的學者和專業人士也好，或是小學語文教師也好，大家對一些字形的意見，並不完全相同，其中有些字形，甚至引起了很大的爭論。不過，我們的意見不論怎樣分歧，最後都要選定標準字形。因此我們現時所見的「標準字形」，是在互相體諒、退讓的情況下寫定的，其中不免有「未盡同意」、「無可奈何」的成分。老實說，要釐定大家都樂於接受的標準，眞不是一件那麼容易的事，恐怕也是一件不可能的事。我們希望這份《常用字標準字形芻議表》公布以後，能得到各界人士尤其是語文教學工作者的支持，同時能在字形方面，向我們多提重訂的意見。我們不敢奢望重訂後的《標準字形表》(應該不用「芻議」兩字)會爲人人所接受，但如果眞能爲大多數人所接受，那已是很理想的事了。

3. 字表形式的修訂：目前大家所見的《常用字標準字形芻議表》，形式方面，是經過多次商討才擬定的。《常用字標準字形芻議表》採取橫排方式，全部文字按部首序編排，至於部首的先後次序，原則上以《康熙字典》爲準。按照部首編排，可以顯示字形的特質，有它本身的優點，但是不是最理想的編排方式？檢索起來是不是最方便？《康熙字典》的部首序是不是最適當？這些問題，還要進一步思考。事實上，我們曾經考慮過採取按音序編排而附以部首索引的方式，而且這件事也曾在「常用字標準字形研究委員會」中討會，最後議決放棄音序的形式。或許將來修訂字表的形式時，不妨在部首序、音序或其他編序方面再作詳細的考慮。此外，字表共有五個項目，這些項目包括：字碼、標準字形、部首以外畫數、總畫數、備註。這幾個項目，是否還有增刪的餘地？項目的措詞是否最適當？這仍有待各界人士提供意見，以便將來可作進一步改進。

4. 字表體例的檢討：體例，是研訂字形和編製字表的準則。爲了要使所有標準字形研究的工作成員有共同的默契，字表的體例早在研訂字形前和編製字表前就已撰備。不過在研訂標準字形的過程中，研訂字形的準則往往受到個別文字的特殊寫法所干擾，而在編製字表時，也往往因有意料之外的困難，不得不修改編製的準則。因此，現時《常用字標準字形芻議表》前的體例說明，無論在內容或措詞方面，跟初稿並不完全相同。而且，上面所提到的幾項修訂和改進，每一樣都可能對體例有或大或小的影響，可見體例不能一成不變，也不該一成不變，我們在重新修訂字表時，非要同時對體例作全面的檢討不可。檢討體例時，可注意的地方很多，例如：原則的修訂、內容的增刪、措詞的更動等等，都應該再作仔細的斟酌。

八、結語

語文教育學院的「常用字標準字形研究計畫」，終於在預期時間內完成了預期的工作；《常用字標準字形芻議表》，是這項研究計畫的主要成果。我們說「主要成果」，用意在說明一個事實，就是《常用字標準字形芻議表》呈現在大家面前，是一件可見的實物，但在這件實物的背後，我們做了許多不可見或難以見到的工作，而這些工作的結果，不但支持了我們對一些字形的看法，同時對我們將來有關漢字的進一步研究工作，也會非常有幫助。所以用《常用字標準字形芻議表》來看我們的研究成果，只能看到成果的一部分。

我們還要說明的，就是這份《常用字標準字形芻議表》，在目前階段，只是一份初稿，要使初稿成爲定稿，還要經歷一段較長時間的考驗。在考驗期間，我們需要聽取多方面的批評，尤其是更需要聽取更多、更多語文教學工作者的寶貴意見。只有經過了仔細的檢討和嚴格的修訂，《常用字標準字形芻議表》，才會較爲精確，才會更爲實用，到了那時，「芻議」兩字就可以省去了。

本研究計畫進行期中，承蒙下列人士、機構、出版社提供意見或資料，謹此鳴謝。

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SOCIAL AND STYLISTIC STRATIFICATION IN ENGLISH VOCABULARY AND ITS TREATMENT IN PEDAGOGICAL DICTIONARIES

Gabriele Stein

One of the characteristics of every human language is its variation. In the most up-to-date scholarly grammar of English, the *Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, published earlier this year[1], the authors describe five major types of variation according to

(1) region
(2) social group
(3) field of discourse
(4) medium
(5) attitude

Language variations according to different regions are commonly called dialects. Within such dialects there is considerable variation in speech that pertains to the education of the speakers as well as to their socio-economic and ethnic background. The educated regional variety which is used by the government offices, the press, the law courts, the church and the professions is usually regarded as the standard variety of the language. This is the variety of the language that is taught at school and which the foreign learners aim at acquiring. It is the language in which text-books, grammars and dictionaries are written. In my paper I shall discuss aspects of the vocabulary of standard English as it is described in a specific type of monolingual English dictionary, that is dictionaries for the foreign learners of English.

The English vocabulary, like the vocabulary of any language, is a very complex network with many different layers of structure. From a purely abstract linguistic point of view we might, for instance, distinguish the following lexical layers of English:

(1) an *Anglo-Saxon* and a *Romance-classical* one;
(2) a layer of *free lexical units* with no syntactic usage restrictions and a layer of *frozen lexical units*, as for instance idiomatic expressions, with such restrictions;
(3) a layer of *primary lexical units*, that is units that do not constitute morphological syntagmas, and a layer of *secondary lexical units*, that is derivatives and compounds which are formed on the basis of primary lexical units;
(4) a layer of lexical units that constitute *word fields* and for which the hyponymy relation is of particular importance;
(5) a layer of *synonymous expressions*;
(6) a layer of *antonymous expressions*.

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[1] R. Quirk-S. Greenbaum—G. Leech—J. Svartvik, *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (London and New York: Longman, 1985), pp. 15-16.

In the teaching and learning of the English language these different structural layers are not of equal importance. Learners whose mother tongue is either of Germanic or of Romance descent, for instance, will not only have an advantage in decoding English words they have never heard or read before but also have greater facility in expressing themselves. The teacher may emphasize and make use of the similarities between the learner's mother tongue and English. For learners whose mother tongue is neither Germanic nor Romance, however, this structural aspect of the English lexicon is irrelevant, except insofar as they have style-choice consequences. Free and frozen lexical units have to be taught and learnt individually, just like primary lexical units. Word-formational rules are not always taught explicitly which is to be regretted for the consciously internalized knowledge of the word-formation rules of English will increase the overall productive and receptive language skills of the learner. Similar considerations hold for the knowledge of the semantic relations of hyponymy, synonymy and antonymy. The explicit teaching of these relations will depend on the linguistic training of the teachers in question. Yet language is not only an abstract system of relations. It also has to be described in relation to its users for the users give it its shape. If we take into account the speaker who uses the words of the language, we might distinguish further layers of the English lexicon:

(7) *subject fields*, e.g. the terms relating to biology, linguistics, etc. These obviously correlate with the 'fields of discourse' in the five-way variation model mentioned earlier. In general language courses such subject fields are never taught or learnt *in toto*. Someone who is, for instance, interested in such a subject field as the English flora or fauna will acquire the relevant vocabulary by joining people sharing his/her interest, by reading the literature, or by attending special study courses.

(8) *attitudinal items*. These are lexical units that relate to the pragmatic situation of discourse and thus correlate with 'attitude' in the 5-term model. They reflect the social relationship between the speakers and the speakers' attitudes towards the topic of discourse. This attitudinal or stylistic level of language is the most difficult for the foreign learner. It is also the most difficult area for any teacher of a language that is not his/her mother tongue. An adequate command of the social and stylistic levels of a language presupposes a near native-like linguistic competence for the foreigner. We all know that only few of us meet this requirement. The reason for this is not so much a lack of interest in the language itself, but rather the fact that the financial means all over the world simply preclude a training of foreign language teachers that includes a number of study years abroad. Yet it is almost impossible for a foreign learner to master the subtle differences of attitudinal language use without a prolonged stay in the country whose language he or she will be teaching. In the absence of such an ideal tertiary education system language teaching materials are of prime importance. The spread of English as *the lingua franca* of the twentieth century has led to the production of excellent textbooks, grammars and dictionaries. As to

the latter, the achievements of English lexicographers for the foreign learners of the language are unparalleled. At the present time there are three major pedagogical English dictionaries. These are in the chronological order of their publication:

(1) A. S. Hornby's *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (ALD)*. This pioneering work was originally published in 1948 and had its third edition in 1974. My study is based on the seventeenth impression of this third edition which appeared in 1983.[2]

(2) *The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE)*, published in 1978.[3]

(3) *Chambers Universal Learners' Dictionary (CULD)*, published in 1980.[4]

The basic differences between these EFL pedagogical dictionaries and other monolingual English dictionaries are:

(1) a word list that tries to capture the common core of the language and goes less for the latest scientific terminologies;

(2) pronunciation is rendered by a phonetic transcription system and not a respelling system that takes into account the relation between sounds and spellings in English;

(3) the grammatical information provided goes far beyond the indication of word-class membership and irregular forms. It usually includes the indication of countability for nouns and the syntactic properties of adjectives. All three dictionaries vary with respect to their treatment of verb, noun, and adjective complementation, *LDOCE* being by far the most detailed and ambitious.

(4) definitions are given in simple and clear words. For the *LDOCE* there was even developed a specific defining vocabulary.

(5) the EFL dictionaries explicitly indicate attitudes towards language use and often have specific usage notes.

Recent research has shown that most students are unable to use the wealth of linguistic information that these dictionaries hold ready for them.[5] It has also revealed that the majority of foreign language teachers have had no instruction whatsoever in how to use a dictionary to their best advantage. Many teachers base their teaching on what they themselves were taught. They regard matters that they were taught as important and necessary to be passed on to their pupils. Things that they were not taught they usually regard as negligible. Omissions from the curriculum are therefore rarely detected as such. This holds in particular for the lamentably neglected instruction in dictionary use. It seems self-evident that the training of future foreign language teachers should, as a matter of course, include a component on how to teach dictionary reference skills. One of the aims of this paper is therefore to draw attention to this neglected area in order to encourage changes in the curricula. I have chosen to concentrate on the treatment of the stylistic aspect of the English vocabulary because this is not only difficult to acquire but also difficult to describe adequately. Why the foreign learner of English has to acquire a good command of the attitudinal differences of the language needs no lengthy explanation. By choosing the wrong word the EFL learner may not only give offence but also be misjudged as to his own education and social background and his communicative intentions. One might argue that a foreigner is more easily forgiven linguistic blunders than a native speaker. This is true, indeed, but only to a limited degree. The more advanced the foreign student is, the more he or she is expected to master the attitudinal differences of the language. The better and near native-like his/her command, the more severe the sanctions for stylistic blunders.

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[2] A. S. Hornby, *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 3rd edition, 17th impression, 1983).

[3] P. Procter, ed., *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (Harlow and London: Longman Group, 1978).

[4] E. M. Kirkpatrick, ed., *Chambers Universal Learners' Dictionary* (Edinburgh: W & R Chambers, 1980).

[5] Cf for instance H. Béjoint, 'The Foreign Student's Use of Monolingual English Dictionaries: A Study of Language Needs and Reference Skills', *Applied Linguistics* II, 3 (1981), pp. 207-222.

The description of the different stylistic levels of a language presupposes a reference point from which the other levels are judged and described. If I take as my reference point, for instance, the relaxed conversational style with my family, my judgments on formal language use will differ considerably from that advanced by someone who takes the English of radio and television news as his/her reference point from which formal and informal language use is characterized. Native speakers of a language often disagree when they discuss attitudes towards language use. This is largely due to the unverbalized difference of the reference bases. It is in addition due to the fact that the description of a particular use of a word as 'formal', 'informal', etc. depends on the discourse situation and the relation between the discourse partners.

Quirk *et al.* in their grammar see the attitudinal variation of English as a scale:

> We recognize a gradient in attitude between FORMAL (relatively stiff, cold, polite, impersonal) on the one hand, and INFORMAL (relatively relaxed, warm, rude, friendly) on the other.[6]

Their scale has five terms: very formal—FORMAL—neutral—INFORMAL—very informal.[7] The important factor in this scale is the neutral level, represented by standard English, as the descriptive reference point. Let us now have a closer look at our three pedagogical dictionaries and consider what the reference basis is for their stylistic descriptions.

ALD characterizes the form of English described in the dictionary as

> . . . the English language as it is written and spoken today by educated British men and women.[8]

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[6] R. Quirk *et al.*, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

[7] R. Quirk *et al.*, *op. cit.*, p. 27.

[8] A. S. Hornby, *op. cit.*, p. xiii.

LDOCE claims that it gives a description

> of English as used throughout the world"[9] . . .
>
> Most of the words in this dictionary would be used, and understood, both in speaking and writing anywhere in the world. When the use of a word or phrase is limited in some way, this is shown by a short descriptive statement (LABEL).[10]

CULD, by contrast, does not tell us which form of English it describes. Perhaps, as a consequence of this, *CULD* marks many items as *informal* which are not labelled at all in the other two dictionaries.

The way in which descriptive stylistic statements are given is the same in all three dictionaries. The relevant meaning or sense is preceded by a label in italics. Such labels are for instance *formal*, *infml* for 'informal', *vulg.* for 'vulgar', etc. If a dictionary description is to be of any help to the user, all the stylistic labels used within the dictionary have to be explained in detail so that the user will know what they stand for. One might argue that such labels as *formal*, *informal*, etc. are self-explanatory. They are and they are not. They are not because they do not tell us anything about the position they have in the overall stylistic labelling system of a dictionary. A label like *informal*, for instance, will take on different values if it stands in a scale of three terms, e.g. *formal—neutral* (unmarked)—*informal*, or in one of six terms: *very formal—formal—neutral* (unmarked)—*informal—very informal— slang*.

For the three dictionaries under discussion the situation is as follows: The treatment in the *Advanced Learner's Dictionary* is seriously unsatisfactory. It gives a list of *stylistic values* which includes temporal labels as well as subject field labels. If we ignore these, the relevant attitudinal labels are, in alphabetical order:

colloquial (colloq)
derogatory (derog)
emotive (emot)
emphatic (emph)
euphemistic (euphem)
facetious (facet)
formal
humorous (hum)
ironical (ironic)
jocular (joc)
laudatory (laud)
pejorative (pej)
slang (sl)
vulgar (vulg)
△ taboo

Of these 15 labels one only is explained: the label *taboo*. *Taboo* words are described as follows:

> They are words used when the speaker wishes to swear, or be indecent, or be offensive. They are all words that are likely to cause embarrassment or anger if they are used in the wrong situation. The learner of English is strongly advised to avoid using them.[11]

If the author had defined the other labels, he would most likely have realized that some of his labels are tautologous. What is the difference between *derogatory* and *pejorative*, and between *facetious*, *humorous*, *ironical* and

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[9] P. Procter, ed., *op. cit.*, p. viii.

[10] P. Procter, ed., *op. cit.*, p. xxiv.

[11] A. S. Hornby, *op. cit.*, p. xxvii.

jocular? There are equally no explanations within the A to Z text of the dictionary. Someone interested in the label *vulgar*, for instance, would be left in a predicament. One sense of it reads 'ill mannered, in bad taste', the other 'in common use; generally prevalent'. In which sense is the label used? The lack of explicitness in *ALD*'s treatment of stylistic labels is perhaps 'house policy' since it is a characteristic feature of most of the dictionaries in the Oxford University Press family.

The Longman treatment in *LDOCE* is much more sophisticated. The labels are not only explained in detail, but are also grouped in a systematic way. The first group might be called *formality* labels. Apart from the *neutral* (unmarked) term there are four others: *formal—not formal—informal—slang*. The puzzling one in this group is the label *not formal*. It is defined as follows:

> Words that would seem unsuitable at this level of formality [for which the label *fml* is used] are marked *not fml*.[12]

It may not be clear to every user what the difference is between unmarked neutral words and words regarded as *not formal*. Such words are for instance *to back out* 'to fail to fulfil', *a bit (of)* in the sense of 'to some degree; rather' and the verb *to get*.

A second group of labels concerns the tone or attitude a speaker is likely to convey in the use of certain words. Into this group belong the labels *apprec* (appreciative), *derog* (derogatory), *humor* (humorous), *pomp* (pompous), *euph* (euphemistic). The *ALD* does not have a label *pomp* and it might therefore be worth quoting its *LDOCE* description:

> [words] that sound foolishly overimportant are marked *pomp* (= POMPOUS).[13]

Examples are *to lead a woman to the altar* for 'to marry', *blue jacket* for 'a sailor in the navy' and *to pen*^{4} for 'to write with a pen'.

The third group includes one single item, the label *taboo*. *Taboo* words are:

> Unpleasant words connected with sex or the bowels . . . These should be avoided in formal society, or when talking to strangers or children.[14]

They constitute at the same time the bottom level for the two previous scales.

A very interesting label is that of group four: *nonstandard*. It is a stylistic label that marks the degree of correctness of language use. It is described as follows:

> Words or phrases marked *nonstandard* are perhaps widely used, but are considered by teachers and examiners to be incorrect.[15]

Examples from the dictionary are: *ain't* as the 'shortened form of *am not, is not, are not, has not,* and *have not*', *averse* followed by the preposition *from* instead of *to*, and *biweekly* in the sense of 'appearing or happening twice a week'.

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[12] P. Procter, ed., *op. cit.*, p. xxiv.
[13] P. Procter, ed., *op. cit.*, p. xxiv.
[14] P. Procter, ed., *op. cit.*, p. xxiv.
[15] P. Procter, ed., *op. cit.*, p. xxv.

A feature that is quite common in dictionaries is that the A to Z text of the dictionary includes more labels than those described in the prefatory matter. In the *LDOCE*, for instance, we also find *not polite* as in *belt-up*, a slang word used in giving orders with the meaning 'to be quiet', and *not derogatory* as in the verb *boast*^{2}, in the meaning of 'to be lucky enough to own: *This village boasts 3 shops*.'

The number of attitudinal labels used in Chambers' *CULD* is smaller than in the *ALD* and *LDOCE*. They are all explained in the *Preface* to the dictionary. The distinctions made for the formality scale are: *formal—informal—slang—vulgar—offensive*. The *CULD* thus, like the *ALD*, but unlike the *LDOCE*, distinguishes two further levels below the *slang* level. The difference which was not made explicit in the *ALD* is as follows:

> (*vulg*): This is short for *vulgar* and means that the word (or particular meaning) labelled in this way is acceptable only in some situations and by certain sections of society. Many people find such words indecent or are offended by their use . . .[16]
>
> (*offensive*): This means that the word (or particular meaning) labelled in this way should not be used unless the user is intending to be very insulting, *e.g.* **nigger** (*offensive*) a Negro; **papist** (*offensive*) a Roman Catholic.[17]

A very original feature in the *CULD* is its grading of formality between synonymous lexical units. The practice is explained as follows:

> Some words which are not particularly formal but which have a less formal, more commonly used equivalent have been labelled (*more formal than*), *e.g.* **acquire** is labelled (*more formal than* **get**); **regret** is labelled (*more formal than* **be sorry**).
>
> Similarly some words have been labelled (*less formal than*), *e.g.* **phone** (*less formal than* **telephone**).[18]

For the foreign learner this explicit weighing of degrees of formality is most welcome. Unfortunately *CULD*'s treatment is rather one-directional and also inconsistent. If we are told that *acquire* is more formal than *get*, we obviously expect that the entry for *get* will tell us that *get* is less formal than *acquire*. In fact, *get* is not labelled in this way. Or if we are told that *phone* is less formal than *telephone*, we expect *telephone* to be described as more formal than *phone*. Yet the relevant entry reads 'telephone . . . (*often abbrev* **phone**).'

The stylistic labels that reflect the hearer's interpretation of a tone or attitude are: *derogatory, euphemistic, facetious* and *ironic*. We look in vain for such more positive labels as *appreciative* or *laudatory*.

A rather odd label is *loosely*. It is explained as

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[16] E. M. Kirkpatrick, ed., *op. cit.*, p. xiii.
[17] E. M. Kirkpatrick, ed., *op. cit.*, p. xii.
[18] E. M. Kirkpatrick, ed., *op. cit.*, p. xii.

> This means that the word (or particular meaning) labelled in this way is used in an inexact or loose way, *e.g.* **boat 1** a small vessel for travelling over water. **2** (*loosely*) a larger vessel for the same purpose . . .[19]

I cannot see how it might be helpful to the foreign student.

In order to indicate that language use depends on the pragmatic situation of discourse and the social relation between the discourse partners all three dictionaries often modify their labels by such elements as 'often', 'usually', etc. We also encounter 'very' as a modifier of *formal*. This means that there are two terms on the formality scale if our reference point is the unmarked neutral level. The side towards informality is more complex: it has either three terms (*LDOCE*: *informal—slang—taboo*) or four (*ALD* and *CULD*: *colloquial/informal—slang—vulgar—taboo/offensive*). On which of all the attitudinal labels should the foreign language teachers concentrate in their own study of the language and in their teaching? For obvious reasons on all those that might give offence: *vulgar, offensive, taboo*, as well as *derogatory*. In addition, EFL teachers should not encourage the use of *nonstandard* language. For an advanced student the exclusion of these attitudinal differences would not be enough. In many present-day languages, as for instance English and German, general language use is more and more shifting towards the informal style. This development reflects sociological changes. Yet informality is not always appropriate and the advanced foreign learner therefore also needs thorough instruction in formal language use or at any rate neutral usage that is 'not informal'. The device used in Chambers' *CULD* 'X is more/less formal than Y' could well be used in the classroom. I myself would recommend the teaching of another stylistic level. Our age is much given to criticising. We always know better than others. No wonder that the linguistic scale from *neutral* to *taboo* is more heavily loaded than that from *neutral* to *very formal*. Formality is polite and often reserved. It does not win us friends. It is praise and appreciation that work wonders. The *ALD* and the *LDOCE* have to be given great credit for having indicated the appreciative, laudatory linguistic level.

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[19] E. M. Kirkpatrick, ed., *op. cit.*, p. xii

CROSS-CULTURAL PROBLEMS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

R. J. Owens

The purpose of this workshop is to consider whether the culturally derived difficulties and confusions that arise in teaching English to speakers of other languages, particularly of Chinese, are sufficiently important to warrant an element in Teacher Education devoted to them. If they are, then our second purpose is to consider what sorts of content such an element might have, assuming them available. Should it, for example, be informational/anecdotal, or in the form of reading? Should audio-video material be produced? Should exercises be devised of a heuristic nature? Can ethnic and cultural resources linked to the target learners be found? What should be done about the problems which arise from different pedagogies? Polgar (1960) reports that the 'classroom voice' and personal projection of an American teacher so frightened her Indian students, who thought she was angry, that they sat mute and were considered by the teacher to be stupid and non-cooperative. One thinks of King Lear's culturally loaded (?) comment on Cordelia: 'Her voice was ever soft, gentle and low. An excellent thing in woman.' A common action in the English class to indicate the past tense is for the teacher to jerk a thumb over her shoulder towards her back. Nida reports that Indian speakers of Quechua in Peru and Bolivia speak of the future as 'behind oneself' and of the past as 'ahead', because there is a sense in which the speaker can 'see' the past so it must be ahead. On the other hand the future is hidden from us and can't be seen, hence it is behind (Nida 54:206).

Rote learning is often condemned in Western cultures. But simulations, role-play and group work, useful elsewhere, are not popular in many parts of the East. Again, Western teachers are recommended to put a question to the class in general and then to ask a particular student to answer. I remember two young Singaporean teachers in training who came to request, on behalf of the class, that I shouldn't name particular students when I asked questions, because it was embarrassing to have attention drawn to one in front of everyone else. I mention these things because, of course, our teaching methods are also culturally based and it is only too easy to make judgments using what has been called 'The self-reference criterion,' by which we tend to make an unconscious reference to our own culture as a sort of international norm.

The obverse of the self-reference criterion is what J. R. Gladstone calls cultural blind spots. In an interesting article (Gladstone 1969) draws an analogy between the language patterns and the behavioural patterns of our culture. When we learn our language we learn to attend to certain sounds and combinations and to ignore others which have no significance for us. Thus Westerners fail to bear certain sounds or tones in Chinese and vice versa. In the same way, says Gladstone, our cultural background has meaning and reward for sensitivity to certain behaviour patterns but not for those of other cultures. It is from this learned behaviour that ethnocentricity, the self-reference criterion, derives. Moreover, we tend to react sharply to our cultural blind spots when they are forced on our attention. To take some trivial examples. Westerners coming to the Orient find it difficult eat congee for breakfast; they feel revolted by overt nose-picking, and irritated by the failure of locals to take their turn at a bus-stop or lift. Orientals find the consumption of glasses of milk and fruit-juice at breakfast equally repellent, and the casual kisses given in greetings between the sexes, immodest.

These examples could be multiplied many times over and one has only to cite an instance of one of them for each of us to recall many others. They are overt, observable. Less observable, but more germane to our workshop is the failure to match cultural expectations which arises when a speaker of English (or Chinese,) employing good pronunciation and grammar, fails to communicate effectively. We should feel something had gone wrong somewhere if we showed a photograph of a wife or daughter to a friend and received the response 'How pretty. She looks just like anyone.' But in Japan to conform to type is an ideal, and so the comment, coming from a Japanese, is a compliment.

How do these different communication road-blocks arise? Obviously, they arise from the relation of the language to the culture as a whole. Our language is not simply an aspect of our culture. It is that part of our culture though which our perceptions of our world are encoded and handed down. The growing child doesn't only learn the syntactic structures of his own language. He learns also the semantic interelationship between the various value systems (social, religious and so on) and the language. He acquires a system of meanings. As Michael Halliday says, learning a language is learning how to mean. He learns, that is to say, a vast amount of uncritically accepted knowledge about how people behave, how society works, what is undeniably true and what is fiction, what is normal and natural and what is alien and strange. As a result of all this the child can predict how things in his small world will turn out. There is a kind of stability carried through the cultural system and into the language.

Now, to the extent that the meaning/value systems in the mother tongue and a desired target language are similar, so also will be their metalinguistic systems. The codification of experience into lexis will be related (the same or cognate words for the same things) the same grammatical categories (tense, number, gender etc.) and the same behavioural patterns occur. The target language will be easy to learn. If, however, these systems are remote from one another—as the case between English and most oriental languages—then the learner, struggling with an unfamiliar vocabulary and grammar, will try to superimpose his own cultural semantic system onto the new language and communicative confusion will result.

I have cited the example of the Japanese response to a snapshot. Let me give another, from Thailand. In Thailand there are a number of western products whose trade names are internationally known, for example Ovaltine. I was practising English pronunciation with a group of trainee teachers and had made a list of some of these products, as practice material. They are so long-established in Thailand however, that the local pronunciation has become standardised. To 'correct' these spoken forms was a cultural error. The trainees, who like all oriental people respect teachers and parents, felt that I was belittling the way these respected persons spoke. At the same time they would lose face if they were discourteous to a native speaker. It was a communication road-block on the level of pronunication and I withdrew as soon as I grasped the issue involved.

Another difficulty arises when a learner is asked to speak about a particular topic featured in a text book, or in a learning exercise is asked to imagine himself in a particular situation. What is being required of the student in such cases is to discard meanings which penetrate such situations and topics in the first language and to try, prematurely perhaps, to operate through new ones. This point may emerge more clearly if I quote a taped exchange between two young, bilingual, London schoolgirls, and Jane Millar. The passage comes from Jane Millar's book (Millar 1983) and illustrates just how much language is a part of one's identity.

Fatima: Like now, if I want to explain something to my parents and say—because my parents are very strict—if I say I want to go out somewhere and he [her father] said 'out where?' I wouldn't dare to say it in Arabic. Because if you say it in Arabic it sounds such a . . . sort of a crime, something you're doing bad . . .

Najat: It sounds rude . . . if you explain something in English, like love or something, like this, which is all right in English and you try to translate it into Arabic it sounds extremely awful . . . very rude.

J. M.: Is it something to do with the culture which is part of the language?

Fatima: It is certainly to do with the culture.

Najat: With culture, yes. They're embarrassed . . . an emotional feeling.

This passage suggests that bilinguals feel that one of their languages is better suited to some purposes than the other. And it brings to mind John Lyons' remark that entry is made into the semantic structure of another language in an area of cultural overlap.

Of course, communication is as much a matter of paralinguistic features as of more directly linguistic ones. A handshake on greeting or a kiss on the cheek is a common cultural feature of several Western countries which have separate languages. It is quite possible, however, to share the language of the country one lives in but not to have full cultural overlap. Under the heading 'Culture differences can lead to misunderstandings' the September 1983 edition of BBC English carried this paragraph:

> In many Asian countries it is considered insulting to look into someone's eyes while speaking to them. A European would think side-long glances a sign of one not to be trusted. The Royal College of General Practitioners in London has recognized this problem and is organizing a study day for doctors in Britain's multiracial cities. Misunderstanding between doctor

and patient may arise either because the doctor was trained overseas but is dealing with English patients or because the doctor was trained in Britain but has many immigrants on his list of patients.

I should like to make a comment, at this point, on the cultural aspect of English learned as a second language and as a foreign language. In places such as Hong Kong, where a good deal of commerce, journalism, entertainment takes place in English, the degree of cultural overlap will be greater than in Vietnam or Laos where English is totally a foreign language. It is interesting to examine the illustrations in an elementary (first four years) textbook, such as that by Methold and Tadman, with one produced in Europe, say that by Fowler et al. The former is designed for use in Hong Kong and the latter for use in language schools in Britain and Europe. The grammar, vocabulary and functions overlap to a considerable extent but one has only to look at the illustrations to see that the language will be used and overlaid by totally different cultural contexts. In the European one black boys dream of playing international cricket, a character has his own furnished room, sufficiently ample for a Hong Kong family, a father prepares breakfast at home for his son. The Hong Kong text has similar culture and area—specific illustrations.

What is going on here, perhaps, is more than just an author's creditable desire to relate the selected, but essentially the same, language forms and lexis to his students' background. I think it is possible that these forms are the elementary basis from which will grow the slightly deviant form of English through which the Hong Kong user will express his own cultural patterns in English, in so far as he chooses or is required to use English for their expression at all. This development has gone a lot further in India and Singapore than here. There are, as we know 'Englishes' and not just 'English' as Kachru (1980) has shown.

I hope that the foregoing has been sufficient to suggest that E. L. Teacher Education should include an element of warning about ethocentricity, (or L1 deculturization and L2 acculturation, or whatever name one may suggest) with the purpose of widening the teachers' range of sensibility to cultural factors in the teaching/learning process. The content of such an element should be aimed at increasing the teachers awareness—of bringing into vision his cultural blind spots. It would certainly help if he could have some reports from Chinese sources on the effect the English and English language have on them. I believe it would be useful, too, if bi-cultural teaching methods could be employed.

Many of the unconscious assumptions and cultural blind-spots which create road-blocks derive from the semantic cores of the language involved. Tham Seong Chee (1978) has written very perceptively on this. One way of bringing these to consciousness is to evolve exercises based on the contrast between the teachers' and learners' ideas on such value-loaded terms as honesty, family duty (does it include nepotism?) goals, collaboration versus competition; authority; gratuities and bribery; giving presents; beating down a listed price; attitudes to animals; being early, on time, late; standing up for one's views, arguing, giving in; absolute cultural values e.g. material versus non-material; woman's work; woman's place in society; ritual and religious behaviour.

Trevedi (1978) has an article in which he reports telling Western students a Gujurati story featuring a maidservant and a young man hunting a rat in an Indian ashram. The key points, being cultural blind-spots to his listeners, were totally missed. But a cow in Gujurati is semantically different from a cow in English or Chinese. It is never eaten or killed, as in Europe. A fish is killed first and then filleted in Europe, but is filleted alive in Hong Kong. In both cultures shell fish are boiled alive. Here we have total overlaps, some overlap and no overlap.

Another exercise might be to think of a situation involving various people and to enquire what the reaction would be across cultures, e.g. the Australian teenagers who broke into a zoo and tortured the animals before killing them. Or children being spanked in school for disrespect or contrevening rules.

Another might be to consider the collocations of various key words. As Gladstone points out, time is a commodity in the West. We spend it, save it, gain it etc. Our verb system reflects our concern with it. If we put down words such as salt, moon, medicine, question, thought, virtue, manners, sin (an eclectic sample) and ask a teacher to write as many words as come quickly to his mind as a constellation of associations, we might elicit cultural attitudes which could be compared and contrasted with the answers of a Chinese teacher.

A further set of exercises might involve metaphors in the two languages, relating again to basic cultural elements such as food e.g. It was 'meat and drink to him'; 'he wants jam on it'; 'mother's milk'; 'neither fish, fowl nor good red herring'; or political organization. The capitalist stock advances, retreats, its indices are attacked, and companies defend themselves from being taken over after predators have reconnoitred. Socialist terms are far less military and we speak of cooperatives, nationalised industry, negotiations. However, leaders of negotiating teams sometimes speak of meeting eyeball to eyeball, one to one, face to face and in other terms suggestive of single combat and hand to hand. A great many metaphors in English relate to the sea and seafaring. Peter Strevens is making a collection of them and I think the total is already somewhere near a thousand.

On the Chinese side the importance of colours (particularly red) of luck; of duties towards the dead; of lunar periods; of the relationship between food and health; of the prepotency of masculine ideas and values (the dragon) in all social affairs; the tendency to organize behaviour according to aphorism and advice from the respected persons in one's environment; of working hard as a simple equation with working well—these, as reflected in language forms, are as informative as are the literal translations of Chinese grammatical forms into English.

I have prepared some sheets incorporating these suggestions for workshop members to try out. I hope that we can produce others, perhaps more closely related to teaching practices.

221

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CROSS CULTURAL PROBLEMS: EXERCISES

EXERCISE 1

Some months ago 3 teenaged boys broke into an Australian zoo and after torturing and mutilating many animals, killed them. What punishment (if any) do you think they should receive?

Caning Fining Community Service Gaol

Attempt an estimate of the amount of strokes, fine etc.

A small child (10 years) is punished at school by being hit on the palms of the hands with a ruler. What do you think (*a*) would be (or (*b*) ought to be) the reaction of the teacher, the child, the parents, the police?

A passenger on the H.K.-Macau jetfoil, opposite to you, hurries off the boat leaving a bottle of wine and a book. (An illustrated tourist guide to Hong Kong) What action would you take?

You have been invited to a meal of Mongolian food (which you dislike) at a good restaurant by some Western friends. A Chinese friend invites you subsequently to a dinner of Chinese food at the Mandarin hotel. Which invitation would you accept?

EXERCISE 2

Try to think of half a dozen idioms or metaphors deriving from

a.	Simple country activities	(e.g. put the cart before the horse; dull as ditch water)
b.	Seafaring	(e.g. making heavy weather; to come round to something)
c.	drunkenness	(Connected with b often, why?) (e.g. one over the eight)
d.	food	(e.g. meat and drink to him; want jam on it)
e.	production/wealth (capitalist)	(e.g. stocks advanced, retreated)
f.	production/wealth (socialist)	(e.g. cooperative)
g.	confrontation	(e.g. eyeball to eyeball)
h.	using 'time'	(Save, waste etc)

EXERCISE 3

For each word in the centre of the following clusters add quickly words you would associate with the idea expressed by the central word.

police

honesty

thought

curiosity

money

medicine

home

government

EXERCISE 4

Do you agree or disagree in general with the following statements.

a. When I hear someone speaking a foreign language they are really speaking English but with different sounds, grammar and words.

Agree

Disagree

b. Some languages have less grammar than others.

Agree

Disagree

c. Bribery is bribery in any language.

Agree

Disagree

d. You can be just as polite or rude in English as in any other language.

Agree

Disagree

e. It is impossible to translate some ideas from one language into another.

Agree

Disagree

f. A word should be discussed as a psychological entity, (i.e. as sign and referent) rather than as a social entity.

Agree

Disagree

FUTURE ISSUES OF ILEJ

Volume 3 of ILEJ will be published in early 1987. Contributions will be welcomed. They should be sent to the editors before 30 November 1986 at the following address:

The Editors (English/Chinese): ILEJ,
Institute of Language in Education,
Park-In Commercial Centre 21/F.,
56 Dundas Street,
Kowloon,
HONG KONG

Articles should be approximately 4 000 words in length, and typed on A4 with double-spacing. An English style-sheet will be sent on request. A brief abstract in the same language as the article should be included. Book reviews will also be welcome. Further information about the ILEJ may be obtained from Ms Madeleine Lau, Tel: 3-319552.

徵稿

《語文教育學院學報》第三期將於一九八七年初出版，歡迎來稿。來稿如用中文撰寫，請用原稿紙單面橫寫，字數宜在四千以內。每篇文章請附內容提要，如另附英譯者更佳。稿件請於一九八六年十一月前寄交下址：

香港九龍
登打士街五十六號
柏裕商業中心二十一樓
香港教育署語文教育學院
語文教育學院學報編輯收

SECOND ILE INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR—15, 16 and 17 DECEMBER 1986

The Institute of Language in Education will hold its Second International Seminar from 15 to 17 December 1986 at the Shangri-la Hotel, Kowloon, Hong Kong.

Theme

The theme of the Seminar is *Re-exploring CELT* (Continuing Education for Language Teachers).

CELT is defined as a professional development activity that a teacher undertakes singly or with other teachers after pre-service training and after having begun to teach.

Seminar Objectives

The seminar will provide opportunities for teacher trainers, language teachers and researchers to:

— examine and redefine the purposes of CELT;
— enhance their understanding, knowledge and capabilities by exchanging ideas and experiences on CELT;
— identify problems in CELT and consider ways of solving or alleviating such problems;
— explore the possibilities of implementing different models and approaches in different social settings;
— examine the roles and responsibilities of organisations and institutions involved in CELT.

Further information about the Seminar may be obtained from the Director, Institute of Language in Education, 21/F, 56 Dundas Street, Kowloon, Hong Kong.

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第三期

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FOREWORD

This third issue of the ILEJ contains articles on language acquisition (Graham Bowtell, Therese Leung, and Michael Webster); on the views of examiners and teachers of Hong Kong's Use of English Examination (Gillian B. Workman); on corporal punishment (Yu Nai-Wing); and on the role and responsibilities of language teachers (Desmond Allison, Zhang Shou-Kang, Tin Sia-Lam, and Cheah Chak-Mun). There are also two articles relating to the teaching and learning of Putonghua (Cheung Yat-Shing and Miao Chin-An).

前言

本期刊載的文章，內容包括語文能力的掌握方法(柏維爾、梁兆珩、魏士德)；香港主理考試的人員及教師對運用英語科考試的意見(白芝蓮)；從古文字看傳統教育對待體罰的問題(余迺永)；語文教師的職責和所扮演的角色(艾理崇、張壽康、田小琳、謝澤文)。此外，還有兩篇文章討論關於普通話的教與學問題(張日昇、繆錦安)。

CONTENTS 目錄

Desmond ALLISON	Distinguishing "Language" and "Content" in English-Medium Education	7
Graham BOWTELL	Ethnocentrism: A Barrier to Second Language Acquisition and Cross-Cultural Communication?	16
謝澤文	華文課程的修訂與教師的在職訓練	27
張日昇	普通話學習動機與實際使用的調查研究	35
Therese LEUNG	Experimental Teaching: the Nucleus of a Refresher Programme	44
繆錦安	普通話教學的幾項原則	50
田小琳	中文教師語言教學能力的再提高	55
Michael A. WEBSTER, Alan WARD & Kenneth CRAIG	Language Errors due to First Language Interference (Cantonese) produced by Hong Kong Students of English	63
Gillian B. WORKMAN	Cohesion or Conflict? An analysis of the Views of Examiners and Teachers of Hong Kong's Use of English Examination, with the Aim of Contributing towards Improvements in the Learning Outcomes of Hong Kong Students from their Form Six and Seven English Course	82
余迺永	從古文字看傳統教育對待體罰的問題	103
張壽康	中國語文教師延續教育的必然性和必要性	105

DISTINGUISHING "LANGUAGE" AND "CONTENT" IN ENGLISH-MEDIUM EDUCATION

DESMOND ALLISON

In this article, I examine two views of the role and responsibility of the (English) language teacher, and indicate some of the difficulties that arise in seeking to distinguish questions of "language" from matters of "content", especially when a language is being used as medium of instruction. In treating these issues, I shall attempt to suggest lines of inquiry rather than to prescribe solutions. The article nonetheless refers to some classroom observations and research findings, and it offers some tentative implications for English teaching in English-medium secondary schools.

The role of the language teacher

In this paper, we shall consider how far the role of the language teacher should extend into questions of "language use", with special reference to the teaching of other subjects. More exactly, we shall be concerned with the role of "language teaching", whether this is undertaken by language teachers, subject teachers, or in a combined approach by both language and subject teachers.

The actual functions of language teachers, and of other subject teachers, are governed by many factors. These include training, experience, type of class taught, workload, the expectations of pupils, parents, principals and peers, and the interests and personality of an individual teacher. In principle, nonetheless, any language teacher operates upon certain assumptions or ideas about what language teaching sets out to achieve, and about where a language teacher's responsibility should lie (c.f. Stern 1983: 23–24). It can be useful to make possible assumptions explicit, to examine their rationale and to compare them with other viewpoints.

Two viewpoints

Let us now examine two views of the relationship that may hold between "language" and "content", or "subject-matter", in situations where (English as) a second language is used as a medium of instruction. The restriction to English reflects the present writer's experience: comments may well be applicable to other languages when used as medium of instruction. Moreover, the focus upon use of a second language does not exclude the possibility that similar problems will arise in first-language educational contexts.

For convenience, I shall use the terms "minimal" and "maximal" to designate two contrasting views of the relation between language and content in education, and consequently of the role of the language teacher.

1. A "minimal" view of the language teacher's role

In discussing the importance of questioning as a skill for teachers, Cripwell and Geddes (1982) offer the following remarks:

> "In subjects other than foreign languages, the teacher and his or her pupils are normally all native speakers of the language in question. For them the language is taken for granted and it is the content of the lesson that is important .... But for foreign language learners it is the language itself that is at issue. If they and the teacher are able to communicate through middle or higher order questions and appropriate answers in the foreign language, there should be no need for further lessons in that language".
>
> (Cripwell and Geddes 1982:232)

We may remark that Cripwell and Geddes here pay no attention to the common situation in which a non-native language serves as a medium of instruction, whether for certain individuals in a multi-lingual classroom or for both teacher and learners in a second-language context. The authors do not comment on the possible roles of language lessons in a first-language situation. Their view of the (foreign) language teacher's role can be called "minimal", as they suggest that language learners who are able to ask suitable questions and understand the answers do not require further language teaching. An implication is that such learners will be adequately equipped to negotiate meanings directly with other users of the language; such users might in some circumstances include teachers of other school subjects. The focus of such negotiation, and of subject teaching in particular, would then be upon "content", with language being "taken for granted".

Comments on the "minimal" view

The position adopted by Cripwell and Geddes is by no means unattractive. On short language courses for prospective students, for example, a focus on asking questions and understanding answers could equip learners with vital skills for future situations. The target linguistic command that is implied by such a course objective is already considerable, so that what I am calling the "minimal" role of language teaching is not a trivial or negligible one. Where teaching and learning time are limited, attention to asking questions and understanding answers in a language will often merit high priority.

There are, however, difficulties with the view that, in principle, no further language teaching will be required after these objectives have been attained:

(1) Continuing language support classes can often help learners by moving into the areas of "communication skills" and "study skills". These include, but are obviously not confined to, the abilities needed to ask questions and interpret answers. While the value of such teaching needs to be critically assessed, one may observe that such skills are widely taught to native speakers. This suggests that

many educators find that one cannot simply "take the language for granted" or assume that adequate linguistic proficiency will ensure effective communication in study (or other) contexts (1).

(2) Learners may still encounter specifically linguistic problems. However, such problems may not always be recognised, either by the learners or by their subject teachers. In such cases, the required renegotiation of meanings will often not take place, so that misunderstandings persist and may impede further learning.

Example of a persistent language problem

An illustration of a language problem arising in academic work in another subject may be helpful at this stage. The example, which comes from the writer's teaching experience, is taken from work on a preparatory science course for selected form five school leavers entering the University of Botswana (2).

Students had been asked by their chemistry lecturers to write a summary of a school textbook passage on atomic structure (from a chapter by Thyne and Woolcock, 1978). English teaching staff agreed to mark and comment on the summaries.

Several students introduced a paragraph on electrons as follows:

(*a*) "An atom consists of electrons".

or (*b*) "An atom consist of electrons".

One error in (*b*), omission of the morpheme for third person singular, is clearly linguistic, and students generally recognised this as a concern of the English teacher.

The error also found in sentence (*a*), however, is of more interest in the present connection. Sentence (*a*) is grammatically acceptable, but it contains an apparent "content" error, since an atom does not in fact consist solely of electrons (3). Many students maintained that the error in (*a*) was one of content and not of language.

However, some of the students who had written sentence (*a*) or sentence (*b*) later wrote sentences such as:

(*c*) An atom also consists of protons and neutrons.

In such cases, the textual evidence showed that the apparent "content" error in (*a*) and (*b*) was in fact an error of language. The learners were aware of the names of the principal sub-atomic particles. They had, however, failed to appreciate that the verb "consists of" should be followed by an indication, in the verb phrase, of all the "constituents". The lexical item CONSIST OF differs in this regard from other related items, such as INCLUDE (4).

Such linguistic misunderstandings are likely to persist even among learners with an otherwise good command of English. Problems of this nature suggest the need for continuing language teaching. In a context of English-medium schooling, there appears to be scope for increased co-operation between English teachers and subject teachers, so that difficulties in the use of English as medium of instruction can be better recognised and addressed in teaching (c.f. Allison 1986).

2. A "maximal" view of the language teacher's role

Recent years have seen much emphasis, in language teaching circles, upon the importance of teaching learners not only the forms of a language, but also how the language is put to use. (An increased awareness of language functions is prominent in the latest Hong Kong syllabus for primary and secondary schools). A related point has been that language in use, whether in spoken interaction, spoken monologue or written text, goes beyond the boundaries of single sentences. The negotiation of meanings between language users, and the linguistic signals that may influence interpretation, have been studied under the heading of "discourse analysis". These developments have had considerable influence on the views of language teaching and learning that are expressed, or implied, in contemporary books, articles, syllabuses and materials in language teaching.

An emphasis upon language use is not entirely incompatible with the "minimal" view of the language teacher's role that we saw earlier (5). Nevertheless, a concern for the many different uses of language will clearly tend to expand our conception of the role and responsibilities of language teaching. A "maximal" view of the language teacher's task would be that all the relevant uses of a target language will need to be taught (6).

When a second language also serves, or will serve at a later educational stage, as medium of instruction, relevant uses of that language will include communication that takes place in other "subject" classes and assignments. Even when the target language is a foreign language (and not a medium of schooling), the case for using other subject materials as the basis for language courses in schools has been strongly argued by Widdowson (1978: 15–18, 53–54). According to Widdowson, such materials could help learners to draw upon their experience of language use in the mother tongue when attempting to communicate in the foreign language. Although the learners' own experience of language use is acknowledged, the argument persists that learners in a school situation will be unlikely to put target language forms to use unless they have guidance in doing so. Learning another language, in this view, requires that one should obtain an adequate command both of linguistic forms and of language use, for which suitable language teaching will be helpful.

Comments on the "maximal" view

Calls for greater recognition of the complexities of language learning and use, and for an increased role for language teaching, have had a mixed reception in the language teaching profession. Such ideas may have been widely welcomed in the public domain of conferences and papers, but the new demands they imply can prove unsettling to practising teachers. It is therefore important to ensure that any such demands offer a legitimate goal for professional development, and that they are not simply a product of uncritical delight in new ideas (7).

Two dangers of the "maximal" view of the language teacher's role, as I have outlined it here, are that:

(1) language teachers might seek (or might feel obliged) to advance too far into the concerns of subject teachers, in the name of an interest in language use;

(2) teachers might devote time and effort to teaching aspects of language use that do not, in fact, constitute problems for learners.

There is an increasing recognition, among language teaching professionals, that we need evidence to show whether or not particular uses of language, or features of discourse organisation, cause difficulties for learners and thus require teaching. (For references, see Allison, forthcoming).

It therefore appears important that English language teachers should try to determine what problems of language use are actually experienced by learners in other subjects in an English-medium situation. We should assume neither that language use other than asking questions and understanding replies can take care of itself (the "minimal" view in this paper), nor that all uses of language will need to be identified and taught (the "maximal" view). Instead, we need to find out what the language problems of learners in particular English-medium situations really are, and to work out with subject teachers effective ways of tackling identified problems.

Example of a problem involving language use

The broad issue of whether learners experience genuine problems with language use should therefore give rise to more specific questions that can be directly explored. Answers are likely to differ from one language function or from one discourse relation to another, with some uses of language proving obvious while others cause problems. For the same use of language, answers are also likely to vary between problems of comprehension and those of language production.

I propose now to exemplify a problem of language comprehension, involving language use in written discourse rather than command of syntactic or lexical forms, that appeared in an academic subject area. (Fuller discussion appears in Allison, forthcoming). The example is drawn from personal observation and research at the University of Botswana (from 1982 to 1985). It may serve to illustrate how problems of language use in other subjects can differ from those arising in self-contained language classes.

The problem was the widespread failure of learners to recognise certain contrasts in written texts, despite the presence of clear linguistic signals. Difficulties of this nature appeared frequently in language production when the learners wrote summaries of the "atomic structure" passage that we briefly considered earlier in this paper.

The passage in question includes a number of contrasts between Dalton's ideas about atoms (formulated in the early nineteenth century) and our contemporary understanding of atomic structure. Dalton imagined atoms as minute, solid and indivisible particles, with all atoms of a given element being identical. Later discoveries, however, showed that atoms consist mostly of empty space (i.e. are not solid); that they include electrons, protons and neutrons as constituent particles (i.e. are not indivisible; c.f. note 3 for greater precision); that atoms of the same element may differ in mass (i.e. not all are identical). Thus, there appears to be a clear contrast between Dalton's earlier ideas and our subsequent understanding of atomic structure.

Such contrasts are quite common in academic writing, including school texts (8). It appears, however, that readers (at least in a second language) often fail to identify these contrasts. (The problem, for learners in Botswana, was not confined to writing tasks, but was also found in responses to "True–Not Known–False" reading test items). A common response was to take reported ideas, such as Dalton's views of the atom, as constituting "facts" (e.g. "Atoms are minute, solid particles"; "Atoms are indivisible"). This occurred despite clear textual signals that such statements were only what Dalton believed to be the case, and that these ideas later "had to be abandoned". In the written summaries, learners produced statements that were mutually incompatible (e.g. that all atoms of a given element are identical, yet that atoms of the same element can differ in mass).

Among the various possible explanations for such performance, we will note four:

(i) a tendency for learners to "grab facts" when reading and ignore other features of discourse. (This was mentioned by students in informal feedback reports);

(ii) a tendency to infer that what someone says is true (c.f. Spiro, 1980:254). Such a strategy will sometimes be appropriate, but can clearly cause problems if it is over-generalised;

(iii) a tendency to ignore textual information that is not consistent with the reader's own understanding of subject-matter;

(iv) lack of sensitivity to lexical signals. Thus, "non-factive" words (such as "believed", "considered", "suggested" or "maintained") might not be clearly differentiated from "factive" items (such as "proved", "showed", "established" or "demonstrated"). This could affect nouns (c.f. "idea" and "fact") as well as verbs.

We may observe that "comprehension" exercises and tests in the language class might not focus on all these possibilities. In particular, previous understanding of subject-matter (point iii) is often kept to a minimum, in order to ensure that learners focus on what they can discover from a text, rather than what they may already know. Such exercises thus differ from most genuine reading tasks. (This is not of course true of all comprehension exercises, but of many).

A series of research studies was carried out at the University of Botswana, by the present writer, in order to answer two questions:

(1) were the problems explicable as lexical difficulties or were they more widespread than one would expect on the basis of learners' lexical knowledge?

(2) were problems influenced by textual features, or were they the same under different textual conditions? (The conditions examined were explicitness of contrast signalling; sequence of information; choice between repetition or synonymous variation when signalling factivity or non-factivity).

A brief summary of the research findings is that:

—problems in identifying this kind of contrast in written discourse were more widespread than learners' (few) difficulties in responding correctly to items that tested knowledge of lexis;

—of the textual conditions examined, one (only) had a significant effect on readers' responses to test items. Problems were significantly fewer when the contrasts were made explicit in the texts (9).

The problem, therefore, was indeed one that arose during response to discourse. It seems likely that previous understanding of subject matter (including erroneous or oversimplified beliefs) heavily influenced the learners' ability to perceive contrast relations. However, responses were affected by the presence of explicit linguistic signals of contrast.

Professor J. Mc. H. Sinclair (Birmingham University) has commented on a tendency he had observed for Chinese students in an English-medium context to avoid, in written work, any overt signalling to show that juxtaposed points of view were in contrast rather than in continuity. The reasons for this phenomenon are likely to be complex (and may include a reluctance to make explicit what might be left to inference); however, when readers or writers are also dealing with new "subject" material, there would appear to be a need for clear signalling of contrast relations, since these will often not prove to be obvious.

Suggested Implications for English Teaching

1. More research is needed in order to determine which uses of English as medium of instruction will give rise to problems for learners. Such research, which includes careful observation of class work by teachers, can help to establish truly relevant objectives and priorities for English language teaching. (Similar arguments will presumably apply to the teaching of any language, where it serves as medium of instruction).
2. There is room for increased liaison between English teachers and teachers of other subjects, in order to discover more about the use of English in other classes (including reading texts and types of written assignment) as well as in public examinations. This can assist teachers both in identifying problems (point 1) and possibly in the joint setting and marking of suitable activities, with subject teacher and language teacher each contributing relevant expertise.
3. There are many constraints in schools (including available time and existing perceptions of roles) that can make it difficult for language

teachers and subject teachers to work together. Attention to these issues could therefore be of value during teacher education courses, perhaps particularly on in-service courses. The language needs of pupils in English-medium secondary schools might also be a possible focus for individual research projects during such courses.

Notes

(1) For relations between communication skills courses for native speakers and second/foreign language teaching, see Williams, Swales and Kirkman (eds.) 1984.

(2) Botswana (formerly known as Bechuanaland) is a country in southern Africa. The University of Botswana offers four-year degree programmes (five years for law). On entering the university, most students have completed twelve years' schooling.

(3) Any atom contains at least one proton, and has the same number of electrons; most atoms also contain neutrons (uncharged particles). There are other sub-atomic particles, but these are not usually mentioned in introductory texts.

(4) This example is likely to be typical, as Flood and West (1953) have indicated that the lexeme CONSIST OF often gives rise to persistent problems.

(5) Cripwell and Geddes (loc. cit.) are already concerned with the use of language for asking and answering questions, as opposed to a purely formal objective such as mastery of interrogative syntactic patterns.

(6) The current primary and secondary syllabuses for Hong Kong observes generally that:

> "of recent years, language teaching specialists have become increasingly convinced that the ability to use the target language successfully . . . . has to be taught" (1981:21; 1983:14).

One may note that this belief applies both to receptive and to productive use of language.

(7) It is clearly not the intention of prominent authorities (such as Widdowson, Wilkins or Brumfit) to create new dogma, but to stimulate independent professional inquiry among those concerned with language teaching.

(8) Contrasts between the reported views of other writers and the viewpoint that prevails in a discourse have been termed "Hypothetical-Real" contrasts by E. O. Winter (see Hoey 1983:128–129). Instances found in first-year science texts at the University of Botswana included alternative theories of heat ("caloric" and "energy"), and the contrast between pre-evolutionary and evolutionary theories of biological species. The "atomic structure" example comes from a school textbook.

(9) Explicit signals showed either that the earlier ideas were "rejected", "abandoned" or otherwise refuted, or simply that later theories "contrasted with" or were "opposed to" the earlier position.

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ETHNOCENTRISM: A BARRIER TO SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION?

GRAHAM BOWTELL

The totality of discourse is the sum of many more parts than just the choice of words and structures employed, no matter how appropriate they may be to the circumstances. Lexis and syntax in themselves fall far short of representing the body of linguistic knowledge required for effective communication, despite the assumption implicit in many a text-book that a knowledge of vocabulary and grammar is more or less sufficient to generate appropriate discourse. Real language is not a sterile world of lexical items and syntactic structures, and the monumental failure of much language learning is predicated on this false assumption. We must also recognise that what is *unsaid*, what is *implied* and what is to be *inferred* are major elements in real-world communication. "It's not what you said but how you said it!" The impact of an utterance on a listener is clearly more than just the surface forms might lead us to believe.

Given such over-riding factors in authentic discourse, we should now be looking to other, perhaps more nebulous, elements of language to determine why miscommunication occurs. In a timely and apposite article touching on some of the critical misunderstandings that can arise in international negotiations, Verner Bickley has again drawn our attention to the need for further investigation into the causes of communication breakdowns, and the necessity to isolate some of the factors contributing to negative encounters between individuals. (1) He refers to "a classic dilemma—the problem of maintaining good nation-to-nation relations based on reciprocity and equality when different sets of national and regional interests have to be reconciled."

It is in the breakdown of such high-level international (and intercultural) negotiations that we can see the extent of the difficulty, for it is at this level that our cultural chauvinism, our ethnocentrism, is at its most intransigent. In international agreements, the least acceptable course appears to be to compromise the more deeply held values of the various parties. What has this to do with language teaching and learning? The words and structures of English, for example, have been studied in depth, and methods for teaching and learning them have been reasonably successful, but what of those areas where real cultural variations occur?

A missing "-s" on an English plural form would rarely cause the misunderstandings that can arise when, for example, a falling intonation is produced where a rising tone is expected, or where a staccato delivery replaces the usual rhythms of standard English speech, or where politeness strategies vary from the native-speaker norms. Even the very topic, the content of the message, can pose real problems for successful interethnic communication. There is a wide range of linguistic skills which, while crucial in interactions, are hardly ever taught with any degree of consciousness or sensitivity and are rarely learned in the formal language education environment.

A revealing study undertaken by Jean Brick in Australia (2) looked at the question of topic selection in initial informal encounters between strangers. The study contrasts Australian and Vietnamese values and attitudes when first meeting someone new, and demonstrated that a considerable communicative gulf exists from the outset between Australian and Vietnamese participants in casual conversation.

> "Australian cultural assumptions contrast strongly with Vietnamese ones. Rather than stressing high social distance and high power differentials, Australian society stresses solidarity and low power .... Rather than silence, talkativity is valued as it is only through communication that solidarity and the mutual ratification of wants, desires and interests can be negotiated."

Brick found that all her Vietnamese informants felt that an initial silence was an appropriate first response on meeting a stranger, and that conversation would be short and reserved. Australians, by contrast, felt that "ignoring" a stranger was rude and silence, failure to ask questions and restricted responses were signs of hostility or disinterest. In terms of topic selection, Australians were strongly oriented toward affective considerations. The Vietnamese were concerned with the establishment of social and power differentials and this was reflected in the choice of topic in first meetings. Their initial concern is to establish common links through family or friends, thereby determining the societal membership of both participants. Given these concerns, first meetings are inherently face-threatening as social identity must be established, while silence and reticence can serve to preserve independence. This strategy is particularly evident among Vietnamese women who express great reluctance to initiate conversation with a stranger.

It is not only in the interests of enhanced social contact that interethnic communication be successful. Such deeply-held and conflicting values between a minority group and the dominant culture of the so-called "gatekeepers" (employers, government officials, landlords, bank managers, etc) are highly likely to result in misunderstandings, mutual antagonism and discrimination. If effective encounters between these parties are genuinely sought, the role of the teacher in identifying potential difficulties and raising the learners' awareness of areas of conflicting values must not be undervalued. This task requires not only cultural sensitivity but also real data.

We all seek to some degree the comfort and familiarity to be found among those who share our own values and our own deep understandings of what constitutes cultural propriety, of what is the right way to behave and to speak in varying situations. Another language, and all that its use entails, can be a major threat to these notions of cultural correctness. This does not of course mean the words and grammar of another language, as it is these aspects of language that the student will have neither intellectual nor emotional qualms about learning.

A Challenge to Personal Schemata

Students of English whose social or professional development is to a large extent dependent on their ability to function effectively in this language are generally highly motivated to learn. I would suggest, however, that a commitment to learn another language must be made at two quite different psychological levels if the endeavour is to be at all successful. The primary level of commitment comes with the *intellectual* decision to master the language—the syntax, vocabulary and phonology—insofar as it suits the needs of the learner.

Language is a highly emotive phenomenon so closely tied to one's cultural being that what we say and how we speak reveal a great deal about our self-image. Through language we project our worldview, our values, our beliefs. It could be that the intellectual decision to learn another language for cross-cultural communication may not be matched by a deeper *emotional* commitment to learning how to *relate* in that language across cultural lines.

In recognition of these problems, attention is beginning to turn to a number of other aspects of language: politeness strategies, elements of voice quality like pitch, rhythm, stress and intonation, timing, turn-taking, back-channeling, explicitness and implicitness of information, appropriacy of openings and closings, repairs. The work of John Gumperz and his associates might be cited as examples of this new direction in linguistic research. To this list we might add what could be described as "discoursal democracy" in casual conversation; i.e., the right to initiate new directions in a dialogue, to claim a fair share of talking time, to both ask and answer questions, to expect appropriate feedback, etc.

It is in these areas that cultural mismatch is most likely to occur, and most particularly where the ethnocentrism of the participants—the "cultural blinkers" that we all wear to a greater or lesser extent—is profound. Might it be that cultural conservatism on the part of the learner is of itself a major barrier to progress? Indeed, might not ethnocentrism on the part of the teacher represent a formidable obstacle to effective teaching? Being culture-bound, on either side of the teaching-learning process, must be a major stumbling block in cross-cultural encounters. Such "road blocks" as he calls them form the basis for the recent proposal by R. J. Owens (3) that a special component in Hong Kong language teacher education courses be devoted to them.

To provide a firmer basis for these suggestions we might turn first to some aspects of cognitive theory. What do we know about the acquisition of knowledge that might help us to enhance the learning process? What do we know about language that might provide insights into how and what to teach? One attempt to explain the underlying mechanisms of knowledge acquisition is a learning model known as *schema theory*. This theory is based on the idea that prior knowledge directly influences both the *content* and *form* of new knowledge. It has derived from the work of social psychologists and linguists and has applications not only in cognitive psychology but also underlies recent work in artificial intelligence. (4)

Schema theory provides a framework for explaining and even predicting how information is *organised* by individual learners, how it is the *meaning* rather than the surface form that is likely to be remembered, and how *context* and *prior knowledge* effect cognition, i.e. *how much* and *what* is learned.

It has been clearly established (5) that new meanings are acquired by the interaction of new knowledge with previously learned concepts or propositions. Two factors are involved in this acquisition: the learner must adopt a meaningful learning set (i.e. an intention to relate new information to existing cognitive structures) *and* the new material must be potentially meaningful (i.e. relatable to those cognitive structures). In short, the meaningfulness of new information is dependent on how well it meshes with a learner's prior knowledge. Errors in reconstruction indicate where new material is contradictory in some part with existing cognitive structures. The conclusion to be drawn here is that the learner must utilise pre-existing knowledge which will be re-organised or updated by new information. The theory also predicts that the memory preserves real-world rather than linguistic information; that is, the meaning rather than the form.

The importance that general world knowledge plays in understanding language has been dramatically pointed up in attempts at computer simulation of human understanding. Schallert (p. 20) notes that:

> "Early failures in modelling language processing, such as the language-to-language translation machines, can largely be blamed on theories of word meanings that proved too simple. Word meanings do not derive from a combination of a limited set of linguistic primitives as Katz and Fodor proposed (1963). Sentence, and much less, paragraph meanings are not the result of a simple concatenation of word meanings taken from a mental dictionary. If a computer is to 'understand' a linguistic input—that is, have the ability to answer questions, make inferences, or perhaps, produce a paraphrase in essentially indistinguishable form from human responses—it must be programmed with detailed knowledge about even the most mundane of fact, object or event."

Schemata might be defined as abstract structures that represent what one holds to be generally true about the world. They are dynamic, changing from moment to moment in response to comprehension process demands. The inference is that the acquisition of new knowledge therefore reflects the level of sophistication of existing cognitive structures so that the more an individual knows about a concept, the better that knowledge is organised and the more further input will be processed in an orderly and systematic manner, enhancing the learning process.

Widdowson acknowledges the concept of schemata as fundamental to the learning process. For him, they constitute what he calls "communicative competence" and, combined with "linguistic competence" (i.e. knowledge of the language systems), they represent the learner's prior knowledge upon which new information can be overlaid. He defines communicative competence as "having to do not with the structure of sentences but with the organization of utterances, as a set of expectations derived from previous experience which are projected on to instances of actual language behaviour." (6) To lend weight to this view of the importance of schemata in the learning process, Widdowson cites research into other aspects of human behaviour, particularly some accepted principles of visual perception. The work of Neisser in this area (7) is concerned with "anticipatory schemata" which prepare the perceiver for accepting new information and determining just what is perceived.

It is the fundamentally negotiative nature of the application of schemata to instances of actual language use which is involved in meaningful communication, and incidentally in the modification of schemata. Widdowson notes the implications of this in a cross-cultural context:

> "All communication depends on the alignment and adjustment of each interlocutor's schemata so that they are brought into sufficient correspondence for the interlocutors to feel satisfied that they have reached an understanding. The more remote the schematic worlds of the interlocutors, the more procedural work will need to be done to achieve communicative rapport." (8)

Two types of schemata are distinguished; ideational or propositional schemata which are involved in conceptual organisation, and interpersonal or illocutionary schemata which are related to the establishment and maintenance of relationships. Communication involves both the exchanging of propositions and, if it is not to break down, an understanding and respect for each interlocutor's values and sense of propriety. Schema theory goes a considerable way towards explaining how we provide a meaningful framework and organisation to the ideas being discussed. The relevance of a contribution to a conversation is checked against ideational schemata, and if such relevance cannot be established, the conversation will break down. The flow of a conversation is maintained by drawing on language from interpersonal schemata.

Schemata, comprehension and effective communication

The importance of schemata to the comprehension of language input has been tested in a number of ways but has received particular attention in relation to enhancing reading comprehension. The psychologist F. C. Bartlett (9) proposed the idea of story schemata (i.e. schematic structure or rhetorical organisation in narratives) as early as 1932 and showed how different ways of organising narrative prose affect the way that prose is understood and recalled by native speakers. Bartlett tested English-speaking students on their reproduction of an Amerindian narrative which expressed beliefs and adhered to a schematic structure which was unfamiliar to the students. He found that adjustments were made to make the original material correspond more closely to their own world-views; "they interpreted the content by fitting it into their own frames of reference, their own schemata."

Several studies have been carried out which show the effects on ESL reading comprehension of cultural differences in the rhetorical organisation of expository texts. One of these compared Japanese and English readers, reading in their own languages, on texts with a typical Japanese schematic structure. It was found that not only was it generally more difficult for the English readers, but particular aspects of the organisation were extraordinarily problematic, especially in delayed recall. The traditional pattern known as *ki-sho-ten-ketsu* is difficult for English readers who lack the appropriate formal schema against which to process the Japanese pattern. (10)

Another study by Carrell shows the effects of four different English rhetorical patterns on the reading recall of ESL readers of various language backgrounds. That study showed that the more tightly organised patterns which she labelled "comparison", "causation", and "problem/solution" are generally more facilitative of recall of specific ideas from a text than is the more loosely organised pattern she called "collection of descriptions". Within that finding she also noted significant and interesting differences among the LI groups: Arabic, Spanish, and "Oriental" (predominantly Korean and some Chinese). She goes on to suggest that we might facilitate reading comprehension by teaching about text structure and working on schema availability, schema activation and metacognitive training (e.g. inference awareness, analogy) among other things.

Turning to another aspect of language, that of conversation, John Gumperz (11) suggests that we draw on a number of areas of knowledge when we make inferences from what is said during a conversation. Grammatical and lexical knowledge are supplemented by knowledge of the physical setting, personal background knowledge, attitudes of the participants, socio-cultural assumptions about role and status relationships, and social values associated with the message. Usual descriptions of language, based on context-free rules, do not provide the kind of information required for an understanding of how language is employed. Gumperz is adamant that new types of data are needed.

> "Conversational analysis over the last few years has demonstrated beyond question that not only formally distinct speech events but all kinds of casual talk are rule governed. It is through talking that one establishes the conditions that make an intended interpretation possible. Thus to end a conversation, one must prepare the ground for an ending; otherwise, the ending is likely to be misunderstood. Or to interpret an answer, one must be able to identify the question to which that answer is related. To understand a pun, one must be able to retrieve, re-examine and reinterpret sequences that occurred earlier in an interaction." (12)

Gumperz makes the important point that even when a speaker appears to have near-native command of English, misunderstandings can still arise in interethnic communications not so much due to deficiencies in the lexico-grammatical side of language but more likely as a result of other prosodic features. Elements such as intonation or politeness strategies can be heavily influenced by the speaker's own cultural milieu.

All this leads inevitably to the conclusion that a learner with entrenched cultural values whose experience and knowledge (schemata) are as yet quite unmodified in terms of the culture of the target language community carries a heavier learning burden during second language acquisition. The teacher who doesn't understand or appreciate this ethnocentrism for what it is cannot expect rapid progress from the learner, struggling in what might not be a sympathetic environment, to modify deeply implanted schemata, particularly of the interpersonal variety. Procedures to deal effectively with learners must not only account for their present levels of knowledge of vocabulary and grammar but must also begin to ascertain and appropriately modify those other areas of language likely to alienate or confuse native-speakers. This is not to advocate changing behaviour patterns to mimic native speakers completely, but rather to point up where cultural differences might serve to abort the very communication sought.

New concerns for course designers

Teaching the words and phrases that a learner might use as models during conversational exchanges has been the major focus of most of the teaching in this skill area. While this has been difficult enough in itself, it represents a somewhat easier task than is entailed in a shift of emphasis (or at least a diversification of foci) toward those other verbal and non-verbal elements crucial in successful cross-cultural encounters. There seems to be so much requiring attention that one hardly knows where to start.

The insights to be gained from studies such as Brick's or the work of Gumperz and his associates are only just beginning to address some of the specific issues. A similar concern to that addressed by Brick, again relating to initial encounters between Southeast Asians and Australians, might serve to illustrate the complexity of the task that lies ahead. I would like to look briefly at two aspects of *non-verbal* behaviour in Indonesian learners which may at first seem trivial but can assume quite significant proportions if reactions in interethnic encounters prove negative.

The behavioural idiosyncracies in question are naturally perfectly acceptable in the subjects' "home" cultural setting. I will term these non-verbal actions the "giggle" and the "bob" and both are frequently observed in the way Indonesians, and particularly Javanese, behave in initial encounters with strangers. If these terms seem derogatory, then it is by design as they reflect the values placed on such behaviour by the host culture.

The subjects of my observations were students, both male and female, who were well known to me before leaving Indonesia and who went to Australia to undertake post-graduate studies. All were high-status members of their own society, being university or government employees, and enjoyed professional recognition in having been selected for long-term study abroad. Having observed a number of initial encounters with people such as university supervisors, landlords, telecom employees, fellow students and older members of the community (such as my own parents), I was distressed to find that reactions were more often than not unfavourable towards them. This is not to imply that Australians were in any way antagonistic but rather that they felt uncomfortable and often judged the Indonesian students as perhaps a little immature or backward. Most surprising of all was the attempt on the part of some Australians to "pidginise" their English in the belief that this would make them more easily understood. What, aside from a few errors in structure and pronunciation, were the most significant features of the Indonesians' manner and language that might have resulted in these reactions?"

One aspect of Australian society that causes considerable difficulty to members of a nation which still describes itself (if only unofficially) as "feudal" is the concept of social egalitarianism. As Brick has stated with regard to Vietnamese society, so also is Indonesia's social network based on relative status, power and, to a lesser extent, sex. The ultimate manifestation of this are the languages of Java and Bali themselves which all require that many common lexical items be varied on the basis of the relative status of the speakers. Many common nouns, verbs and grammatical morphemes have three quite different suface forms and a careful speaker can vary the selection of these forms to distinguish up to nine different status relationships with various addressees.

To give a brief example of this phenomenon from Javanese:

"I'm reading a Javanese book"

When speaking to a social inferior or informally to a peer=

"Aku lagi moco buku Jowo"

When speaking to a social superior=

"Kulo saweg maos buku Jawi"

With social relations so overtly stamped on the culture it is not surprising that clashes of values occur in an Australian context which professes equality and eagerly seeks to "cut down the tall poppies". In order for communication to proceed across such a cultural gulf, some modification is clearly required.

In Australia, the "giggle" is generally associated with the less mature members of that society, and particularly with schoolgirls. Such typecasting, whether legitimate or not, is bound to have adverse effects if associated with adults who are supposed to demonstrate more mature behaviour. What is the outcome, then, when a Javanese continually concludes each utterance in an initial encounter with a kind of nervous giggle? To the Indonesian this represents a certain apprehension in the process of establishing a social relationship and signifies an attempt at deference. A great social virtue in a Javanese female is to be "demure" (malu) so that a confident, self-assured approach is most definitely inappropriate. For a successful professional, to exhibit such inappropriate behaviour in Australia is bound to create the wrong impression.

Niels Mulder wrote in his classic analysis of the Javanese character: (13)

> "In the Javanese world view individual autonomy and social self-expression, and an active relationship to the world of matter are negatively valued. Javanese thinking does not attribute positive meaning to individual autonomy, or to a direct confrontation with the world of things . . . .
>
> Among the Javanese themselves, there are standard means of communicating personal emotions as in the extreme circumspection with which people approach their subject, in the show of embarrassment itself, or in the excessive demonstrations of modesty. These emotions generally arise from the difficulty that an individual feels in approaching another person to whom he is not intimately related, which include most people beyond the mother and other immediate kin . . . . Towards strangers and those with higher status, a person feels shame, anxiety, fear, and insecurity that are demonstrated by language, inaction, mannerisms such as excessive smiling, shying away, and giggling. These are shows of 'stage-fright' in dealing with other persons . . ."

One of Mulder's personal experiences might serve to illustrate the extent to which this is basic to even slightly threatening confrontations:

> "A person with whom I was fairly well acquainted wanted to convey an important message. He entered my room, giggling and smiling. I invited him to sit, and he accepted the ritual tea that is served soon after a guest arrives. He kept giggling and talking about the weather and other topics that were obviously irrelevant to his message. He excused himself for intruding upon me, and continued to talk about trivial things, yet his excessive smiling and giggling demonstrated that he had more on his mind, and that he was under stress—he was obviously trying to overcome the intimidating barrier that separates man from man in Java. Smiling and giggling, he finally came to his point—'my father has died'—and immediately he made his excuses and wanted to leave. He had overcome the barrier and apologised for having done so. He was embarrassed, and so was I, because his father had died."

A purely physical form of deference, demanded throughout Java, is the "bob", a dropping of the right hand and shoulder whenever passing in front of or between people of any status. Unlike, for example, the Japanese bow, this action may not emerge during an initial meeting but will be commonly observed in any confined space in which there are a number of people present. Most gatherings are likely to produce many examples of this dragging of the right hand almost at floor level when people have no option but to pass before someone of status. It is symbolic of a lowering of the body, and particularly the head, before a respected personage and is an utterly automatic gesture. One finds oneself attempting this very gesture even while squeezing along a row of tightly packed and occupied theatre seats.

Again, in a society such as Australia's where equality is presumed and appropriate behaviour demanded, such shows of deference are calculated to destroy personal relationships. There one must learn to tread a fine line between deference and arrogance if successful communication is to be nurtured. The impression that "you wouldn't say boo to a goose" or that your own self-image is one of humility and lack of confidence will most likely result in your abilities going unrecognised.

For such reasons, these seemingly trivial actions can represent a kind of "fatal flaw" in the way in which competent Indonesian professionals present themselves in initial encounters in any Western society. As teachers of communication skills, rather than just "English", we must attempt to develop strategies in our learners such that they can represent themselves in a fairer light, with confidence but not arrogance. There must be a real benefit to be gained from learning an enhanced repertoire of, for example, appropriate conversational openings and closings which stresses not only the words and phrases but also the entire gamut of verbal and non-verbal features of effective communication.

To establish themselves as intelligent professionals, the initial impressions arising from any newcomer's first encounters with university staff, fellow students, landlords, government representatives and the like are extremely important. If the aim in going abroad for further education or other professional purposes is to be fulfilled, then on such meetings rests to a large extent the outcome of the entire exercise.

If, among the host of other things to be learned, the suppression of inappropriate non-verbal behaviour can add immeasurably to the success of interaction across cultural barriers, then such behaviour should be identified, the interpersonal schemata modified, and procedures developed as an integral part of the establishment of communicative capacity. Perhaps the greatest difficulty, as was suggested at the beginning of this paper, is the degree to which an individual learner is "culture-bound", and the failure of the teacher to acknowledge this ethnocentrism and deal with it in a sensitive yet positive manner.

Notes

(1) Bickley, V. (1986). p. 13.

(2) Brick, J. (1984). Unpublished essay, but see also:
Brick, J. & Louie, G. (1984).

(3) Owens, R. J. (1986). p. 103.

(4) See Schallert, D. L. (1982). p. 19, who notes:

> "Recent developments in artificial intelligence are in fact so compatible to schema theoretic notions that it seems a misrepresentation to classify them as antecedents. They are more properly seen as realisations, coming from a different methodological tradition, of the same general theory of knowledge."

(5) See Schallert, p. 14ff for a summary of the evidence.

(6) Widdowson, H. G. (1983).

(7) Cited in Widdowson, p. 65.
(8) Widdowson, p. 40.
(9) Cited in Widdowson, p. 54.
(10) Carrell, P. L. (1984). p. 11.
(11) Gumperz, J. (1982). p. 153.
(12) Gumperz, p. 155.
(13) Mulder, N. (1983). p. 65f.

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華文課程的修訂與教師的在職訓練

謝澤文

星加坡教育部

背景

1. 新加坡是一個多元種族、多元文化的社會，在約二百五十五萬的人口中，華人佔76%，馬來人佔15%，印度人佔6%，其他族人佔4%。這裏的官方語文是馬來語(巫語)、華語(普通話)、淡米爾語和英語。國語是馬來語，主要的行政語言是英語。在華人的社會裏，方言的使用很普遍，主要的方言有福建話、潮州話、廣東話、客家話、海南話等。由於〝推廣華語運動〞已收到了一定的效果，華語的使用日漸普遍。

2. 新加坡原本有華文、英文、馬來文和淡米爾文四種不同源流的學校。在1956年之前，雖然非英校都自動教導英語作爲第二語文，但英校之中，只有少數教導華文。在當時的英校裏，華語被稱爲土語(vernacular language)，沒有什麼地位。1956年，《各政黨委員會報告書》發表，其中的一項建議是小學應教導第二語文。到了1962年，政府宣佈：英校學生參加小學離校文憑考試(PSLE)的時候，可以選考華文作爲第二語文。1965年，就是新加坡宣佈獨立的那一年，華文第二語文成爲小學離校文憑考試的必考科目。1966年，政府規定英校中學一年級的學生必須修讀第二語文。到了1969年，華文第二語文成爲了劍橋普通教育證書(普通水準)考試(即中學會考)的必考科目。

3. 由於英校畢業生在升學和就業方面都比其他語文學校的畢業生佔優勢，所以越來越多家長把孩子送進英校。到了1984年，選擇進入英文小學一年級的新生人數竟達全部報名人數的99%以上。政府經過詳細考慮後，決定分階段統一四種語文源流的學校，從1987年開始，中小學一律以英語作爲第一語文，學生的母語作爲第二語文。不過在四間特選的小學裏，學生可以修讀英文和華文作爲第一語文。那些在小學離校考試中屬於最優秀的10%及格學生，可以選擇進入九間特選中學，修讀英文和華文作爲第一語文。華文的授課時間如下：

科目	節數		備註
	小學	中學	
華文(第一語文)	10	8	每節30—35分鐘
華文(第二語文)	8	6	每節35—40分鐘

課程綱要的修訂

4. 近二十多年來，華文課程綱要經過三次的修訂。目前的小學和中學綱要是分別在1980年和1983年公佈的。新綱要的實施，對華文教學產生的影響有以下幾項：

4.1 在舊的綱要裏，教學目標訂得很籠統，既不分年級，也不分主目標和副目標；而且語文訓練的目標只佔一半，另一半是有關道德教育和知識灌輸方面的。修訂後的綱要以語文訓練爲主目標，道德教育等爲副目標；而且每項語文訓練的目標都訂得比較明確。這表示華文教學雖然不能忽略正確價值觀念的灌輸，不過它的主要任務還是語文技能的訓練。

4.2 加强說話和閱讀的教學，但並不忽略書寫方面的教學。小學生從四級開始學習漢語拼音，教師必須有系統地教導，以確保他們在小學畢業前掌握這套拼音工具。

4.3 中小學的綱要都附有字表。在小學階段，以華文第一語文的學生學2 000個漢字；以華文作爲第二語文的，學1 800個漢字。在中學階段，以華文作爲第一語文的，多學1 500字，共3 500字；以華文作爲第二語文的，多學1 200字，共3 000字。字表的公佈，使教材所用的字滙有更好的控制，增加了字滙，詞滙重復出現的機會，目的是減輕學生學習華文的負擔，並增强他們的學習信心。

4.4 以單元的方式組織教材。在小學階段，每個單元包括了聽、說、讀、寫的教材和語文練習作業。在中學階段，更突破了傳統篇章教學的局限，每個單元包括了不同性質不同教學目標的教材，如說話教材、實用文(包括報章)、文章選讀等，目的是使學生能均衡地學習不同性質的教材，獲得較全面的語文技能訓練。

4.5 課堂教學的活動更多樣化，教師通過分組教學、遊戲、角色扮演、討論等活動，使學生有更多使用華語的機會。教師也要使用更多的視聽教具，以引起學生學習興趣，提高教學效果。

新的要求和挑戰

5. 新課程的實施，使華文教師面對了新的挑戰。他們有必要進一步提高自己的專業水平，以應付課程和教材方面的改變。例如修訂課程主張加强說話教學，使學生能說更流利更正確的華語。要達到這個目標，就先要有適當的師資。我們的非大學畢業華文教師全部畢業自舊制的華文學校；大學畢業的教師多數是南洋大學和新加坡國立大學(以前稱新加坡大學)的中文系畢業生，一部分是畢業於台灣，甚至中國(年紀較大的)的大學。他們在讀和寫方面的能力沒有問題。在口語方面，他們雖然都能說〝流利〞的華語，但由於他們都是南方人，又生長在一個方言很普遍的社會，加上他們在求學時期沒有獲得適當的語音訓練，所以在發音方面難免受到方言的影響而不夠準確。如果要有效地實施修訂課程綱要，提高學生的語音水平，老師本身就得先接受訓練。

6. 新加坡教育部在一九七四年成立了〝小學華文教材組〞，編寫實驗性的小學華文教材。這套教材獲得學校的好評，而且調查結果證明新教材在訓練學生聽、說、讀、寫基本語文能力方面很有效。1980年修訂公佈後，小學華文教材組對新教材作了進一步的修訂，使它成爲一套全國學校採用的教材。新教材着重字滙的適當控制，課文力求生動有趣而且實用。整套教材包括：學生讀本、習字本子、作業簿、圖片、字卡、錄音帶、錄像帶、遊戲用具、補充讀物和教師手冊。教材引導教師有系統地訓練學生聽、說、讀、寫方面的能力，並培養他們對學習華文的興趣和信心。1983年中學華文修訂課程綱要公佈，教育部的課程發展署接着成立了〝中學華文教材編寫組〞，負責編寫新教材，稱爲《中學華文教材》。整套教材包括：課本、評鑒與練習、視聽教材、輔助讀本和教師手冊。教材以單元的方式組織，每個單元包括了會話教材、實用文和文章選讀。練習方面包括了有系統的語文活動，如字形結構、構詞、組合句子、病句、句型、簡單語法、中英對比等。另外還有隨機性的語文活動，如聽會話、聽新聞、聽廣播、聽座談、對話、討論、看幻燈片、膠片寫新聞、學習採訪新聞等，目的是訓練學生的聽力和交際能力。傳統的課文大多是〝文選〞，教師的教學活動主要是講解和分析，至於學生的語文習練，不外是問答、解釋、造句、作文。教具方面，通常只用到黑板和粉筆。一向習慣於傳統教學法的老師，開始的時候不容易適應這套新教材和新教學法。

7. 這幾年來，在教育方面我們的口號是〝鼓勵創新，提高素質〞。在華文方面，我們要求改進教學法，使課堂教學更靈活，更有趣，而且更有效。這無形中給予教師一種〝壓力〞，他們需要不斷進修，以充實自己應付新的需求。

提供訓練的單位

8. 目前，負責爲教師策劃和提供進修課程的有下列幾個單位：

8.1 教育學院 —— 該學院的職責主要是培訓師資。在新加坡，要成爲合格教師，必須先進入教育學院，接受師資訓練，考取教育專業文憑。大學畢業生須接受一年的全職訓練，非大學畢業生，須接受兩年的訓練。學院也爲教師和校長提供種種的在職訓練課程，包括教學法、教育行政以及語文課程等。

8.2 教育部 —— 教育部設有〝訓練組〞，負責策劃組織和協調各項訓練課程。該組和教育學院、教育部視學組、課程發展署和區域語言中心等保持密切聯系，以確保所提供的訓練課程合乎教師和校長們的需要。教育部的視學組主要的職責是編訂課程綱要、督導有關科目的教學和鼓勵教師嘗試創新的教學法。該組也有責任根據教師的需要，向訓練組建議開辦何種課程。視學人員還通過校內座談會 (School-based Workshop)、小組討論等活動，提高教師們的專業知識。

8.3 課程發展署 —— 教育部屬下課程發展署的主要工作是編寫教材、製作視聽教具、和指導教師使用教材。課程發展署教材編寫組在全面推行新教材之前，通常會開辦短期的訓練課程，教導教師怎樣使用新教材和教具。教材編寫組的視導員過後還到學校去，幫助教師解決教學上碰到的困難。

訓練課程

9. 根據修訂課程和教材的需要，各單位爲華文教師提供了以下的訓練課程：

9.1 華文教師語音訓練班

9.1.1 修訂的小學華文課程綱要規定學生從四年級開始需有系統地學習漢語拼音。中小學的課程綱要都主張加强口語教學，使學生說更流利更標準的華語。教育部經一番考慮後，決定開辦語音訓練班，重新訓練大部份的華文教師，使他們能夠掌握漢語拼音和基本的語音理論。我們認爲教師如果能掌握漢語拼音和基本的發音理論，就算本身的語音不夠標準，也能相當有效地教導學生。理由是學生年紀輕，模仿力和領悟力强，他們學會了漢語拼音，就可以通過查字典、聽錄音和電視廣播等活動，自我糾正自己語音上的毛病，學到較標準的華語。

9.1.2 教育部特地成立了一個工作委員會，負責協調這個訓練計劃。在初期，我們還特地從台灣聘請了一位語音教授擔任顧問，協助策劃課程的內容和訓練語音班的指導員。在正式開辦課程之前，工作委員會進行了以下幾項準備工作：

甲、 擬定課程內容

學前測試	2小時
基本華語發音理論	12小時
漢語拼音講解	6小時
漢語拼音練習	16小時
方音對華語的影響	2小時
結業測試	2小時
	40小時

乙、 訓練語音導師

本課程的特點之一是學員聽了有關漢語拼音的講解後，立刻進行分組練習；每組約十人，由一位語音導師負責示範和糾正學員所犯的錯誤。語音導師是從華文教師中挑選出來的。我們選出十九位語音比較標準的老師，讓他們接受海外顧問的指導。其中十位表現較優異而且有興趣當語音導師的，受邀擔任兼職導師。後來，我們把其中四位從學校調派出來，擔任全職的語音導師。

丙、 試教

根據所訂的綱要進行試教。接受試教的教師共80位，包括幼兒班、小學和中學的教師。

丁、 檢討

試教之後，工作委員會檢討了課程內容、訓練方法和時間安排等，並加以調整。海外顧問在語音導師的協助下，完成了一份有關華文教師常犯語音錯誤的報告，供語音導師和學員們參考。

9.1.3 試教的工作在一九八〇年十二月完成，正式的訓練課程從一九八一年一月開始。我們規定每班人數約四十人，每星期上課兩次，每次二小時，十個星期完成，上課地點是教育學院。教師利用課餘的時間進修，教上午班的老師下午來參加，教下午班的老師則上午來上課。我們上午開兩班，下午開兩班，四個語音班同時進行，一年大約訓練640位教師。

9.1.4 說音班着重分組練習，由語音導師進行個人指導。參加課程的教師必須勤學漢語拼音聲母、韻母的拼讀和拼寫，他們經常像小學生似的，進行聽音拼寫的練習。這種方法雖然在開始的階段使到一些教師覺得有點難堪，但效果却相當好。經過一番〝苦練〞之後，90%以上的教師都能掌握漢語拼音。他們完成課程後，表示有信心教導漢語拼音的超過85%。這個訓練計劃從一九八一年一月開始，到一九八五年十二月結束，前後進行了五年，共有2 879位中小學華文教師完成了課程，佔全部華文教師65%左右。在安排教師參加這課程時，訓練組優先考慮年齡不超過四十五歲的教師，所以那些沒有參加訓練課程的大部分是年紀較大的教師；也有部分教師他們已經對教導漢語拼音有信心，所以沒有參加。近年來，我國漢語拼音的教學相當成功，學生的語音水平提高了不少，這說明了華文教師訓練班已產生良好的效果。

9.2 小學華文教材訓練課程

爲了使教師了解新教材的精神、特點和使用的方法，教育部課程發展署的小學華文教材組特別爲教師開辦了小學華文教材訓練課程，內容見表一。整個課程分爲七講，每星期兩講，一個月內完成。教材組的視導員過後還到學校去，了解教師在使用時所碰到的問題，並提出建議。如果發現某些教師教得特別好，他們將會把這些教學上的優點介紹給其他教師。教材組也通過討論會、小組討論等活動，經常和教師交換教學上的意見。目前幾乎所有小學華文教師都已參加過這訓練課程。

表一、 **小學華文教材訓練課程內容**

教材	教學內容／活動	時間
低年級教材	・總論：討論教材的精神和特點。	2小時
	・教學法：有關說話、識字、寫字、分組活動、遊戲等教學法的講解和討論。	6小時
	・通過錄像帶示範小學華文教材的教學法。	40分鐘

教材	教學內容／活動	時間
中年級教材	·教學法：有關説話、識字、寫字、句式練習等教學法的講解和討論。	5小時
	·通過錄像帶示範教學法。	40分鐘
高年級教材	·教學法：有關説話、閱讀、句式練習、作文等教學法的講解和討論。	5小時
	·通過錄像帶示範教學法。	40分鐘

9.3 中學華文教材訓練課程

這個課程由課程發展署的中學華文教材組和教育學院的亞洲語文學系聯合主辦，目的是使教師掌握配合教材需要的教學法，內容包括：

- 動機教學和字滙教學
- 詞滙教學
- 寫作教學
- 閱讀教學
- 語法教學
- 語文活動教學
- 視聽教材的使用
- 會話教學
- 朗讀教學
- 字詞讀音訓練

整個課程共十講，每講兩個小時。教師利用課餘的時間上課，每星期兩次，每次兩小時，五周內完成。教學的活動包括講解、討論、示範、練習等。教材組的視導員過後會到學校去了解教學的情形，協助教師解決問題，並收集教師對新教材的意見。他們也爲教師舉辦校內教學討論會，對實際教學上碰到的問題交換意見。目前這課程還繼續開辦。

9.4 其他課程和研討會

9.4.1 教育學院每年都開辦專題性的華文課程，供在職教師進修，例如華文識字和寫作教學、現代語法，語音教學等。教育部的訓練組每六個月出版一份有關在職訓練課程的册子(Prospectus)，列明各培訓單位所提出的課程，寄到各學校去。教育學院所提供的課程全部列在這本册子裏，一目了然，教師可以根據自己的興趣和需要申請參加。教師參加訓練課程是免費的。

9.4.2 教育部的華文專科視學組也以校內研討會的方式，爲老師們提供進修的機會。視學組每年印發一本册子，列出在校內研討的課題，例如一九八六年有關華文的研討課題有：小學華文作文教學、中學作文教學，利用報章教導華文第二語文等。教師如果對某個課題有興趣，就可以和視學組聯絡，邀請視學到學校來演講和主持討論會。這種研討方式有下列幾個優點：

(1) 因爲研討會是由教師主動去組織的，所以他們比較積極地參予，沒有〝被逼參加〞的感覺。

(2) 研討會在校內舉行，對教師比較方便。

(3) 因爲全校教師都參加，所以他們有機會一同對視學人員的建議作出反應，並加以討論。這比由一兩位代表去參加，然後回來向大家報告的方式直接得多，也有效得多。

(4) 視學組不必花時間和人力去組織研討會。

(5) 這類活動有助於促進視學人員和教師之間的了解，打破彼此間的隔膜。

新加坡的學校在星期六沒有上課，所以教師多利用星期六上午的時間來舉行校內研討會。

結語

10. 上面談到的幾項訓練課程都是針對教師在教學上的需要而開辦的，教師完成課程後，立刻能把所學的用在課堂上。視導人員還親自到學校去，了解教師在實踐碰到的困難，並幫助他們解決問題。教師能學以致用，就會覺得花時間去參加進修課程是值得的。在新加坡，校內研討會是一種相當方便而且受教師歡迎的進修方式，我們將繼續鼓勵教師舉行這類研討會。

普通話學習動機與實際使用的調查研究

張日昇

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(一) 調查目的和方法

自從1984年九月香港的政治前途明朗以後，香港社會在每一方面都開始產生適應未來的變化，語言使用方面也不例外。香港的高層工作語言一向以英語爲主；家庭語言是粵語；普通話的交際功能很低，沒有恰當的場合可以使用。但是，自從中英兩國聯合發表了《關於香港前途的協議草案》以後，大家都理解到未來政治結構的改變和中港兩地經濟接觸的頻繁，必然引起語言功能的重新分配。香港人口六百餘萬，以粵語爲母語的佔了絕大多數。這個人口結構，在未來的五、六十年內不可能有顯著的改變，因爲香港執行嚴厲的限制大陸移民來港政策，而香港人移居外地的，在比例上也是一個很小的數目。因此，粵語可以肯定保留主要家庭語言的地位。工作語言方面，英語壟斷的局面肯定會被打破：在政治的範疇裡，特別是中港間的接觸，將無可避免地以普通話爲主；在經濟的範疇裡，中港貿易將以普通話爲主，而國際貿易中，英語的地位恐怕很難取代(1)。

普通話近三年來受到社會的重視也可以在學習普通話的人數反映出來。香港大學普通話班的選修人數自1975年至1984年八月，每年是110人；1984年九月至1985年八月是435人，增長了300%。香港中文大學的普通話班，1980–1981年度和1981–1982年度都是一千餘人；1982–1983年度和1983–1984年度都是一千二百餘人；1984–1985年度是一千八百餘人，亦是歷年來最高的增長(2)。其它許多志願機構和社團組織自1984年開始，都紛紛開辦普通話班，規模較大的，有：香港青年會、香港女青年會、香港青年協會、明愛中心等。估計在1984–1985年度，約有六千五百人就讀(3)。此外，兩個主要的推廣普通話的團體：香港中國語文學會和香

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(1) 見Cheung Yat-shing (1985) "Power, Solidarity, and Luxury in Hong Kong: a Sociolinguistic Study" *Anthropological Linguistics* (U.S.A.), Summer 1985, pp. 190–203.

(2) 伊耀鳴(1985)《香港大專院校教學國語（普通話）的經驗和概況》普通話（國語）教學與測試研討會上分發油印資料。

(3) 《資料：普通話（國語）在香港(1984–85)》普通話（國語）教學與測試研討會秘書處分發資料，中國語文學會。

港普通話研習社，提供了以下的數據，反映出同一的現象：

人數 年份	中國語文學會	普通話研習社
1979-1982	約3 143	無記錄
1983，1月至6月 7月至12月	1 857	無記錄 4 668
1984，1月至6月 7月至12月	2 773	5 666 6 324
1985，1月至6月	2 186	6 843

普通話的重要性日益增加，所以學習普通話的人也就多起來。其實這只是一種很粗略的說法，因爲學員對〝重要性〞這個概念可以有不同的理解，因此也有不同的學習動機。學習動機雖然可以是由客觀要求而誘發，但也可以是根源於主觀的願望。主觀願望和客觀現實如果存在着差距而學員在開始學習以後才發現的話，學習的積極性將很難維持，結果，輕則導致散渙，重則導致退學，浪費金錢時間。本研究的目的，旨在探討一般學習普通話的動機，分析香港語言使用的客觀現實，以及不同社會階層對語言價值的態度，藉以幫助學員正確瞭解學習動機，幫助教員恰當地設計課程。

調査採用問卷法。《普通話學習動機與實際使用調查表》一千五百份，於1985年9月分發到中國語文學會及普通話研習社，並指定在一周內派給學員，在堂上填妥，即時收回。中國語文學會發出問卷五百份，普通話研習社發出一千份。共收回一千四百八十份。有效問卷一千四百七十二份；八份無效。調査結果輸入電腦分析。

測量〝重要性〞所使用的，是三點等級尺度。〝1〞表示最重要，〝2〞表示較重要，〝3〞表示不重要。調査結果分析所列的百分率合計，有些是超過100%的，這是因爲被訪者對該題作了多種選擇回答。本文百分率保留一位小數。

（二） 調查結果和分析

1. 被訪者個人資料分析

被訪者全部是於1985年9月在中國語文學會和普通話研習社註册修讀普通話的學員。男性佔34%，女性佔66%。年齡在十八歲以下的佔6.4%，十九至廿五歲的佔56.8%，廿六歲以上的佔36.8%。教育程度方面：小學或未受過教育的佔3.1%，中學程度的佔61.3%，大專程度的佔35.6%。職業方面：學生佔18.5%，工人佔3.6%，文員佔44.3%，部門主管佔5.7%，經理佔2.3%，高級行政及專業人員(包括教師)佔25.5%。

經濟收入方面：無收入的佔12.4%，月入港幣2,000元以下的佔9.9%，2,001–4,000元的佔41.6%，4,001–6,000元的佔19.5%，6,001–8,000元的佔8.8%，8,001元以上的佔7.8%。

綜合上述資料來看，學習普通話的以女性爲主，是男性的一倍。年齡組別的劃分，在本問卷中設計得並不理想。如果第三組再細分爲廿六至卅五歲和卅六歲以上兩組，則可以更顯著地看出，學習普通話的年齡，除了十九至廿五歲佔過半以外，廿六至卅五歲也構成一個頗大的百分比。換言之，絕大部份的學員是〝青年〞。這些青年的教育水平都是中學以上，其中三成多還接受過高等教育。他們的職業，主要是文員，其次是高級行政及專業人員，其中大部份是教師，再其次是學生。換言之，文員、教師和學生佔了差不多九成的學員人口。學員收入是個比較有趣的現象：月入港幣2,001至6,000元的佔了六成多；其次是無收入的佔12.4%；有收入而不超過2,000元的只佔一成。

結合上述五項社會變項來考察普通話學員的特徵：一般是受過中學以上教育程度的男女青年。如果不是在學的，每月收入在2,001–6,000元間。職業要不是文員，便是教師或學生。低薪的工人和高薪的主管、經理等並不太熱衷學習普通話⑷。這種現象是值得推廣普通話工作人員注意的。佔香港人口比例大多數的，教育程度和收入都偏低的工人，並沒有多大動機去學習普通話。這一點，我們談到語言價值態度問題時再回頭討論。

2. 學習動機

本問卷列出六項動機讓被訪者選擇，每位被訪者可以選擇多項作答，但要按照其重要性，用1，2，3等順序標明。其中有個別被訪者認爲某兩項動機是同等重要而並用〝1〞字標誌，因此，主要動機的百分率合計是超過100%。

百分率% 動機	主要動機	次要動機	第三動機
目前工作需要	12.8	2.7	1.2
可能將來的工作需要	38.2	11.0	4.6
旅遊上的需要	7.1	9.3	8.2
純爲興趣，如想學國語歌曲	18.3	8.1	4.7
中國人應懂普通話	30.0	10.3	5.4
其他	1.6	0.3	0.6

表一：**學習普通話動機分類統計表**

⑷ 有一點要補充說明。中國語文學會和普通話研習社開設的普通話班的對像是一般市民。經濟條件較優的人有跟私人教師學習的，這一點，本研究便反映不出來。

表一明確地顯示，學習普通話來應付工作的人並不多，比起爲了興趣而學的還少。差不多四成的學員是爲了未來的事業作準備而學普通話，而三成是爲了民族認同而學。上述四項主要動機可以歸納爲兩類：應付目前工作是客觀需要；個人興趣、民族認同、未來事業準備都是主觀需要。爲了滿足客觀需要的動機跟爲了滿足主觀需要的動機很不一樣，因爲後者比較容易受個人情緒影響而減弱。特別應當指出的，是主觀上對將來工作需要的想象，往往跟客觀實際的需要不一致，結果導致學員對前景失望而減弱學習動機。這一點，在下文語言價值態度一節中還要討論。

3. 使用狀況

學習語言最理想的是在自然環境中進行。在學校課堂裡學習另一種語言，主要是因爲日常生活中缺乏自然的語言環境。但是也有因爲急需解決目前語言問題而入學進修以加速學習過程的。因此，探討學員在課外使用語言的狀況可以幫助了解社會對這種語言的需求，以及學員在課外得到多少有利於學習的環境支持。本調查就這一點向被訪者詢問了他們日常使用普通話時的對象、場合、話題，以及使用的頻率，統計分析如下。

使用對象　用普通話與家人談話的佔6.2%；一般同學、朋友的佔13.9%，上普通話課的同學、朋友的佔66.0%；同事的佔5.8%；顧客的佔12.4%；其他的佔3.7%。

使用場合　在家庭裡使用普通話的有8.4%，在工作地方裡使用的有20.7%，在普通話學校所舉辦的課外活動中使用的有60.9%；在一般社交場合使用的有4.1%；其他的有8.8%。

使用話題　用普通話傾談家事的佔3.2%；談論公事的佔17.7%；討論時事、教育、社會等嚴肅問題時用普通話的佔3.0%；閒聊應酬的佔70.5%；其他的佔6.7%。

使用頻率　被訪者每周使用普通話的平均時數是2.3。其中有665人，即45.2%的被訪者，承認使用普通話時，有時是純粹爲了操練而不是爲了需要。以操練爲目的的每周平均時數是1.7。

從上述的統計可以看出一個最顯著的現象：課外使用普通話基本上是爲了操練，而爲了需要的只是很少數罷了。換言之，在香港學習普通話是缺乏語言環境的支持。如果我們粗略地把語言分作家庭語言和工作語言。家庭語言的使用對象是家人、同學、朋友等，使用場合是家庭、同學朋友歡聚的地方等，而話題又是家常閒聊，那麼從統計數字看來，普通話不是一般的家庭語言。工作語言的使用對象是同事、顧客，使用場合是工作地點，而話題是公事或嚴肅的討論，那麼從統計數字看來，起碼對大部份的被訪者來說，普通話也不是工作語言。這裡普通話使用的統計，正好支持了學習動機一節的調查：學員學習普通話的動機是爲了滿足主觀的需要，而不是客觀的要求。

4. 語言價值態度

爲了探討香港人對普通話、粵語和英語三種語言所持的價值態度(爲了行文方便，〝語言〞一詞也包括〝方言〞。)，我們要求被訪者評估三者在未來的六十二時裡，對不同職業人仕的重要性，並且用1、2、3來標明最重要、較重要、不重要。全部資料，分成六組，反映學生、工人、文員、部門主管、經理、以及高級行政或專業人員(包括教師)六類被訪者對同一問題的不同看法。並以平均值作爲態度指數，分列六表如下：

態度指數 行業	英語	粵語	普通話
工人	2.77	1.31	2.40
文員	1.72	2.05	2.46
部門主管	1.68	2.20	2.21
經理	1.38	2.48	2.01
高級行政或專業人員	1.30	2.49	1.99

n = 274

表二：**學生對三種語言的價值態度**

態度指數 行業	英語	粵語	普通話
工人	2.79	1.45	2.49
文員	1.93	2.23	2.72
部門主管	1.83	2.40	2.45
經理	1.70	2.45	2.55
高級行政或專業人員	1.43	2.64	2.30

n = 53

表三：**工人對三種語言的價值態度**

態度指數 行業	英語	粵語	普通話
工人	2.94	1.52	2.48
文員	1.78	2.25	2.50
部門主管	1.74	2.38	2.24
經理	1.50	2.57	2.15
高級行政或專業人員	1.34	2.55	2.05

n＝653

表四：**文員對三種語言的價值態度**

態度指數 行業	英語	粵語	普通話
工人	2.93	1.52	2.24
文員	2.04	2.22	2.22
部門主管	1.72	2.39	2.01
經理	1.49	2.49	1.91
高級行政或專業人員	1.40	2.52	1.89

n＝85

表五：**部門主管對三種語言的價值態度**

態度指數 行業	英語	粵語	普通話
工人	2.83	1.74	2.66
文員	2.31	2.26	2.71
部門主管	2.03	2.46	2.51
經理	1.69	2.51	2.26
高級行政或專業人員	1.57	2.71	1.97

n＝35

表六：**經理對三種語言的價值態度**

態度指數 行業	英語	粵語	普通話
工人	2.87	1.35	2.44
文員	1.94	1.97	2.59
部門主管	1.70	2.16	2.25
經理	1.41	2.39	2.15
高級行政或專業人員	1.21	2.40	2.01

n = 379

表七：**高級行政或專業人員對三種語言的價值態度**

現在再根據上列六表的態度指數，編製三個表，綜合比較各行業人士對英語、粵語和普通話在職業上的重要性。態度指數最低的是最重要，用〝1〞表示；次低的是較重要，用〝2〞表示；最高的是不重要，用〝3〞表示。(態度指數值相同則以同等並列。數值以小數後一位爲準。)

被訪者 行業	學生	工人	文員	部門主管	經理	高專人員
工人	3	3	3	3	3	3
文員	1	1	1	1	2	1
部門主管	1	1	1	1	1	1
經理	1	1	1	1	1	1
高專人員	1	1	1	1	1	1

表八：**英語在各行業的重要性**

被訪者 行業	學生	工人	文員	部門主管	經理	高專人員
工人	1	1	1	1	1	1
文員	2	2	2	2	1	1
部門主管	2	2	3	3	2	2
經理	3	2	3	3	3	3
高專人員	3	3	3	3	3	3

表九：**粵語在各行業的重要性**

被訪者 行業	學生	工人	文員	部門主管	經理	高專人員
工人	2	2	2	2	2	2
文員	3	3	3	2	3	3
部門主管	2	2	2	2	3	2
經理	2	3	2	2	2	2
高專人員	2	2	2	2	2	2

表十：**普通話在各行業的重要性**

上列三個表反映了兩種基本現象。

第一，所有被訪者對語言價值有一致的看法，例如：所有人都認爲英語對工人來說是最不重要，對其他行業都極重要(經理對文員的看法是例外)；粵語對工人是最重要，但是對經理和高級行政或專業人員是最不重要(工人對經理的看法是例外)；普通話對工人、經理和高級行政或專業人員是次要(工人對經理的看法是例外)，而對文員却是最不重要(部門主管對文員的看法是例外)。

第二，被訪者因爲本身職業的關係而對語言價值產生不同的看法。這種差異只是存在於粵語與普通話兩者之間的相對價值。經理和高級行政或專業人員認爲粵語對文員是最重要，普通話對部門主管是最不重要；但是其他人却認爲粵語對文員和普通話對部門主管來說，都是次要語言。這是上層跟中、下層意見不一致的地方。此外，還有一個有趣的現象：上、下

層的態度一致而與中層的看法相左。學生、工人、經理以及高級行政或專業人員都認爲粵語對部門主管是居於次要的地位，但文員和部門主管却自貶爲最不重要。這裡我們可以看到談論學習動機時要區分客觀需要和主觀需要的重要性。文員和部門主管把普通話的地位放在粵語之上是出自對職業前途的一些主觀憧憬，因爲對經理等級的職位來說，大家都認爲普通話比粵語重要。但是，部門主管在職位上並沒有需要使用普通話的要求，也就是沒有客觀的需要。這一點上、下層都看得清楚，只是當局者迷而已。

(三) 結論

1. 語言的使用，從調查資料的分析可以確定一般的家庭語言是粵語，高層工作語言基本上是以英語爲主，其次是普通話；下層工作語言是粵語。因此，普通話將會繼英語而成爲一種社會縱向流動的工具，但却不可能成爲家庭語言。

2. 專業英語課程的設計，基本上是針對學員在職業上對語言的需要而編寫。這種取向對專業普通話的課程編寫不一定適合，因爲學員學習普通話的動機是爲了滿足主觀的需要，而不是適應客觀的要求。

3. 語言價值態度包孕了社會經濟階層因子、客觀評估、以及主觀願望等變項。語言使用者可能會就其所屬社會經濟階層，對自己和對其他階層人士的語言的價值和功能，作出不同的反應。因此，研究語言價值態度的時候，不能機械地要求社會對語言價值有完全一致的看法，而彼此的差異，正足以反映社會階層的劃分。

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EXPERIMENTAL TEACHING: THE NUCLEUS OF A REFRESHER PROGRAMME

THERESE LEUNG

Introduction

In this article I describe, what the Institute of Language in Education (ILE) has been doing in the past 3 years(1) in helping to reorientate language teachers towards a more learner-centred and communicative approach to language teaching. The focus will be on that component of the refresher programme called "experimental teaching" which has been observed to be a crucial activity in helping course participants to transfer principles and skills to classroom practice.

Background

The ILE was established in 1982 as part of a "Language Package"—a project launched by the Hong Kong Government to improve the standards of Chinese and English in Hong Kong schools. Since September 1982, two four-month full-time refresher courses have been held each year for in-service teachers of Chinese and English. Since these are full-time courses, course participants are totally released from their normal school duties. The Hong Kong Government pays for a full-time substitute teacher to take over their duties in their respective schools.

There are two departments in the ILE: the Chinese Department and the English Department. The English Department offers two courses, one for primary school teachers of English and the other for prevocational school teachers(2). I refer now to the refresher courses for primary school teachers of English.

In planning a refresher course for this group of teachers we have to bear in mind that we are dealing with professionals who have between five and thirty-five years of language teaching experience. Our main concern is not so much to introduce these teachers to newer strategies and techniques in language teaching but to make sure that they can and will transfer these concepts and skills to classroom use. It is apparent that the latter requires a reorientation in the teachers' attitudes towards their own ways of teaching and towards the so-called newer teaching approaches and techniques. The most effective way to bring about this attitudinal change, we believe, is to let the teachers try things out for themselves in a real classroom. We do not feel we can call this "practice teaching", as all our course participants are experienced teachers. Instead, we call it "experimental teaching" as it provides them with an experimental setting for testing the concepts and skills they have learned in the refresher course.

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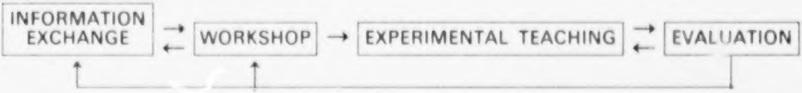
(1) i.e. from 1982 to 1986.

(2) The English Department now offers courses for all teachers of English in Hong Kong Government and aided secondary schools.

The ILE Refresher Programme for Primary School Teachers of English

The curriculum for the refresher courses for primary school teachers of English is divided into three divisions: (1) applied language theory; (2) language proficiency and (3) methodology—each complementing the other two divisions. In the methodology division, every course unit leads to an experimental lesson in which what has been discussed in that particular course unit may be tried out in a real classroom situation and be evaluated.

A course unit begins with 3 to 5 information exchange sessions on the theories and techniques of the teaching of a particular skill. This is followed by 3 to 5 workshops in which the participants plan a lesson together in small groups. The lesson is then taught by one member of the group in an affiliated school and observed by the rest of the group. An evaluation session is conducted right after the lesson to provide immediate feedback to the teacher of the lesson, the group members who planned the lesson, and the course tutors who led the input sessions and supervised the workshops and the lesson.



Objectives of Experimental Teaching in a Refresher Programme

The main objectives of experimental teaching in an ILE refresher course are

(1) to try out new teaching approaches and techniques in the classroom;
(2) to try out new teaching resources in the classroom;
(3) to find out why lesson objectives are achieved or not achieved;
(4) to find out how children learn language and what they can do with language in the English lesson;
(5) to monitor the progress of the course;
(6) to monitor the progress of the course participants.

The ultimate goal is to modify the attitude and teaching behaviour of the participants so that they will become more effective language teachers.

Planning and Preparing for an Experimental Lesson

The first workshop of an ILE course unit is normally devoted to the stating of lesson objectives. The participants have to learn not to be satisfied with statements of objectives such as to teach the present perfect tense 'or to teach the pattern "The (book) is on/under the (chair)."' but to go on and state what they expect the pupils to be able to do with the present perfect tense or with the pattern "The (book) is on/under the (chair)."

This does not mean that we think the specification of linguistic content is unimportant. Quite the contrary. The linguistic content to be taught has to be clearly spelt out at the beginning of a lesson plan. However, we want our participants to start with language function and focus on language function as the lesson objective so that they can answer the question: "What do I expect my pupils to be able to do using English by the end of the lesson?"

Once an experimental teaching workshop group has decided on an objective, the members will start planning the steps to be taken to achieve this objective. These steps will include presentation of materials by the teacher, any drills if necessary, various learning activities for the pupils, checkback and evaluation procedures. it is very important that these steps should be carefully planned so that if the objective is achieved it is easy to see why it is achieved; and if it is not achieved it is equally easy to retrace the steps and find out why and where things have gone wrong. For example, if the lesson objective is to teach the pupils how to take down a telephone message, but none or very few pupils can perform the task at the end of the lesson, we can run through the procedure and see if a crucial step, such as teaching them to listen carefully to specific information and take notes of relevant points only, is missing somewhere.

After a group of participants have produced a plan together, they will feel the need to produce resources for the lesson. At this stage we normally observe a division of labour. Those who can draw well will help to produce pictures and charts. Those who can speak English better than the others will be asked to help with making tape-recorded materials. Others will help to produce such teaching materials as worksheets and texts.

Up to this stage, they do not know who will be asked to teach the lesson. This is done deliberately to make sure that the whole group will work on the planning of the lesson and preparing for the experimental teaching. If they know right from the start who is going to be the teacher it will be very difficult to get even contribution from every member of the group.

Group contribution is very important at the planning stage. When a teacher plans a lesson alone he can only rely on his own experience and is limited by his own knowledge of the art. But when he plans a lesson with 3 to 5 other experienced teachers he will benefit from the wealth of ideas contributed by the group.

We normally let the group know who is going to teach the lesson the day before the experimental teaching. Once the announcement has been made, those who are going to teach may rehearse the lesson with other members of their respective groups who act as pupils. Sometimes several members of the same group will take turns to microteach part of the lesson so as to pre-test different teaching approaches and different teaching techniques.

The Experimental Lesson

We assign one day a week for experimental teaching which is done in two affiliated schools. Each course participant has two to three chances to teach an experimental lesson during the course. It is essential that each participant has more than one chance to teach an experimental lesson because they can compare the two or three lessons they have tried out and assess their own progress. They can also observe progress made by other members of the group. This acts a confidence-builder for both the teacher and the observers.

The aim of the experimental lesson is to experiment with new ways of teaching in an actual classroom. Some participants may feel that the setting is not realistic enough because they can only teach the same class two to five times at the most and do not really know the children well. However, this is the best arrangement we can come up with so far: (*a*) the children in the affiliated schools, with the exception of the Primary One class in the autumn term, are familiar with our approaches; (*b*) it is definitely better than microteaching since the teacher can teach the entire lesson in a real classroom.

Observation of an Experimental Lesson

Each experimental lesson is observed by members of the same group plus one or two other groups with at least one course tutor—the course tutor who has been supervising their workshops. Occasionally the lesson is also observed by teachers of the affiliated school. This is a very important component of the experimental teaching exercise. For those who have helped to plan the lesson, observation provides them with the best opportunity to see how things really work out in a lesson. This will not only make them more aware of what is involved in the process of teaching but also train them to be more self-critical.

However, people have to be trained before they can become more efficient observers. People who are not trained how to observe tend to see only what they want to see or what is spectacular. To help our course participants to become more efficient observers we have tried various modes of observation.

At the early stages, global observation is encouraged. The observers are required to observe the lesson as a whole and see whether the objective is achieved in the end. After a few weeks, when both the observers and the teachers have developed a certain degree of confidence in the experimental exercise, they are introduced to focussed observation.

In focussed observation, the observer concentrates on one aspect of the lesson only. He may focus on the type of questions the teacher uses to elicit answers from the pupils and find out which type of questions can produce the best results. By analysing the linguistic and subject contents of this type of questions he may be able to find out why certain questions can produce better results than other questions.

Some other focal points for observation we have tried out are:
—the language the teacher uses for giving instructions
—pupils' reaction to teacher's expressions of approval/disapproval
—interaction involving the use of English among the pupils
—techniques used in correcting spoken/written errors
—checkback techniques used by the teacher
—teacher's reaction to pupils' responses
—teacher's awareness of pupils' needs and treatment provided
—steps taken to achieve the lesson objective

At a later stage, a focussed observation technique which all course participants find especially useful is to concentrate on what the pupils can perform in English and what English they have actually learned at the end of each step in the process of the lesson. This focussed observation technique forces the observer to bring to his conscious level the prerequisite skills and sub-skills for the mastery of the target skill. It helps the observer to identify the causes for failure much more quickly. It also helps the teacher to be much more careful with the planning of a lesson because it makes him aware of the importance of providing the pupils with a series of learning experiences which are closely related and directly leads to the final goal of the lesson.

Once the course participants have mastered a set of focussed observation techniques, we can observe a tremendous improvement in their lesson planning and in the way lessons are conducted.

Evaluation

At the end of the experimental teaching day, members of the same workshop group sit together and analyse in detail each of the experimental lessons conducted and observed by members of the group. The teacher will begin the evaluation session with an analysis of the process of the lesson. The focus is on how much English the children have learned and what they can do in English rather than how well the teacher has performed.

The observers will come in next and analyse the lesson from an outsider's point of view. If they have used different focal points, each of them will analyse the lesson from a different perspective. If, however, they have been following the same focal points, the evaluation may take the form of an open discussion.

The course tutor tries to stand aside as far as possible during an evaluation session and avoids passing judgement at all costs. This encourages the observers and teachers' to express their opinions more freely and gives them a greater sense of responsibility.

To divert attention from the person to the lesson, the evaluation discussion is focussed not so much on the teacher's qualities as on the process of the lesson and the achievement of the pupils. The ultimate aim is to try and work out a revised lesson plan which incorporates more effective teaching strategies and techniques suggested by the group.

Conclusion

In the ILE End-of-Course Questionnaire administered at the end of every refresher course, the majority of course participants state that they have found experimental teaching very useful. Through experimental teaching they can really transfer the concepts and skills they have learned to application and practice in the classroom and observe for themselves their own progress during the refresher course. To the course tutors experimental teaching provides a monitoring device in that if something does not work in an experimental lesson because of a weakness in the refresher programme itself, remediation measures can be taken in the following course unit.

I have not touched on the difficulties which accompany experimental teaching in our setting. Nevertheless, we are still experimenting with this idea and are constantly making changes to the organisation and administration of this very useful refresher training activity.

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278

普通話教學的幾項原則

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普通話(國語)教學近年在香港非常蓬勃，小學四年級正式開設課程，大專院校增設課程，團體辦的、私人辦的普通話學校林立。教學中積累了不少經驗，現在想把這些經驗整理一下，試圖找出一些普通話教學原則。

經過初步的分析、歸納，我提出下列七項原則。這些原則一定不整全，有的也許不能成立，甚至有錯誤，但還是提出來，爲的是有個展開討論的基礎。

這七項原則是：一、以培養技能爲主；
二、急需、適用者先教；
三、在交際活動中教；
四、激發學習動機；
五、利用認知結構中可資利用的東西；
六、提供助憶方法；
七、注意年齡特徵和個別差異。

我雖然主張以學習者爲中心，但教學中既有施教者，施教者也應該有他的作用，只不過施教者在教的過程中應該經常心懷〝學習者是怎樣學習的〞罷了。因此，說上述這些原則是從教的角度提出的也無妨。

一、以培養技能爲主

普通話教學的主要目的是讓學員實際掌握運用普通話進行交際(用於廣義的意義上)的能力，而不是研究或討論普通話本身。這本來是顯而易見的，因爲方言人去學習普通話，無非是想用普通話同別人交談，如果想研究或討論普通話本身，他們大可以去修現代漢語或其他語言學課程。但是，事實上，不少人却有意無意地在不同程度上把普通話課教成語言學課，使學員們不能最有效地利用他們的學習時間。

當然，我並不否認理論知識對掌握普通話能力的幫助，但知識傳授應從屬於培養技能——用普通話進行交際的技能——的需要。對培養技能有直接的幫助的知識，應該放在課程裡；對培養技能沒有直接幫助的，就不要放在課程裡。

學習一種語言的交際能力，無須通過在理論上對語音、語法、詞彙等系統的掌握，甚至可以說，僅僅從理論上掌握這些系統，反而不足以學到交際能力。這不僅對學習母語的小孩子是這樣，就是對學習共同語、第二語言甚至外語的學習者也是這樣。

所以，普通話教學應以培養技能爲主，漢語理論傳授爲輔，而且要把這些理論限定在一定的範圍內。

語言交際能力起碼可以分爲聽、說、讀、寫四方面，要全面發展交際能力，四個方面都要培養，但由於普通話是口語課，所以可以只限於聽、說兩個方面。不是說完全不利用讀與寫，比如說，朗讀和寫演講詞就都很能促進說話的能力，但是，聽能和說能還是普通話的直接目標。自然，聽能和說能也會促進讀和寫，但這只是間接的目標。

爲了培養學員的聽能和說能，可以考慮在說聽綜合課外另立說話和聽力兩個部門，分別專門培養這兩種能力，可惜這兩個部門的教材還少。

培養聽能說能的方式、方法是很多的，如問答、會話、講故事、角色扮演、演講、朗讀以及看圖說話、復述、座談、討論、辯論等等。

朗讀是讀和說的橋樑，是讓學員把書面語言轉化成口頭語言的一種良好手段。在香港，朗誦(包括普通話朗誦)是受到相當重視的。現在似乎需要把最能促進說話的部分從朗誦中分解出來。

二、急需、適用者先教

語言牽涉的範圍極廣，以詞彙而言，一般人不可能也沒有需要掌握某種語言的所有詞彙，就算是學問淵博的人，窮一生之力，也不見得能把所有的詞彙和慣用表達法掌握，靈活運用於口語中。因此，如果考慮到學員來自不同行業，專業和階層，年齡不同，文化水平不同等等因素，在設計課程時，對於教甚麼內容，應有緩急先後。教學順序無須追隨一定的系統，更無須追隨語言形式的系統，可以用學習者的急需和適用爲依據，急需、適用者先教，而在急需和適用兩者中，急需應更受重視。比如說，如果要訓練電話接綫生，接綫用語應最受重視，自我介紹和問路等內容都可以緩一步才教。

我不否認某種語言集團中有語言的共同核心。如果條件許可的話，應該教會學習這種語言的人這個核心，但就是在這個核心中，也可以分出緩急先後來。

一般而言，首先要教給學員的是跟他們生活、學習和社會交往中最有關係的、活的語言。這樣才能使學員在課堂上學到的東西，在實際生活中能用得上，做到學用結合，學以致用。

急需、適用者先教的原則可以幫助我們打破某種固定順序的框框。固然可以由簡單到複雜，但也不排除首先突破難點。

三、在交際活動中教

教學普通話的主要目標，不是通過講授達到，而是通過組織學員參加交際活動達到。只有在實踐中才能真正掌握語言；離開了實踐，是無法掌握語言的。語言教學是實踐性很強的學科，發音、單詞、表達方式、語法或句型，都只有在反復實踐中才能牢固掌握。因此，學習者要掌握普通話的技能，運用它來進行交際，就要通過自身的實踐。教學中要注意讓學員充分接觸普通話口語，提倡多聽、多說、多練、多記。從這一認識出發應該要求：

(1) 以交際項目爲主要綫索，來組織和設計全部教程；把普通話教學過程設計成人與人之間進行生動、活潑、合乎情理的交際過程。

(2) 把教材作爲交際工具來教。課堂上師生之間，學員之間的對話應力求自然，接近真實，做到有呼有應，有來有往。

(3) 設計富有交際性的練習，利用它在學員之間開展交際活動，盡可能讓學員有機會去表達思想，運用各種表達方式。

(4) 努力創造語言情境，激發學員求說意向，使他們在實踐中學，在實踐中用，學用結合，學了就用。

(5) 爲學員提供實際運用普通話交際的場所，開展多種課外活動，讓他們通過校內外，課內外各種途徑、方法進行實際交際活動，在交際中學習和掌握普通話。這樣做也能補充、鞏固課堂教學。

四、激發學習動機

當前的學習普通話熱潮是和學習者的動機分不開的，他們懷着不同的動機去求學，有的是爲了滿足學校、家長的要求；有的是爲了旅遊的需要；有的是爲了貿易的需要；有的是爲了就業準備；有的是爲了在能力上自我提高；有的是爲了和說普通話的人交往、認同；當然也有的是爲了一時的興趣和趕潮流……，學習動機雖有正誤之分，但以上述的動機而論，却都是值得尊重的。施教者的任務在於繼續培養和激發學習者的學習動機，使他們繼續學習下去，取得較好成績。

通過學習目的教育，通過培養求知慾的辦法來培養學習動機，固然是正確和值得採用的方法，但僅僅用這個方法還不夠，必須同時注意學習者對普通話的直接興趣，把像娛樂活動這樣的活動動機轉移到學習普通話來。直接興趣是由學習過程本身和學科的內容特點直接引起的。教學內容的新穎而實用、教師的適時適量的講解、學習的成就等，都可以引起學習的直接興趣。在學習目的不明確的情況下，利用看電視娛樂節目、集體遊戲、夏令營、旅遊等活動，往往也能使學習者把活動動機轉移到學習普通話來，產生學習需要。

即使學習者有了學習需要和動機，也必須採取方法把動機激發起來，使已形成的動機由潛伏狀態轉入活動狀態，學習動機的激發是在學習過程中進行的，主要從教學內容、教學方法和教學組織三方面入手。在具體的做法上，除了要明確每節課的目的外，還要注意學習者的直接興趣，適當地展開比賽，肯定學習成果，適當地評價，適當地表揚和鼓勵等等。

純粹遷就學習興趣，難免會引起偏廢，固然不值得提倡。但有些方法，在普通話教學中確能引起興趣，如看圖敘述、角色扮演、邊唱邊學、討論與學員生活有關的話題等等，都值得認真考慮採用。

學習者在語言學習中，不是經常可以覺察到自己的成績的。因此，施教者應該肯定能肯定的一切，以增强他們的學習信心。

語言學習，包括共同語和第二語言學習，都是一個從錯誤逐步走向正確的過程，其間錯誤是不可避免的。有錯立即糾，不見得能收效，應該分階段提出要求。有錯就指責，更不應該，應該給予適當表揚和鼓勵。當然也要批評缺點，但批評也要採用巧妙的方式，最好把批評和表揚結合起來用，達到鼓勵的作用。

五、利用認知結構中可資利用的東西

方言人學習共同語，認知結構中可資利用的東西是很不少的。他們都有一套不自覺的、但却能變成技能的漢語知識。在這種知識中，語音、詞彙部份差異較大，語法部份差異較少。學習者要學的主要是似同而實異和方言中所無的部份。相同的部份，可以借助學習中的正遷移(transfer)，充分加以利用，以減輕學習者的負擔，加快學習速度。

學習共同語與學習外語不同，因爲一般而言，共同語和方言的共同部份較多，所以教／學法都和外語教／學法有所不同。比如說，對粵方言人來說，普通話的代詞系統和數量詞系統，都無須一一細述。〝們〞在書面語中都是接觸過的，注意的應是〝你〞、〝您〞在用法上和發音上的特點和差別。〝數／指＋量＋名〞這樣的結構也是掌握了的，注意的應是普通話裡說〝這蝦〞而不拿〝些人〞作主語(粵語〝啲人〞可以)之類。

方言和共同語的共同部份，是應該提到但無須細述的，不僅詞彙、語法部份是這樣，就是語音部份也是這樣。比如說，普通話的bP，和粵語裡的[P][P']，雖然細緻描寫起來不無分別，但就教學的觀點而言，可以認爲是相同的，無須特別着力。這就利用了認知結構中可資利用的東西。如果不想把普通話教成或學成無輕聲的語言，輕聲對粵方言人來說倒是應該特別着意的。因爲輕聲在粵語裡沒有甚麼可利用的，不但應該從理論上闡明輕聲怎樣發，還要通過長期反復的練習，把這新的發音方式鞏固下來。

六、提供助憶方法

光憑記憶固然學不會語言，但不靠記憶也是學不好語言的。學習者經常跟遺忘作鬥爭，教師如能提供可行的助憶方法，一定會受到學習者的歡迎。

要提供可行的助憶方法，當然要對記憶和遺忘的特性有較深入的認識。這裡不打算分析各種理論和實驗，只想非常簡略地引證前人的一些發現。

影響記憶的因素是不少的，就學習而言，學習材料——〝材料的意義深長性，材料引起意象的能力和材料中各個項目之間的關係〞(D. Krech 等著、周先庚等譯《心理學綱要》下册303頁，北京文化教育出版社，1980)和呈現學習材料的方法都會影響記憶和學習的速度。學習材料是由學習的需要和目的決定的，我們暫且不考慮改善學習材料，只考慮改善學習材料的呈現方法。

在長時記憶中，有所謂群集(clustering)和主觀的組織。W. A. Bousfield和他的同事們證明，〝在要求被試者根據呈現的混合編制的詞表(其中包括專門名詞、動物、蔬菜和職業四種詞類)進行回憶時，他們往往把屬於同一類目聯結在一起，而不是按照呈現的次序報告〞(1)。如果我們在編排教材時能考慮到以上這些，對幫助學習者記憶也許不無補助。

意象(imagery)是〝詞在'內心裡的圖畫'。借助視覺、聽覺、嗅覺和觸覺映象，可以大爲促進語言材料的學習和記憶。意象豐富的詞比意象貧乏的詞更容易學習。具有非凡記憶的人，常常把言語材料和視覺意象聯系起來，作爲記憶大量訊息的基礎。長期以來，意象促進記憶的問題受到人們的普遍重視。大量的研究表明，根據學習材料設想出新奇鮮明的視覺意象，比不用意象效果要好得多〞(2)。

七、注意年齡特徵和個別差異

普通話學習者在年齡上的差異是很明顯的，有兒童，有青少年，有成人，甚至老人，他們學習語言的能力、思維能力、注意力和記憶力等都不同。因此，在教法和學法上不同也是當然的。

普通話學習者雖然可以看爲一個集體，但到底是由各別的個體組成的。這些個體無論在性格、興趣、能力等心理特性方面都難免有異，而這些差異無疑對學習的效果發生影響。只有根據學習者的年齡特徵和個別差異，因材施教，才能取得最好的效果。

談到年齡特徵和個別差異，使人想起個別教學。個別教學重視個別差異，允許學生用不同的速度學習，甚至在一週內在甚麼時間、花多少時間去學習都可以，是值得研究的。由於廣泛使用電腦、錄音帶、錄像帶，個別教學並不等於一位老師對一個學生的教學。

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(1) 燕國材、蕭毓秀〝記憶與學習〞條，《中國大百科全書》教育卷，上海中國大百科全書出版社，1985，頁137。

(2) 同上。

中文教師語言教學能力的再提高

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香港文化教育出版社

語言教學廣義地說，是對學生進行聽、說、讀、寫的全面訓練，提高學生口頭語言、書面語言的表達、理解能力。本文談語言教學是從狹義方面說，即對漢字、漢語詞彙、語音、語法、修辭以及有關的邏輯知識的教學，習慣上也叫做語言知識或語文知識的教學。

中文教師語言教學能力的再提高涉及兩個方面的因素，一是對漢語言文字的規律、特點要有較深入的認識，一是對自己的教學對象有較深入的了解。在這個前提下，就可以揣摩如何改進、完善自己的教學方法，以收到理想的教學效果。

(一)

先說第一個問題，即對漢語的規律、特點的認識。常常因爲漢語是我們的母語而忽略對它的規律、特點的認識。呂叔湘先生寫過一本《中國人學英語》的書，出過多版，十分暢銷，因爲作者給讀者提出了一條事半功倍的路子。書中談到原理和方法時，有一句十分醒目的話，即〝英語不是漢語〞，這是告訴學英語的人，不要把英語當作和漢語差不多的東西看待。我們借用這句話的意思，也來說一句〝漢語不是英語〞，在教學漢語時，不要把漢語當作和英語或者其他什麼語差不多的東西看待。

作爲中文教師，漢語言文字的特點要成竹在胸，這是教學的基本功。但不少情況證明，並不是大學中文系畢業出來的學生都已能達到預期的水準，更不用說一些因種種原因，〝半路出家〞改教中文的教師。所以，提高教師自身的知識水平，是中文教師延續教育中仍然要重視的問題。這個道理很簡單，平常我們誇讚一所學校是名校，或者是重點學校，主要指這所學校有一批知識水準高的教師，而不是指別的。

那麼，什麼是漢語言文字的規律性的東西，有沒有準確、全面的標準答案，這要參考當時漢語科學研究的情況。以當前的情況看，漢語言文字研究者、教學人員仍在不斷探討這個問題，有些問題是有爭議的，但在相當多的方面也取得了一致的意見，在漢字、語音、詞彙、語法等方面至少可以列舉如下一些特點：

1. **漢字** 漢字是一種獨特的文字，它是形、音、義的結合體，在形體、表音、表義方面都有獨自的特點，不同於拼音文字。漢字以形聲字爲

主體，現代常用漢字以6 763個來計算的話，形聲字佔百分之九十以上(1)。了解了形聲字的形旁和聲旁的作用和局限，就基本上明瞭了漢字的性質。比如，聲旁表音有幾種不同類型，有的聲旁和字同音，或者音近；有的聲旁表示幾個音節；有的則和字音不同，表音作用消失。據統計，現代漢字聲旁的有效表音率是百分之三十九左右。難怪″秀才認字念半邊″對錯的機會差不多參半。

2. **語音** 現代漢語語音系統比起古音和方音來說，具有簡易性，學習起來容易掌握。在音節中元音佔主要地位，開口呼也多，加上四聲、兒化、輕重音的變化，使得漢語節奏鮮明，韻律和諧，富於音樂性。以語音的特點來說，最重要的是聲調，它是構成音節的要素，聲調有區別詞性或詞義的作用。漢語的聲母和韻母相拼，有四百多個音節，加上聲調(四聲)和輕聲，就構成了一千三百多個音節，適應了漢語構詞的需要，減少了同音語素。學習普通話，聲調既是重點，也是難點。

3. **詞彙** 構詞的最小單位是語素。單音節語素是語素的基本形式，從古代漢語到現代漢語，單音節語素數量最多，雙音節、多音節語素沒有發展的趨勢。單音節語素組合起來方便自如，十分活躍，可以組成大量的雙音合成詞，從發展看，雙音合成詞的數量越來越多，適應社會發展的需要。這一點，不僅構成了漢語詞彙的一個重要特徵，也成爲現代漢語的一個特徵。

4. **語法** 漢語不是形態語言，不同於一些形態語言，如名詞有性、數、格的變化，動詞有時、體、式的變化。漢語有五級語言單位：語素、詞、短語(詞組)、句子、句群，各級語言單位組合有漢語自身的特點。各級語言單位的組合關係大致上是一致的，都有並列、修飾、陳述、支配、補充等這樣一些基本關係，而且組合起來比較容易，具有靈活性，組合時又有多種變換形式。

語言單位組合的兩個重要手段是語序和虛詞。就語序來說，不同的語序常常反映不同的組合關係。語序有一般的規律，它既反映一定的邏輯事理，又反映一定的語言習慣，有時也有靈活的一面。再以虛詞來說，虛詞主要表示語法意義，它可以作爲組合實詞的手段，在組合中起關聯作用。關聯詞語是組合關係的一種重要標誌。對於沒有形態變化的漢語來說，虛詞有很重要的作用。

5. **修辭** 漢語的修辭也有消極修辭和積極修辭之分。詞語和句式的選擇是漢語修辭的基礎。漢語在語音、詞彙、語法各方面所形成的特點，都爲修辭方式的豐富提供了可利用的條件。

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(1) 中國國家標準《信息交換用漢字編碼字符集基本集》提供有現代常用漢字的材料，第一級常用字3 755個，第二級次常用字3 008個。

關於漢語的特點，特別是各個方面的特點，還有許多細緻的描寫，以上只是擇要舉例來說。學漢語和教漢語，要把握住它的本質特點，如果以英語和其他語言來比附，則會遮住了英語的真面目。

漢語的規律、特點都是從漢語運用的實際中歸納總結出來的。掌握了這些規律，具備了漢語的基礎知識、基礎理論，就對自己的母語有了科學的認識。有了這種認識，可以進一步轉化爲自如地運用漢語來表達和理解的能力，轉化爲辨別語言運用中正誤優劣的能力。

作爲中文教師，先不論教學方法，要熟練掌握、自如運用漢語，就要以明瞭漢語的特點爲前提，像是一個熟練運用電腦的人，要以明瞭電腦的特點爲前提一樣。

(二)

再說第二個問題，即對自己的教學對象的認識。

在中國內地，學生的母語是漢語，學生生活、學習在母語的語言環境中，只不過這環境有方言區的差別。在香港，由於歷史、社會的多方面原因，各級各類學校中教學語言不少用英語，官方語言也以英語爲準，這就有一些不同於內地的特殊情況。但就大部份學生來說，離開課堂(就是在課堂上，也有不少教師用廣東話教英語課本)，多是用廣東話交際，也還是生活、學習在一個方言區裏。

中文教師教學的對象是以漢語爲母語的中國人，這就決定了語言教學內容是應有選擇的，在中小學的各個年級教學內容應有系列的安排，而不必面面俱到。比如，漢語的量詞是對外漢語教學的難點，一位美國朋友問我，爲什麼可以說一張紙、一張桌子，不可以說一張書，可以說一個桌子、一個杯子，不可以說一個紙。這當然是漢語的約定俗成。而中國孩子掌握量詞並不困難，因爲從小習用。再比如，在詞類教學時，講到名詞的性質，常常會以語法書中的條條來講，說名詞前不受副詞修飾，其實學生從來不會寫出〝不學校〞〝非常課本〞這樣不通的話。這樣的條條可以忽略不講。要教給學生的是那些他們常常容易忽略而又容易出錯的內容。以〝甲是乙〞這樣的判斷句式爲例，要讓學生懂得，甲和乙或是同一關係，或是從屬關係，當句子複雜化時特別要注意檢查甲和乙是否搭配。至於〝是〞字句的活用形式，學生倒不大會出錯。

在方言區教學，還要對學生多一重認識，就是他的表達和理解的能力會受到方言的影響。在語言的規範化上要有所要求，教學中則多一重任務。

如果對學生的認識僅僅停留在他們是以漢語爲母語這一點上，還嫌籠統了一些，必須了解他們在不同的年齡、不同的年級掌握母語的真正水平。目前，內地的教學大綱，香港的課程綱要，都有對各年級的不同教學

內容和要求的明文規定，這些規定表示的是教師教學應達到的水準，至於學生的實際水平是怎樣的，就要靠教師做一些細緻的調查。這種調查很辛苦，但是值得去做。

我曾經參加過一次對中國內地中學生語文狀況的調查研究，以福建、四川兩省的六所學校爲試點，其中有一項是對三百篇作文《我最喜愛的一部電影》的分析。分析是從作文的篇章結構以至詞語句子的運用、標點符號的運用、錯別字現象等各方面來進行的。以句子的問題來說，三百篇作文抄出病句卡片共1 506張，平均每篇病句五個。錯用標點符號共2 656處，平均每篇錯用九處。又將病句的類型列爲四大類十三小類，其中虛詞使用不當而造成病句的情況很多，特別是一些常用介詞⑵用不準確。經過這次調查，對中學生的語文水平的了解就不只是憑印象，而是有大量的數據材料⑶。當然，從全國的情況看，這種調查雖然有一定代表性，但還不夠全面和詳細，要有更多的調查點、更多的取樣，才有進行數量分析的依據。

對擔任具體教學工作的中文教師來說，只要對自己所教班級學生的語言運用情況心中有數就可以了。要做到〝心中有數〞，確實要做一些數量計算的工作。以一篇作文來說，統計一下全班學生病句有多少，詞彙、語法、邏輯、修辭各方面存在的問題佔的比例是多少，哪些語病是有代表性的，在全班講評作文時，要做重點講解，哪些毛病是個別的，可以在面批作文時糾正。每一次作文都做類似的統計，看看經過教學以後，哪些情況有改變，又出現了哪些新問題，再針對新問題去教學。

如果一位教師能從中一教到中三(中國內地叫初一到初三)，他又是一位有心人的話，就可以積累不同年齡段不同年級段學生語文水平的情況；如果有許多位教師同時做這種細緻的統計工作，從小學到中學的各個年段學生的情況都可以有數據積累。從大量的材料中再進行分類分析，有些情況的出現會帶有規律性。這一工作可以大大有助於教師教學的針對性。

可惜的是，至今我們還說不準，以漢語爲母語的學生，在各個年段，就語言知識來說，存在哪些有代表的問題，特別需要教授哪些知識。一般的安排，都是將語言知識的各門類系統地由淺入深地編寫到教材裏。以中國內地語文教材來看，語法中複句的知識就安排到初三年級才系統講，但學生對這一知識的需要很可能要早於初三。這種情況不能不說是教學研究中很大的不足。

⑵ 把、被、對於、關於等。
⑶ 全面材料見《中學語文教學現狀和設想》一書，人民教育出版社出版。

(三)

在較透徹地認識了教學內容和教學對象之後，才有較好的條件來討論教學方法的問題。

教學有一定的方法，這些方法都是教學者工作的積累，好的教學法有很大的參考價值。但方法不是一成不變的公式，它要隨教學內容、教學對象的不同時時變化。可以說，教學既有一定之規，又沒有一定之規。以小學的識字教學爲例來說，現在中國內地有多種教學法，有代表性的：〝集中識字〞是一種，〝注音識字、提前讀寫〞是又一種。兩種方法分得出優劣嗎？我看很難。這裏用得上一句俗話：〝黑貓白貓，抓住老鼠就是好貓。〞只要你用的方法使學生既迅速又準確地會認會念會寫多少多少漢字、你的方法就是好方法。

當然，方法中要含有科學的因素，不可因求快想出一些不符合科學的方法。比如，集中識字的方法、必然要包含着對漢字的形體作科學的分析，特別是講解形聲字的形旁和聲旁。有的教師爲適應兒童求活的心理，編一些話題來分析漢字。一位姓馬的教師教學生〝罵〞字時，說〝上面是兩個小朋友的兩個口，下面是馬老師的馬字，馬老師教這兩個小朋友不罵人。〞還有一位教師教〝球〞字，有下面一段說法：左邊的王字旁，表示球賽的裁判姓王。右邊的豎鈎〝亅〞是球場的中界綫。一橫和豎鈎交界後，上方形成兩個球門，如：寸。下面的點、提、撇、捺，表示雙方比賽時，你把球踢過來，我把球踢過去，如：〝求〞。右上方的一點，表示有一方把球踢入了對方的大門，到此比賽結束，完成了字的右邊：〝求〞。這類教法是值得商榷的，〝罵〞、〝球〞都不是會意造字，而是形聲字，以上的分析都離開了關於漢字的科學知識，這種教法只是一時能活躍課堂氣氛，不能解決學生舉一反三識漢字的問題。

在中國語文科的語言教學中，從方法上來說，是否有以下幾方面值得注意：

1. 教學語言問題

中小學的中文教學，無論在中國內地，還是台灣、香港、澳門、以及海外華人社會，都以用普通話(國語、華語)爲好。這是提高學生中文水平的一個很重要的途徑。在上中文課時，教師、學生都說普通話，形成了一個聽、說、讀、寫的規範的語言環境。如果學生用普通話的語言形式思維，再加以條理，寫出來就會是通順的現代白話。

方言和普通話在語音、詞彙、語法各方面都有差異，如果中文課用方言教學，這方面的差異會影響學生的語言文字的規範。仍以在福建、四川兩省六所學校的調查爲例，三百篇作文中出現的錯別字總數爲2 641個，再加以分析歸納，一個字不管寫成錯字或別字多少次都只算一個字，這樣

總計有1 382個。其中錯字566個，別字816個。音近而誤的別字佔別字總數的67%，佔錯別字總數的39%。產生這樣多音近而誤的別字，一個主要原因是學生受方音的影響。如果學生識字時不是按普通話標準音唸字，而是按方音唸字，加上漢字裡本來有不少同音字的情況，學生寫別字的機會就會增多。

在香港書面語中有這樣一種文風，包括三個“夾雜”：普通話與粵方言夾雜，文言和白話夾雜，漢語和英文夾雜。這種文風不能不影響到學生。爲了提高學生的中文水平，香港教育署課程發展委員會1985年頒佈了《小學普通話科暫定課程綱要(小四至小六)》，根據教育署的要求在小學四年級到六年級要設置普通話科，這一工作正在逐步推行中。這一措施極有利於推動母語教學，小學生聽說普通話的能力會有很快提高，這又會促進他們讀寫能力的提高。設普通話科的做法，在中國內地的方言區也是值得仿效的。一旦中國語文的教學都用普通話，中文教師本身能說流利的普通話，普通話科則可以不設。而在現階段，普通話科可作爲中國語文科的補充。

2. 語言訓練的成套練習設計

彈鋼琴的科班訓練是十分嚴格的，一套一套的練習曲，按部就班地規定下來，學生不可以越雷池，去彈些隨便的小曲。語言訓練的成套練習雖不必那樣嚴格，但也應該像鋼琴練習那樣系統，訓練後能收到應有的成效。

現在中國內地，香港，都見到成批成批的語文練習册，不少是爲應付各級考試用的。本來爲考試服務也是正當的，考試題考的就是學生的知識和運用這些知識的能力。但是，考試的題目總是有限的，如果只是圍繞歷來的考題或想像中的考題打圈圈，練習的設計就會背離正常的軌道。

我們希望設計成套的培養學生能力的練習。以句型練習來說，漢語的句型從單句到複句，到多重複句有多種類型，設計的練習中應包括這所有的類型，讓學生樣樣都見到。訓練的方式又是多種的，比如，表達一個簡單的思想，用什麼樣的單句；在不同的交際場合，選用哪一種單句最好，是陳述句、疑問句，還是把字句、被字句。表達一個較複雜的思想，可以用複雜的單句，也可以用複句。複雜的單句又有幾種方式，有的是某一部分複雜，有的是修飾成份多，枝幹上添枝加葉。複句中分句的組合也有不同情況，關聯詞語的搭配和位置變化也很多。更複雜的意思，用多重複句，或者用句群。按着這條思路，句型練習可以設計得豐富多彩，又切合實用。

練習設計要注意側重於正面練習，拿出各式標準的樣子給學生看，有示範的作用。先入爲主，學生容易接受和模仿。改錯性的練習是輔助性

的，改錯的東西多了，會喧賓奪主，學生也會模仿錯的東西。而且，改的"錯"一定是學生易出的毛病，而不是生造的"錯"。

只有又熟悉教學內容，又了解學生的教師，才能設計出好的練習來。

3. 語言知識的綜合教學

語音、詞彙、語法、修辭等知識雖各成系統，但彼此都是左鄰右舍，有密切的關係。在中學語文教學中，將這些有關語言的知識綜合起來教學，會收到很好的效果。

表達能力强，一定是合乎語法規範，合乎邏輯事理，修辭又十分得體。表達有問題，通常是語法、修辭、邏輯的毛病都有。教師在教學中要對學生的表達有準確的語感，注意從各個方面進行指點。

下面一段話是從中國內地一本優秀中學生作文選中摘錄出來的：

> "登上埂堤，向前望去；一大片綠油油的蔬菜在黃昏的風裏沙沙搖曳，菜田右側是茵茵的綠草，肥沃、嫩細，也隨風蕩漾着，其間點綴着萬點無名小花，有紅的、黃的、紫的……雖不姹紫嫣紅，却是五光十色，放出沁人心脾的馨芳。幾條羊腸小道蜿蜒地盤繞在草間，交錯雜綜，有的好像剛被人踏過。這路，條條坎坷，時而顯出，時而又隱匿芳草下。此時此地，人人都會即景生情，浮想聯翩的。

這一段話表面看來詞語多姿多彩，實際上經不起推敲，詞彙、語法、修辭、邏輯的毛病都有，語言表達的基本功存在不少問題。學生寫的文字有毛病並不稀奇，遺憾的是教師看不出毛病，把文章選入優秀的等級。如果教師有很好的語言基本功，對學生表達中的問題就會很敏感，很快發現問題在什麼地方，然後對症下藥。

語言知識的綜合教學法，要比單一地講各門類的名稱術語解決學生的實際問題。經過不少教師試驗，是一個行之有效的方法。

4. 語言知識教學輔助語文教學

語言知識教學是語文教學的一個重要組成部分，它的作用是從一個方面來幫助提高學生的中文水平。既不必誇大它的作用，也不能縮小它的作用。

語言知識教學也不一定要佔多少獨立的課時，它可以一直活躍在語文課堂中，無時不在、無處不在。教師教學運用得法，可以把語言知識滲透在閱讀、寫作教學中。

在武漢市一所中學的初三課室裏，曾經有過一次關於《孔乙己》的一句話的熱烈辯論。那是全文的最後一句話：

> "我到現在終於沒有見——大約孔乙己的確死了。"

一位同學說，魯迅犯了邏輯錯誤，一句話裡前面用"大約"，是不肯定的語氣，後面接着用"的確"，又是十分肯定的語氣，這不是違反了思維的

基本規律矛盾律了嗎？這位學生給教師出了一個很好的題目，這就是修辭裏講的詞語選擇的問題。作者的匠心也從這裡得到反映。〝大約〞表示〝我〞的一種推測，因爲沒有聽到孔乙己〝死〞的確信；而〝的確〞則反映了孔乙己受到各種摧殘後，〝死〞的必然。把〝大約〞和〝的確〞用在一句裏，是表示一種肯定的推斷。這裏要借助語言知識講透，學生才能理解原文。

各地的語文課本都可以說是名家名作的薈萃。所謂〝名〞，就名在語言精到。在閱讀教學中怎麼能脫離開作品語言的運用，去進行空洞的分析。語言知識教學的輔佐作用，在每堂課裡都會看得很清楚。我看，語言知識教學完全不必非要獨佔山頭，獨立出來，顯出自己的〝重要〞。只要無聲無息地滲透在語文教學聽、說、讀、寫訓練的全過程裏，讓人感到處處離不了它，時時需要它，那才是真正的重要。

LANGUAGE ERRORS DUE TO FIRST LANGUAGE INTERFERENCE (CANTONESE) PRODUCED BY HONG KONG STUDENTS OF ENGLISH

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Introduction

1. Many teachers of English as a foreign language do not know, or only have a slight knowledge of, the first language of their students. This is particularly applicable in Hong Kong, where relatively few non-Chinese teachers speak Cantonese with any fluency. During the course of their work, they observe a number of errors occurring again and again, for which their language competence does not permit them to find the reason. It is our observation that many of these errors can be related directly to the influence of Cantonese.

2. This study is primarily a piece of descriptive linguistics, and is not based on any particular theory of language acquisition. We have, however, worked on the assumption that first-language interference is one major cause of student error. We find this to be self-evident as a general principle, though individual errors are often far more complex in origin.

3. English is an Indo-European language, while Cantonese belongs to the Sino-Tibetan group. The structure and patterns of the language and its culture are consequently further away from English than those of, for example, French or German. As a result many first-language-induced errors are more marked in the case of Cantonese than in the case of a European first language. In this paper we have tried to restrict ourselves to such errors as are least likely to cause disagreement among readers. However, error interpretation is a complex subject, and choosing the most important out of a range of reasons for a single error is a subjective exercise; there may therefore be disagreement on points of detail. This does not reflect the incorrectness of our approach, but the complexity and subjectivity of any interpretation.

4. We have deliberately restricted this project to first-language interference, and have tried to eliminate errors from other sources, of which the commonest are probably errors caused by muddles in the target language, and muddles caused by teachers (many of these are 'second-generation first-language interference', as they are induced by an inadequate grasp of the target language by teachers whose own first language is Cantonese).

5. We have also restricted the paper to morphology, syntax, and lexical items, and have only included phonological items where they have an influence on morphs.

6. A number of structures and usages in any language fall within a grey area in which not even native speakers will necessarily agree on whether a mistake has been made. In particular, every variety of the language offers its own peculiarities which may be considered errors by those to whom another variety of the language is native (e.g. an Englishman may consider some American usages wrong).

7. We wish to emphasise strongly that there is no place for theory until a large body of observed data exists on the basis of which a theory may be formulated. This paper is an attempt to present and organise some of the data.

Method of study

8. Material for analysis was collected as far as possible from original material, written work by students, videotapes of assessment interviews with students of various levels of competence, a questionnaire filled in by teachers at the British Council, and our own knowledge of student error based on many years of teaching and interest in the subject. Our only published source was the following:

Chen, E. P. 1970. Common Errors in Written English made by Chinese-speaking Learners. English Bulletin, Education Dept, Hong Kong 1960–70.

9. From the data thus collected, we selected those items which appeared to us to be the result of first language interference. These are presented below.

Organisation of material

10. The material has been organised as follows:

- A. Morphology (i.e. word level)(paragraph 11)
- B. Syntax: word level: noun phrase: articles+demonstratives (12)
  - relative structures (13)
  - adjective modifiers (14)
  - adjective/adjectival abstracts (15)
  - word order (16)
  - verb phrase: contrastive systems (17)
  - word order (18)
  - sentence level: word order (19)
  - discourse level: subordinating conjunctions (20)
  - indirect speech (21)
  - question tags (22)
  - responsives (23)
  - connectives in written style (24)
- C. Lexis: single words (25)
  - combinations of two or more words (26)
- D. Unclassified (27)

11. Morphology

Apart from certain living suffixes used in word formation (-NESS, -LY), English has the following living morphs:

-ER/ə/	forms the comparative of monosyllabic and some other adjectives
-EST/ist/	forms the superlative of monosyllabic and some other adjectives
-ED/d/id/t/	forms the simple past and past (passive) participle of regular verbs
-S,-ES/z/iz/s/	forms the regular plural of nouns forms the third person singular of the simple present of verbs
-'s/z/iz/s/	forms the possessive of singular nouns
-ING/iŋ/	forms the gerund of verbs

Cantonese speakers show no trace of first language interference in acquiring the suffixes -ER, -EST, -ING. The errors of usage and appropriacy which occur do not appear to be based on Cantonese. Suffixes -ED and -S, -ES, -'S, however, are dropped even by quite advanced learners, and this does seem to have a first language cause. The cause does not appear to be conceptual, because

(1) It is not true, as often alleged, that Cantonese has no concept of plurality. Regular plural forms occur in personal pronouns which add the plural morph *-deih* 哋

ngóh I 我 *ngóhdeih* We 我哋

In the noun group a contrastive system exists, where the classifier *di* expresses plurality

nī bún syù this book 呢本書 *nī dī syù* these books 呢啲書

(2) Students appear not to confuse the third person singular with the other persons where these are clearly marked, e.g. HE IS: THEY ARE; the confusion occurs in the verb forms (not pluralised in Cantonese), not the pronouns.

(3) Students have no conceptual problems with the morphological contrast GO: WENT.

It therefore appears that the problem lies on the phonological level, and is principally caused by the absence of final consonant clusters in Cantonese, which consequently a Cantonese native speaker finds difficulty in enunciating in English (cf. the difficulty experienced by an English native speaker in enunciating initial *ng* in Cantonese). In detail this problem can be shown as follows:

(1) Cantonese has no syllable-final /s/ or /z/, let alone any clusters consisting of consonant+/s/ or /z/. A very high proportion of English plurals (WORD+S(ES)) involve such a cluster:

SHIPS LOADS EATS THINGS

(2) Cantonese does have a syllable-final /t/ (unexploded, however) but no/d/ and no clusters consisting of consonant+/t/ or /d/. Such

groups form a high proportion of past tense/participle verb forms in English:

SHIPPED LOANED WASHED RAISED

12. **Syntax: phrase level: noun phrase: articles and demonstratives**

The contrastive systems of English and Cantonese differ at many points; errors occur at these points of difference.

Cantonese has the following contrastive system:

(1) 0 + NOUN Unmarked form

haih gáu	It's a dog, They're dogs 係狗
sihk gáu	to eat dog 食狗
gáu móuh yihk	Dogs don't have wings 狗無翼

(2) CLASSIFIER + NOUN Singularised form

haih jek gáu	It's a dog (*NOT* two) 係隻狗 It's the dog (the one we know)

(3) NUMERAL + CLASSIFIER + NOUN Numeral form

yāt jek gáu	one dog 一隻狗
sahp jek gáu	ten dogs 十隻狗
daih sàam jek gáu	the third dog 第三隻狗

(4) DEMONSTRATIVE + CLASSIFIER Singular noun with demonstrative

nī jek gáu	this dog 呢隻狗
gó jek gáu	that dog (the dog we are talking about) 嗰隻狗

(5) POSSESSOR + CLASSIFIER + NOUN Singular noun with possessor

ngo jek gáu	my dog 我隻狗

(6) *dī* + NOUN Pluralised form

dī gáu hái bīndouh	Where are the dogs? (known) 啲狗喺邊度
dī gáu móuh yihk	dogs don't have wings 啲狗無翼

(7) DEMONSTRATIVE + *dī* + NOUN Plural noun with demonstrative

nīdī gáu	these dogs 呢啲狗
gódī gáu	those dogs 嗰啲狗 (the dogs we are talking about)

(8) POSSESSOR + *dī* + NOUN Plural noun with possessor

néih dī gáu	your dogs 你啲狗

This system does not correspond with English at points 1, 2, and 6, and is a source of numerous errors, such as

(*a*) No article where English requires one (Cantonese form 1 above)
My work is in office (= IN AN OFFICE) S 84
I go market (= TO THE MARKET) s 84
It was intelligent cat (= AN INTELLIGENT CAT) W 84 (Form V)
A story about Roman Empire W 84 (Form VII)

(*b*) THE where English does not require it
I get up early and go to the bed early Chen 70
It's in the Central S 84 (Form 1 above)
The shoes are expensive S 84 (Form 6 above)
Since they are not being the members of this hostel W 84 (Form VII)

(*c*) THE for A (Cantonese form 2 above)
I have the dog W 84

(*d*) ONE for A (since Cantonese *yāt jek gáu* 一隻狗 is ONE/A DOG)
Suddenly one cat jumped into my garden W 84 (Form V)

(*e*) THOSE where English requires 0 (or sometimes THE) (Cantonese form 7 above)

13. Syntax: phrase level: noun phrase: relative structures

There are three relative structures in Cantonese.

(1) The first, referring to an indefinite noun, consists of simple juxtaposition.
This is reflected in the English of Cantonese speakers
e.g. Hong Kong is a small island has a large population Chen 70
(=a small island which has a large population,
a small island with a large population)
reflecting Cantonese 香港係一個細海島有好大嘅人口
Heunggong haih yātgo sai hoidóu yaúh hoú daaih ge yahn háu
HONGKONG IS ONE+cl SMALL ISLAND HAVE VERY BIG POPULATION
I saw a big car only carried one person Chen 70
(a big car carrying only one person, a big car which was carrying only one person)
reflecting Cantonese 我睇到一架大車只不過有一個人
Ngóh táidou yātga daaih chè jí bātgwo yaúh yātgo yàhn
I SAW ONE+cl BIG CAR ONLY HAVE ONE+cl PERSON
Similarly:—There was a fire broke out Chen 70
They have some people barbecue over there VT 84
(=there are some people who have barbecues over there)

(2) The second, interchangeable with the first but not identical in code, is formed by placing the relative structure in front of the noun, with the adjectival suffix *-ge*. Thus the above sentence could also occur as:
香港係一個好大嘅人口嘅細海島
Heunggóng haih yātgo hóu daaihge yāhnháu ge sai hóidóu
HONGKONG IS ONE+cl HAVE VERY BIG POPULATION+adj SMALL ISLAND
A rare reflex of this structure is found in:—
the unknown named man (=the man whose name was unknown) W 84 (Form VII)

(3) The third, referring to a definite noun, is formed by placing the relative structure in front of the noun cluster immediately preceded by *gó-* 'that' and the relevant classifier.
e.g. *Ngóh taùhsīn máai góbuṅ syù* 'the book I've just bought'
I JUST BUY THAT+cl BOOK 我頭先買嗰本書
This structure is reflected in the English of Cantonese speakers as in the following example:
better than those buses to Shek O VT 84

(=better than the buses to Shek O, better than the buses that go to Shek O) (cf. also 12e above)

which reflects *Hoúgwo (heui) Sehk O gódī bāsí*

GOOD THAN (GO) SHEK O THOSE BUSES 好過(去)石澳嗰啲巴士

14. Syntax: phrase level: noun phrase: adjective modifiers

Cantonese has two adjective modifiers *hóu* 好 and *géi* 幾 which between them combine the functions of VERY and QUITE in English. The distribution, however, is not the same and this is reflected in the English of Cantonese speakers.

hóu 好 in affirmative sentences corresponds to English *VERY* and is no problem.

géi 幾 in affirmative sentences corresponds approximately to English QUITE (though it is more positive) and causes little trouble.

In negative sentences, both *géi* and *hóu* correspond to English VERY, but *géi* is far more usual. Students learn QUITE as the equivalent of *géi* (true only in affirmative sentences); they then carry this over to negative sentences, giving rise to

Business is not quite well S 84
(=business is not very good)

reflecting *saàngyi m̀haih géi hóu* BUSINESS IS NOT *géi* GOOD
生意唔係幾好

It's not quite easy to sell the product (=it isn't very easy . . . .)

reflecting *M̀haih géi yùhngyi maai chaánbán* 唔係幾容易賣產品
IS NOT *géi* EASY SELL PRODUCT

15. Syntax: phrase level; noun phrase: adjective/adjectival abstracts

Cantonese has a very large category of words which can function both as adjectives and as the corresponding abstract noun.

Thus *jihyaùh* 自由 is both FREE and FREEDOM/LIBERTY

English separates the two categories, often forming an abstract noun from the adjective (RED: REDNESS).

Cantonese speakers frequently confuse the two categories, erring particularly in using the abstract noun for the adjective as in the following:

I have freedom times (=I have free time) S 84
I want to be more confidence to deal with foreigners (=confident) S 84
His schoolmates are also very friendship to him (=friendly) S 84
She is such a pity girl (=pitiable) W84 (Form V)
What a really disappointment life (=disappointing) W 84 (Form VII)

Adjective for noun is much rarer, but

The fairy accused Puck for doing mischievous (=mischief) W 85 (post-sec)

It is not clear why the noun for adjective error should be much commoner than adjective for noun, unless this is caused by the citation, in Chinese-English dictionaries, of English nouns before English adjectives.

16. Syntax: phrase level: noun phrase: word order

(1) A SUCH for SUCH A

He is a such good man (=such a good man) W 84

reflects Cantonese

haih yātgo gam hoúge yàhn 係一個咁好嘅人

IS ONE SO GOOD MAN

(2) AS .... noun AS POSSIBLE replaced by noun AS .... AS POSSIBLE

We must build flyovers as many as possible (=as many flyovers as possible) W 84

reflects Cantonese

Ngóhdeih yiu héi tìnkiùh, yuht dò yuht hóu 我哋要起天橋，越多越好

WE MUST BUILD FLYOVER(S), THE-MORE MANY THE-MORE GOOD

(3) adj. ENOUGH replaced by ENOUGH adj.

The streets are not enough wide (for cars) Chen 70

reflects Cantonese

dī gāāi m̀gau fut THEpl STREET NOT ENOUGH WIDE 啲街唔夠闊

17. Syntax: phrase level: verb phrase: contrastive systems out of synchronisation

The Cantonese verbal system is formally much simpler than the English system, but presents a different range of contrasts, some of which cannot be directly equated with English usage. In the English system, time is perhaps the single most important factor; in the Cantonese system, it is "state of the action".

Thus the compound verbs *fangaau* 瞓覺 sleep and *sihkfaan* 食飯 eat (rice) present the following contrasts:

(1) UNMARKED FORM *fan gaau* 瞓覺 sleeps (or slept, will sleep, will be sleeping, was sleeping etc)

(2) -JO FORM *fan jó gaau* 瞓咗覺 has fallen asleep, had fallen asleep, fell asleep (but at the moment in question is/was still sleeping)

(3) -GWO FORM *fan gwo gaau* 瞓過覺 has slept, had slept (but at the moment in question is/was no longer asleep)

(4) CONTEMPORANEOUS *fan gán gaau* 瞓緊覺 is, was, will be sleeping (at the same time as another action, or in reference to a given point of time)

(5) END OF ACTION *sihk yùhn faahn* 食完飯 has/had finished eating (rice)

(6) TOTAL ACTION *sihk saai faahn* 食晒飯 has/had eaten all the rice

The paucity of contrasts in the Cantonese system ensures that there is little direct interference from it on the English of Cantonese speakers. The difficulty faced by Cantonese speakers in handling the English verb system is largely due to the complexity of the latter.

The most one can see is an identification of certain English verbal morphs with certain Cantonese forms (probably a largely teacher-induced error), e.g. -ED is equated to the *-jó* form, while the English simple present is equated to the Cantonese unmarked form.

When we arrived, it is raining W 84

The underlying Cantonese sentence is

ngóhdeih doujó gójahnsìh lohkyúh 我哋到咗嗰陣時落雨

WE ARRIVE+JÓ THAT TIME, FALL RAIN

-ING is equated to the contemporaneous form, which then causes difficulty for students to accept that the -ING form can also be a verbal noun (SMOKING IS BAD FOR YOU).

Some speakers try to express the Cantonese total action form in *-saai* (for which English uses a phrasal construction in some cases) by means of FINISHED

Finished (selling) S 84
Supply finished W 84
The underlying Cantonese is *maáihsaai* SELL+*saai* i.e. sold out 賣晒
Cf. also Sorry, tickets are finished S 84

18. **Syntax: phrase level: verb phrase: contrastive systems**

Cantonese speakers learn that the English auxiliary WILL corresponds in certain cases to the Cantonese *wúih* 會

Thus *keuíh tìngyaht wúih m̀ wúih làih?* 佢聽日會唔會來？

HE TOMORROW *wúih* NOT wuih COME

is taken as the equivalent of English Will he come tomorrow?

What the Cantonese in fact means is Is he likely to come tomorrow?

However, once the identification *WILL=wúih has been made, it may then be used for cases where WILL is totally inappropriate in English, as the following extract from an interview demonstrates:

....

A. I live with my mother ......
B. What do you do at home?
A. I help my mother ...... I will make some dresses ......

It is quite clear from the context that the interviewee means that she IS LIKELY to make a dress from time to time. There is no idea of futurity involved.

Similarly It will often rain there W 84
(=it often rains there)
reflects Cantonese *gódouh sìhsìhdoū wúih lohkyúh* 嗰度時時都會落雨
THERE OFTEN IS-LIKELY-TO FALL RAIN

Compare also: Sometimes I will go shopping with my friend S 84
She will study at home in her spare time S 84
When she laughs, her canine will be exposed W 84

19. **Syntax: phrase level: verb phrase: word order**

VERB+certain modifiers.

(1) Verb+A LOT=Cantonese *hóu*+verb 好
NOT+verb+MUCH=Cantonese *m̀ géi*+verb 唔幾

Hence: I very like living in Hong Kong
(=I like living in Hong Kong a lot) W 84
reflects *Ngóh hóu juǹgyi jyuh Heuǹggóng* 我好鍾意住香港
I *hóu* LIKE LIVE HONG KONG

I'm not very know the basketballs S 84
(=I'm not very good at basketball, I don't know much about basketball)

reflects *ngóh m̀haih géi sik wáan laàhmkaùh*
我唔係幾識玩籃球

Cf. also I very like Hong Kong S 84
He not very like to lived in hostel W 84 (Form III level)

(2) verb+EASILY=Cantonese *yùhngyih* (EASY) +verb 容易
BE DIFFICULT FOR subject TO verb=Cantonese *nàahn*+verb 難

Hence: We are easy to forget these things Chen 70
reflects *ngóhdeih hoú yuhngyih m̀geidāk nīdī sih*
我哋好容易唔記得呢啲事
WE VERY EASY NOT REMEMBER THESE THINGS
Drivers are not easy to find parking places Chen 70
reflects *jàchèlóu m̀yuhngyih wándou deihfòng paak chè*
揸車佬唔容易搵到地方泊車
CARDRIVER NO EASY FIND PLACE PARK CAR
He was difficult to do the work alone Chen 70
reflects *keuíh yātgoyàhn hoúnaành jouhgùng*
佢一個人好難做工
HE ONE+cl. PERSON VERY DIFFICULT TO WORK

(3) verb+for the nth time=Cantonese *daih* (number) *chi*+verb 第（　）次

Hence: It was my second time to visit her Chen 70
(=I was visiting her for the second time)
reflects *haih ngóh daiyìhchi taam keúih*
係我第二次探佢
IS I SECOND TIME VISIT HER

20. Syntax: sentence level: word order

(1) Adverbials of time.

Adverbials of time in English stand either before or after the verbal group (SUBJECT+VERB)

We went shopping last Saturday (UNMARKED)
Last Saturday we went shopping (MARKED)

The normal unmarked position in Cantonese is after the subject and before the verb.

Thus We last Wednesday went shopping Craig 84
reflects Cantonese *ngóhdeih seuhnggo laihbaaisaam heui máai yéh*
WE LAST WEDNESDAY GO BUY THINGS
我哋上個禮拜三去買嘢

More rarely this is found with adverbials other than those of time. Thus

I would with my family tour the world (Form V level)
They with their friends met in the hostel (Form VI level)

show the same structure as Cantonese

ngóh tuhng Abóu heui yámchàh (I WITH AH BOU GO DRINK TEA)
我同亞寶去飲茶
(I'm going out to breakfast with Ah Bou)

(2) Cantonese may emphasise the subject (or indeed any part of the sentence not excluding the verb) by placing it at the head of the sentence followed by the pause-marker *nē*

ngóhgo pàhngyáuh nē meihlèih 我個朋友呢未嚟(來)
MY FRIEND/NOT YET COME (*My friend* hasn't come yet)
tái dìhnsìh nē ngóh m̀seúng tái 睇電視呢我唔想睇
WATCH TV/I NOT WANT WATCH (I don't want to *watch television)*

Hence: My little sister she is only three years old Chen 70
reflects Cantonese *ngóh saimúi nē jí bātgwo sàam seui*
我細妹呢只不過三歲
MY LITTLE-SISTER/ONLY THREE-YEARS-OLD

Ships have large ones and small ones Chen 70
reflects Cantonese *syùhn nē yaúh daaige tùhngmàaih saige*
SHIPS/THERE-ARE BIG-ONES AND LITTLE-ONES
船呢有大嘅同埋細嘅

21. **Syntax: discourse level**

(1) Subordinating conjunctions.

In several structures with subordinating conjunctions, Cantonese balances the two sentences so joined. This is reflected in the English spoken and above all written by Cantonese speakers.

(*a*) SO/THEREFORE

Because he is clever, SO he always gets a good result W 84
reflecting 因爲佢聰明所以有好成績
yànwaih keúi chùngmìng sóyíh yaúh hóu sìhngjīk
BECAUSE HE CLEVER, SO HAVE GOOD RESULT

Cf. also: As I love Hong Kong very much, THEREFORE I shall continue to live here. W 84 (Form V level)

Since they are not being the members of this hostel, SO they had to pay 70 pence for a bed. W 84 (Form VI level)

As you know that I am an energetic person, so I decide to do so. W 84 (Form VII level)

(*b*) BUT

Although he works hard, BUT he doesn't get a good result W 84
reflecting *Seùiyìhn keúi duhkdāk hóu kàhnlìhk daahnhaih m̀sìhnggùng*
雖然佢讀得好勤力但係唔成功
ALTHOUGH HE STUDY VERY HARD, BUT NOT SUCCEED

Cf. also:

Although it seems to be oldfashioned, BUT it's nicer to dress by young people. W84 (Form VII level)

(2) Indirect speech.

Cantonese, like many other languages, has no special structure for indirect speech; it merely uses juxtaposition. e.g.

néih jìmjì keúi haih bīngo a? 你知唔知佢係邊個呀？
YOU KNOW NOT KNOW: HE IS WHO, UH?
(= Do you know who he is?)

néih gońg béi ngóh teǹg néih juǹgyi mātyéh lā? 你講俾我聽你鍾意乜嘢啦
YOU SAY GIVE ME HEAR: YOU LIKE WHAT UH?
(=Let me know what you like)

These structures are reflected in the following observed errors:

Do you know who is he? Chen 70
I told myself, do not waste time. Chen 70
Please let me know what do you like. Chen 70
They are talking where to go W 84 (Form VI level)

22. Syntax: discourse level: question tags

Besides other ways of asking a question, Cantonese has an all-purpose question tag *haihm̀haih* 係唔係 IS NOT IS. This is frequently reflected as ISN'T IT in the English of Cantonese speakers:

You've been very busy today, isn't it? (i.e. haven't you) S 84
We'll come on Friday, isn't it? (=won't we) S 84
reflecting *ngóhdeih laihbaaiń leih haihm̀haih* 我哋禮拜五嚟(來)，係唔係
WE FRIDAY COME, IS NOT IS
Cf. also Even they can go to work with this kind of dress, isn't it?
W 84 (Form VII level)

23. Syntax: discourse level: responsives

The YES/NO response.

In Cantonese a question may be answered in one of two ways:

(1) By affirming or negating the verb used in the question.
néih yáuhmóuh chiń? Yáuh. 你有無錢？有
Have you any money? Yes, I have.
YOU HAVE NOT-HAVE MONEY? HAVE.
keúih sīk yaùhséui gwa? msīk 佢識游水呱？唔識
He can swim, I suppose? No.
HE KNOW SWIM I-GUESS? NOT KNOW

(2) By answering *haih* IS or *m̀haih* NOT IS. These do not answer the question, they express agreement or disagreement with the questioner's words.
néih yáuh chiń haihm̀haih? Haih You've got some money? Yes.
你有錢？係唔係？係
YOU HAVE MONEY. IS (i.e. what you say is correct)
néih móuh chiń haihm̀haih? Haih You haven't got any money? No.
你無錢？係唔係？係
YOU NOT HAVE MONEY. IS (i.e. what you say is correct)

As the use of *haih* and *m̀haih* correspond to English YES and NO in non-negative questions (as the first example above), Cantonese speakers of English tend to use YES and NO in their answers to negative questions too, using Cantonese code, not English code.

You don't like swimming? Yes. S 84
(=No, I don't like swimming)

reflecting *neih m̀jùngyi yàuhséui? haih* 你唔鍾意游水？係
YOU NOT LIKE SWIM? IS (what you say is correct; I don't like swimming)
You can't speak French, can you? No, I can. Chen 70
reflecting *neih m̀sik góng Faatmàhn ma? m̀haih. sik góng àh*
YOU NOT KNOW SPEAK FRENCH UH? NOT IS. KNOW SPEAK AH.
你唔識講法文嗎？唔係，識講吖。

24. Syntax: discourse level; connectives in written style

Written Chinese has a series of connectives standing at the head of a paragraph which have no exact equivalent in English. In Chinese they simply signal that what follows is to be considered linked to the preceding. Unfortunately their definitions in Chinese-English dictionaries tend to be emphatic and adversive, which leads to an often bewildering prose style. The two main connectives in question are

yìhché 而且
lihng yāt fòngmihn 另一方面

yìhché 而且 the dictionaries translate as MOREOVER, IN ADDITION.
lihng yāt fòngmihn 另一方面 (literally=from another viewpoint) is translated as ON THE OTHER HAND, BESIDES. Hence sequences such as the following:—

(*a*) Then I will buy all the things I need in Hong Kong. ON THE OTHER HAND I will try different kinds of food. W 84 (Form V level)

(*b*) A woman (who was pregnant) .... no one gave his seat to her. ON THE OTHER SIDE a man had put all his belongings on the other seat. W 84 (Form V level)

(*c*) In every evening I foregather with the painters, writers in the tavern near the piazza, BESIDES I have got accustomed to bathe in the sea and take long walks in the vineyards. IN ADDITION I start my work at noon until 5 o'clock of the next day. W 84 (Form VII level)

(*d*) I would with my family see the world. ON THE OTHER HAND I would send my children to England or America to study. W 84 (Form V level)

25. Lexis: single words

First language interference manifests itself in lexical items when the semantic spread of the word in the first language does not correspond with the semantic spread of its perceived equivalent in the target language. At times this has syntactical implications (cf. *wúih* in paragraph 18), but more often it relates only to the single word or word-group concerned.

(*a*) The Cantonese word has a wider semantic spread than its perceived English equivalent.
tái=SEE (+READ a book, WATCH T.V.)
睇 I see television every evening Chen 70
The first thing I do every morning is to SEE the newspapers Chen 70

tèng=hear (+LISTEN, UNDERSTAND speech, ANSWER the phone)

聽 As it was very noisy, we could not LISTEN TO what he said Chen 70

I must HEAR the phone S 84

Can you listen? (=Can you understand what I am saying?) S 84

jyuh=stay (in a place) (+LIVE in a place)

住 My son STAYS in Canada S 84

I STAY in Hong Kong S 84

muhn=BORING (+ BORED)

悶 I am very BORING in this class S 84

yáuh=HAVE (+THERE IS)

有 Every day has traffic accidents Chen 70

Ships, have large ones and small ones Chen 70

Tomorrow has no school Chen 70

No. Does not have so many people S 84 (Form VII level)

There has another room for my study W 84 (Form V level)

And beside the verandah have a big garden W 84 (Form IV level)

msyúfuhk=UNCOMFORTABLE (+ILL)

唔舒服 She's uncomfortable (=she's ill) S 84

waán=PLAY (a game) (HAVE FUN WITH, HAVE FUN)

玩 I'm going to Cheung Chau to play (=for fun, as an excursion) S 84

I like playing computer (=I like fooling around with my computer) W 84

He will play bicycle in his leisure time W 84

When you come out of hospital, we will play together (=have some fun) W 84

hòi=OPEN (a door) TURN ON light, TV etc. also *shan* 閂 CLOSE,

開 TURN OFF

I opened the light Chen 70

We'd better open the airconditioner S 84

jaahm=STATION (railway) STOP (bus etc)

站 You go to Shek O station (+ the bus-stop for Shek O)

yàhn=PEOPLE, PERSON

人 My aunt is the most important people in my life Chen 70

keúih=HE (+SHE)

佢 He is my girlfriend S 84

She came with his friend (=her friend) S 84

She lost HIS parents when she was five. W 84 (Form V level)

Then he asked HER mother (=his mother) W 84 (Form IV level)

sung=SEND, ACCOMPANY, SEE OFF

送 Let me send you to the bus stop S 84

béi=give (+CAUSE, GET in a causative sense)

俾(被) I will give them to study abroad W 84

béi=give (+SEND a message)

俾 His brother GAVE him an urgent telegram from New York S 84

lihnjaahp=TAKE EXERCISE, an EXERCISE (+PRACTISE)

練習 We must exercise the piano to play well W 84

yuhng=USE (+TAKE TIME)

用 We used twenty minutes to come here S 84

je=BORROW, LEND

借 He borrowed a hundred dollars to him W 84

jeyuhng=BORROW+USE (e.g. use someone else's possession on a temporary basis)

借用 May I borrow your toilet? S 84

jéunbeihhóu=READY (+GET READY, PREPARE)

準備好 At 2 o'clock p.m. I will ready the food S 84

nīdouh, gódouh=THIS PLACE/THAT PLACE(+HERE/THERE)

呢度 I will visit HERE with my family W 84 (Form VI level)

嗰度 People in HERE is kind W 84 (Form V level)

The scenery of THERE is very beautiful W 84 (Form VII level)

The place is so beautiful many people visit THERE W 84 (Form V level)

wán=LOOK FOR; *wándou* 搵倒 =SUCCEED IN LOOKING FOR=FIND

搵倒 I found my student card was lost. First I find it (=looked for) clearly in every train station. But I can't find it. W 84 (Form IV level)

I am frightened when I known she was disappeared. Then I FOUND (=looked for) her everywhere immediately. W 84 (Form IV level)

I walked the street which I went shopping and FOUND (=looked for) it carefully. I also didn't find it. W 84 (Form V level)

dou=UNTIL/BY THE TIME THAT

到 UNTIL we prepared a barbecue for dinner, the night had come silently.

(=by the time we had prepared . . . .) W 84 (Form VI level)

(*b*) The English lexical item corresponds to more than one word in Cantonese. ASK: Cantonese, like Spanish (preguntar: pedir) distinguishes between asking a question and asking for something. Thus Cantonese speakers tend to learn

mahn=ASK (a question) 問

yìukaùh=ASK FOR something 要求

which may lead to results like the following

You may ask-for Eugene for his book S 84

Ask-for your partner for a book S 84

26. Lexical items: combinations of two or more words

(*a*) VERB + PREPOSITION

In Cantonese, verbs of movement are followed directly by the "place to which" with no preposition. Thus:

heui Omún go to Macao 去澳門
dou Bākging arrive in Beijing 到北京

Hence Cantonese speakers may produce utterances like:

We arrived Macao at six o'clock   Chen 70
I just travel Taiwan   S 84
Rod came Bristol   W 84 (Form III level)

On the other hand, analysis of "go to Macao" as "go-to Macao" (corresponding to the Cantonese *heui Omún*) leads to the very common error

I go to shopping   S 84
reflecting Cantonese   *ngóh heui maái yéh* 我去買嘢
I GO BUY-THINGS

where go-to is taken as the equivalent of Cantonese *heui*. (This structure may also reflect a misapplication of the English "TO infinitive").

……….

Cantonese does not express the "by" in "go by bus" etc by a preposition. The construction is:

chóh fèigèi heui Yìnggwok   "go to England by plane"
SIT PLANE GO ENGLAND   坐飛機去英國

chóh fèigèi can, however, be used also as an equivalent to "take a plane, catch a plane" Hence analysis of the first phrase, giving the equivalent *chóh feigèi*=by plane, can lead to the following observed error:

You can by the bus   S 84
reflecting Cantonese   *néih hóyíh chóh bāsí* 你可以坐巴士
YOU CAN SIT BUS   (you can take the bus)

……….

Similarly: I have been living Caprie for a year   W 84 (Form VII level)

reflects the Cantonese structure

jyuh Heùngóng hóu noih 住香港好耐
VERY LONG-TIME LIVE HONG KONG

(*b*) Certain verbs in Cantonese require an object. Thus *sihk* 食 is a lexical item meaning 'eat' which functions exactly like its English equivalent in combinations such as

sihk mihn eat noodles 食麵
sihk hā eat shrimps 食蝦

but to ask "Have you eaten?" one must say

sihkjó faahn meih? 食咗飯未？
EATEN RICE YET

"Pay" is likewise usually *béi chín* GIVE/PAY MONEY, hence the following 俾(畀)錢 . . . take books from Swift's bookshop without paying money W 84

(*c*) Inappropriate responses caused by first language interference.

1. *dòngyìhn la!*=OF COURSE(+SURE, NO PROBLEM) 當然啦
   - A. Can you break a £100 note?
   - B. Of course! (Said emphatically . . . an English speaker gets the message "What do you take me for, a complete idiot; of course I can break it.)
2. m̀gányiu lā!=IT DOESN'T MATTER (+NEVER MIND, PLEASE DON'T BOTHER) 唔緊要啦
   - A. Thanks a lot.
   - B. Never mind. (=Don't mention it) S 84
3. ngóh haih Amihng=I AM AMING (+AMING HERE, THIS IS AMING on phone) 我係阿明
   - A. Hello (answering phone)
   - B. Hello, I am Aming (=Aming here) S 84
4. *haih néihgo dihnwá*=IT'S YOUR PHONE (THERE'S A PHONE CALL FOR YOU) 係你個電話

   Mr. Behan, it's your telephone S 84 (but some native English speakers regard it as an acceptable form)

(*d*) set phrases and structures

1. *dímjouh*=HOW DO? i.e. How do you do it? 點做？

   How to spell 'people' S 84

   How to divide the people? S 84
   - A. Yeah, so defend the dyke.
   - B. How to defend? S 84 (this may also be a confusion arising from dictionaries giving the infinitive form 'to do' as the equivalent of the unmarked Cantonese verb form *jo*)
2. *fùnyìhng néih lèihseun* (WELCOME YOUR COMING-LETTER) 歡迎你來信

   I was happy to get your letter S 84

   I very welcome your letter come S 85

   I have much pleasure to receive your coming letter W 84 (Form V level)

27. **First language interference which has not yet been satisfactorily classified.**

(*a*) *Once a week* ONE WEEK I try to play ONCE S 84
(I try to play once a week)

reflects Cantonese

ngóh si yātgosīngkèih wáan yātchi 我試一個星期玩一次
I TRY ONE WEEK PLAY ONE TIME

(*b*) *Ago* I saw him TWO DAYS BEFORE S 84
I met him BEFORE THREE WEEKS Chen 70

reflect Cantonese

ngóh leúngyaht chìhn gingwo keúih 我兩日前見過佢
I TWO DAY BEFORE SAW HIM
ngóh saàmgosìngkèihchìhn gingwo keúih 我三個星期前見過佢
I THREE + cl. WEEK BEFORE MET HIM

Cantonese *doū* 都 (= both, all) in negative structures (meaning none, neither)
Buses and trams are all not enough Chen 70
(= there aren't enough buses or trams)
reflects Cantonese *bāsí dihnchè dōu m̀gau* 巴士電車都唔夠
BUS TRAM dou NOT ENOUGH
Both of them were not right Chen 70
reflects Cantonese *keúih leúhnggodōu m̀ngāam* 佢兩個都唔啱
TWO + cl. dou NOT CORRECT

Likewise: The traffic is so busy all the vehicles on the road cannot move W 84 (Form VI level)
I knew everyone would not blame us W 84 (Form VI level)

A slightly different structure underlies
Not anyone could find it W 84 (Form IV level)
This reflects Cantonese *moú yàhn hóyih wándou* 無人可以搵到
NOT-HAVE PERSON CAN FIND

(*d*) *Two or three*

Cantonese says 'two three'. Thus:
I read THREE FOUR books during the vacation Chen 70
reflects Cantonese *háigakèih ngóh taijó saàmseibún syù*
喺假期我睇咗三四本書
VACATION I READ THREE FOUR + cl. BOOK

(*e*) *Cantonese double subject*

Cantonese frequently uses what appears to be a double subject
ngóh toúhngo 我肚餓
I STOMACH HUNGRY = I am hungry
keúih toúhòh 佢肚痾
HE STOMACH EXCRETES = He has diarrhoea
néih ngaánhùhng 你眼紅
YOU EYE red = You're jealous

In fact the structure is

Noun$_1$ is	adjective
possessive form	noun$_2$ + adj. or verb

Thus His body is very strong Chen 70
(= He is physically very strong)
reflects *keúih sàntái hoú kéung* 佢身體好强
HE (IS) BODY + VERY + STRONG
My name is called John Chen 70
reflects *ngóh meńg giujòuh John* 我名叫做 JOHN
I (AM) NAME + CALLED + JOHN (My name is John)
Cf. also: My sister's leg is sick W 84 (Form VII level)

(*f*) *He is my friend.*

Cantonese does not distinguish between my friend; a friend of mine; one of my friends.

Hence The headmaster is my friend Q 84
reflects Cantonese *haauhjeúng haih ngóhgo pàhngyáuh*
校長係我個朋友
HEADMASTER IS MY FRIEND
(=the headmaster is a friend of mine)

Discussion

28. The weight of evidence adduced above leaves no doubt that a certain degree of interference from Cantonese first language takes place, though it does not of course reveal how much. As any teacher with experience of Cantonese learners could have predicted, there are certain areas in which this interference is more marked, e.g. the verb system, problems involving the classifiers, and discourse markers.

29. Our main interest in collecting and presenting this material was to identify ways in which teachers could predict errors in the classroom and therefore be ready to deal with them. If such predictable errors can be taken into account when a structure is first taught, so much the better; however, it is much more likely that they will be identified in a remedial situation, in which it is vital that the teacher should be able to identify the source of error before he tries to remedy it. A great deal of EFL teaching is remedial, especially in language schools; students arrive with a great ill-digested mass of passive knowledge of English, but very little ability to make practical use of it. They are therefore making mistakes even at an elementary stage which involve them in the use of quite complex structures in English.

30. If students are living in a country where English is the native language, and where they are exposed to it all day every day, they will lose most of the errors by a process which we may call, without thereby endorsing any particular language acquisition theory, approximation. This does not happen when students are not using the language all the time, and this is the situation which we have to face in Hong Kong. By the time the errors are ingrained, they are of course extremely difficult to eradicate, and probably no attempt should be made to eradicate them until an appropriate point in the syllabus is reached. For example, a structure which will be taught in Form V cannot be corrected at Form II level, because no adequate explanation can be given.

31. At an appropriate time, therefore, an explanation should be given of the differences between English and Cantonese so that they can be discussed and rationalised. At this point, when he understands what is happening, the student can make an attempt to control his language production at just those crucial points. A significant feature of this strategy is

one which many teachers find difficult, a disregard of errors which they would usually try to correct. A second feature which conflicts with some modern language teaching theory is the stress on grammar which it implies. Both of these are necessitated by the fact that approximation (as used above) will not take place except in an English native speaker ambiance.

Acknowledgements

32. Finally, we would like to acknowledge all the help we have received during the preparation of this material. Teachers of the British Council, Hong Kong, have provided much of the basic data. In particular we would like to thank Anthony Behan, without whose encouragement the project would never have got off the ground, Jim Bullen, who helped with the transliteration of the Cantonese words, and James Li and Noel Leung, who checked all the Cantonese forms cited. We would also like to thank Gregory James, formerly of the ILE, for his helpful comments and support.

COHESION OR CONFLICT? An analysis of the Views of Examiners and Teachers of Hong Kong's Use of English Examination, with the aim of Contributing towards Improvements in the Learning Outcomes of Hong Kong Students from their Form Six and Seven English Course

GILLIAN B. WORKMAN

This article is supported by the following tables which are not published here:

(i) Views expressed in the Annual Reports on the Use of English Examination, published by the Hong Kong Examinations Authority.[*]

(ii) Teachers' Reasons for Not Enjoying Teaching UE, Combined with Problems Specifically identified by Teachers . . ; combined with Problems mentioned in Other Responses throughout the Questionnaire.

(iii) Teachers' reasons for enjoying teaching UE.

This article is based on the analysis of two Corpuses. The first consists of the views of the Examiners of the Hong Kong Use of English Examination, as expressed in the Annual Reports (1980–1986) on the Use of English Examination, published by the Hong Kong Examinations Authority. The second consists of the views of teachers of the Use of English course in Forms 6 and 7 in Hong Kong, as represented by their responses to a Questionnaire administered to 139 UE teachers in November 1984.

The purposes of this article are:

1a. to indicate (and to attempt to resolve) what appears to be a major area of misunderstanding by UE Examiners of UE Teachers (a misunderstanding which arises from a previous absence of information, and which is clearly shared by many other groups in Hong Kong);

1b. To indicate that there are in fact many similarities between the UE Examiners (and, perhaps, the other interested groups—no data has been obtained in relation to this—) and the UE Teachers, in relation to

(i) their views about desirable and undesirable class contents, and
(ii) their perception of the weaknesses of the students;

1c. To suggest actions which the UE Examiners might feel willing and able to take, on the basis of the new information and new understanding of the UE teachers and their work, provided by this Paper;

1d. To suggest actions which the UE Subject Committee, the Hong Kong Examinations Authority, the Education Department and the Schools of Education of the two Universities might feel willing and able to take, on the basis of the new information and new understanding of the UE teachers and their work, provided in this Paper;

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[*] The Annual *Subject Reports*, published by the Hong Kong Examinations Authority in its *Annual Reports*, are not, in fact, attributed to the Examiners or Chief Examiners of each particular examination. It is, however, one of the responsibilities of Chief Examiners and Examiners to submit a Subject Report. The HKEA has overall editorial responsibility. In the case of the Use of English Examination, however, where the examination is run by the HKEA on behalf of the University of Hong Kong, this apparently has not led to more than minor modifications by the HKEA of the Examiners' original Reports.

2a. To suggest the extent to which these two Corpuses, taken together, provide a sufficient basis for decisions for
  (i) beneficial changes in the UE Examination Syllabus, and
  (ii) for specific items to be included in any UE teaching syllabus which may be introduced;

2b. To suggest some of these beneficial changes for
  (i) the UE Examination Syllabus, and
  (ii) specific items to be included in any UE teaching syllabus.

3. All these purposes are means towards an overall goal: that of contributing to the improvement in the learning outcomes of Hong Kong students from their Forms 6 and 7 English course: improvements which numerous groups in Hong Kong so deeply desire.

The Areas of Misunderstanding

The following assumptions, beliefs and attitudes, shown by the Examiners' Corpus create a picture which is noticeably at variance with the picture created by the Teachers' Corpus.

1. The assumption that more reading, writing, listening and speaking will, OF THEMSELVES, automatically produce improvements in English skills. (This assumption shows some softening in both 1980 and 1986, when it is suggested that listening should be followed by summarising and answering questions on what had been heard.)

2a. The assumption that students' mistakes and other forms of failure are simply the product of omissions on the part of their teachers.

2b. The related assumption that the teachers do not know what they should do.

2c. The related assumption that the teachers need no help other than that of being told what they should do. (e.g. no suggestion is made that they need help with doing these things; either in the form of training or in the provision of materials).

3. The assumption that certain actions and behaviour on the part of students, teachers, and/or students and teachers will OF THEMSELVES lead to improvements, with no other support being needed.

4. A rather unsympathetic attitude towards students' inadequacies.

5. A belief that the class contents are totally within the teachers' control.

6. A lack of interest in motivation. This is mentioned only once over the six years analysed. This is in 1986.

7. A lack of interest in how students may perceive the tasks required by the UE examination: (". . . . a lack of awareness on the part of the candidates of . . . . the fact that there is bound to be a point in the very act of writing a summary." (1985) In fact, it was only in recent years that task-oriented summaries were set in the UE examination.)

8. A lack of interest in the amount of time available for UE classes and also outside UE classes, for work relevant to UE.

Consequences of these Assumptions, Beliefs and Attitudes

Apart from negative comments on the use of Practice Papers in the teaching process, there is no indication in the Examiners' Corpus that the Examiners may accept the view that examination design can have a negative effect on the teaching carried out in schools, And there is no indication at all that the Examiners agree with the view of testing experts, that one of the factors in examination design is for the examination to create a helpful "washback" effect in the schools. But perhaps this is not the place for it. (In their capacity as Examiners, the Examiners' function is to implement an existing examination syllabus, and not to create a new examination syllabus.)

This observation may indicate a reason for both,

(*a*) the absence of any explicit acknowledgement that improvements might be effected by changes in the design of the examination itself; and,

(*b*) the (possibly consequent) absence of the *implicit* acknowledgement which changes in the examination design, *initiated by the examiners themselves,* would be.

As perceived by the Examiners, the responsibility for improvement lies squarely at the doors of students and teachers, and not at their own door at all.

What the Teachers Think

In a sense, their Corpus suggests that teachers would agree with this view of their and their students' responsibility. However, the teachers also indicate a) that they need considerable assistance if they are to be in a position to take up this responsibility and b) that there needs to be an enhancement in the perceived status of the UE examination if their students are to be willing to take up their part of the responsibility.

Common Ground

Given that there is this common ground, and given also, as will be seen below, that there is a high degree of coherence in the views of the two groups about a) desirable class contents and b) the students' weaknesses, I suggest that, if the assumptions, attitudes and beliefs of the Examiners listed above can be changed (by the information presented by the Teachers' Corpus), the Examiners may be willing to develop strategies for action.

These strategies might be, either for acting directly so as themselves to assist the Teachers with their work; and/or for vigorous action to improve the existing systems so that their own understanding (which is shared by the Teachers) of the students' weaknesses may be provided to Applied Linguists; and used by them in ways which support the teachers in the work, which Examiners and Teachers, equally, perceive to be necessary.

Causes of the Apparent Lack of Unity between Examiners and Teachers

If there has been a failure, up to now, it may have been in the definition of the role of the UE Examiners. Perhaps this is an area where the Use of English examination—different from the other matriculation subjects by being a skills subject, rather than a content subject—should be treated differently from the other Matriculation examinations.

A third group is needed to Mediate between the Examiners' Demands and the Teachers' Response

It may be that the customary request to the Examiners (in all subjects) to, "write something which would be helpful for the teachers," would, in the case of UE, more appropriately be directed elsewhere; to Applied Linguists who are familiar with the Hong Kong situation.

Thus, Applied Linguists would not make the assumptions listed at the beginning of this Paper. (See "The Areas of Misunderstanding", p. 83.) They would know that certain actions needed to be taken to assist the teachers in their work; whether in the areas of training and materials provision, syllabus and examination design, or in the manipulation of existing systems to provide enhanced status for the examination, and a consequent increased timetable and resources provision by the schools.

That the Examiners have only just begun to perceive these things (or, at any rate, just begun to *express* a perception of the teachers' problems, *in their Annual Reports*) is no criticism of the Examiners. To the best of the writer's knowledge—the information is confidential—no-one who has ever served as a UE Examiner *is* an Applied Linguist.

Why has there been no previous action by the UE Examiners to grapple with the real problems of a Teaching Syllabus for the UE Examination?

There seem to be several main reasons why there has been no previous action by the UE Examiners.

Firstly, there is no doubt that the marking of the UE examination is an annual chore which few would covet. Those who are consistently willing to perform this chore have gained influence in other areas relating to the examination. Up to now, the Examiners as a whole have not had a dynamic interest in syllabus revision.

Secondly, in as far as the Examiners *have* been interested in areas beyond the actual implementation of the existing Syllabus, their main preoccupation has been with the University of Hong Kong's entrance regulations in relation to the Use of English examination. They have been aware of the negative effects on secondary students' motivation of, earlier, the fact that a pass in the examination was not a University, but a Faculty or Departmental requirement; and now, the fact that the University's required UE grade is so low. However, the Examiners have been keenly aware of the fragility of the University of Hong Kong's acceptance of a role for a Use of English examination as a prerequisite for matriculation: they have not wished, by dramatically modifying the existing formula, to lose even this benefit.

Thirdly, as discussed above, the UE Examiners have lacked understanding of the teachers.

Fourthly, also discussed above, there has not been any separate, formal, stage in the annual pattern of examination evaluation, syllabus review, and new examination setting and moderation, where the advice of Applied Linguists has specifically been sought, from the viewpoint of helping improvements in learning outcomes.

Fifthly, they have believed that the task of producing teaching materials would be shouldered by text-book writers, who would base their brief on the nature of previous examination papers.

Sixthly, they are frustrated by the role of the HKEA.

Frustration with the Role of the HKEA

It is probably fair to say that possibly until recently neither the UE Examiners nor the HKEA personnel most nearly involved in the UE examination has sufficiently understood and appreciated the expertise of the other group.

It may well be that the crux of the problem has lain in the area discussed above ("Causes of the Apparent Failure of Unity"; "A Third Group is Needed"): the failure by all concerned to perceive that UE, as a skills subject, needs an extension of the existing system—which caters for subjects with academic content—, in order for the system to work adequately for the skills subject of UE.

Desirable Actions

The following actions, listed below, on the part of the UE Examiners, would create a very acceptable basis for improvements in English Language learning outcomes, at least in the case of students with at high level of motivation. They are all actions which require no departure from existing procedures and routines.

For those students whose motivation is not high, these changes may help to *improve* motivation.

However, as this writer has already argued, in a Paper, delivered at the Second Institute of Language in Education International Seminar (December 1986), and in a letter to the Editor of *The South China Morning Post 8/12/86*, it would be of considerable help for improving the motivation of poorly-motivated students, if the status of the UE examination could be enhanced, to a level internationally recognised as equivalent to that of an A level subject.

The Actions

The following are the actions which the UE Examiners might consider:

That they might:

1. recognise the teachers' problems and the fact that solutions are outside the teachers' control;

2A. take up the further chore of designing an examination syllabus which would:

   a force the class contents which they advocate (e.g. oral work; training in relation to understanding Hong Kong's English Language electronic media); while,
   b requiring an examination no less discriminating than the present examination;

Or:

2B. in tandem with their work on an Examination Syllabus, work with the Education Department's Curriculum Development Committee, to create a Teaching Syllabus, which would:
   a force the class contents which they advocate (e.g. oral work; training in relation to understanding Hong Kong's English Language electronic media); while
   b requiring an examination no less discriminating than the present examination;

3. co-operate with HKEA to ensure the best evaluation methods possible, methods which will also be the best in terms of their washback effect on the schools;
4. use their annual Examiners' Report for a dynamic and rigorous review of all these areas.

How might the UE Examiners react to the University of Hong Kong's proposal for a four-year undergraduate programme (to replace the current three-year programme)?

Various spokesmen for the University of Hong Kong have indicated that one of the purposes of the proposal for a four-year undergraduate syllabus at HKU is for there to be time to devote to the improvement of new entrants' language skills; including, presumably (since the University has also confirmed its policy for the medium of instruction to remain English), English language skills.

Once the extra fourth year became a reality, however, it is highly likely that the teachers within the academic disciplines would argue for as much of the extra time as possible being devoted to academic work, rather than to remedial Language work.

There are other problems.

Firstly, there would be a problem of creating motivation for the students to pursue their English Language courses with enthusiasm.

Given the pragmatism of Hong Kong students, motivation is best created by an external penalty or reward. Is the University likely to create a regulation whereby no student could graduate unless his/her English Language skills were of a specified (high) level?

If a *penalty* is politically unacceptable, what *reward* would there be? Would it not be the case that students would consider their time best spent in concentrating on their academic discipline(s), rather than on English Language work; just as they do at present in Forms 6 and 7 in the Secondary Schools?

Secondly, the problems which secondary school UE teachers currently face, and which are outside their own control—problems of lack of time, a heavy marking load, inadequate materials, lack of training, lack of status of the subject—would then be inherited by the University teachers themselves. Would they like this?

Thirdly, there is evidence that many of the secondary school UE teachers enjoy teaching UE. From their reports in various responses to the Questionnaire, it appears that some of them are very good at teaching this subject.

It is not clear that the skills of the current teachers at HKU are appropriate for a similar task. Nor is it clear that the current teachers at HKU would be willing to devote their undoubtedly considerable abilities to developing these skills. If they are *unwilling*, where would any new staff, who were specifically hired for the task, come from?

On balance, it seems that a higher English standard among students at HKU would be achieved, if the UE Examiners were to throw their weight into a hearty effort, firstly, to work within the existing structures—the Curriculum Development Committee of the Education Department and the Hong Kong Examinations Authority—, and secondly, to modify the system, so that a third group is brought into existence to mediate between their—the Examiners'—demands and the Teachers' response, as discussed above ("A Third Group is Needed").

These strategies seem much more likely to achieve the desired improvements in Language skills than do the introduction of a fourth year into the undergraduate course in HKU. (There may be other advantages to the fourth year: but these are not the concern of this Paper.)

If the UE Examiners were to take this action, the UE Examiners would also have the satisfaction of knowing that they were acting in the best interests of the Language Learning outcomes of all Form 7 (and many Form 6) students, and not just of those students studying in HKU.

• • •

Degree of similarity between the two groups

Common Points made (or implied) by the Examiners and the Teachers

A: As to (*a*) the existing quality of students' English and (*b*) the students' degree of maturity in relation to learning.

Both groups comment on:

1. The poor English standard of many students;
2. The need for improvements in grammar;
3. The lack of general knowledge and concern with current social issues of the students (giving rise to an impression of childishness);
4. A specific difficulty with the questions "what" and "why" and other "wh" questions;
5. The need for improvements in listening skills;
6. The students' difficulty in selective note-taking.

B: *Relevant to Class Content*

Both groups express:

1. The view that too much practice examination work is bad;
2. A recognition of the value of using current materials (e.g. from the written and electronic media);
3. A recognition of the importance of exposing students to a wide variety of types of English;
4. An interest in oral work; a recognition of its value; and a desire for more time in the timetable (and/or more student acceptance) in order to devote more time to oral work;
5. A recognition that oral work develops language skills in the areas of writing, listening and reading, as well as oral skills;

Both groups comment on:

6. The inadequacy of the time which is devoted to the English Course, both by the school timetable, and by the students themselves;
7. The need for students to be more active in taking responsibility for their own learning, outside the UE classroom.

Points made by Examiners but not made by the Teachers

A: *As to the existing quality of students' English*

NOTE: Because of the difference of the contexts within which these two Corpuses have been obtained, the comments made by the Examiners on the topic of poor English are more detailed than those of the Teachers.

For, although the Questionnaire asked Teachers, in a general way, about their problems in teaching UE, it did not ask them to specify the areas in which they felt their students needed improvement.

Examiners, on the other hand, are necessarily concerned with student performance; and the main purpose of the Annual Reports is to comment on this.

The specific points consistently made by the Examiners are listed below; and it is clear that it is these many areas of weakness which give teachers the heavy marking load of which so many of them complain.

> Poor Vocabulary; inability to cope with metaphors and idioms; spelling; lack of sophistication with regard to common errors in pronunciation (and hence, spelling); punctuation; absence of a main verb; incorrect use of tenses (e.g. past perfect for past indefinite, subjunctive for simple future); confusion with regard to voice; transitive verbs often used intransitively; incorrect use of prepositions; non-agreement of subject and verb; number; use of the definite article; incorrect, or inadequate, use of links; gender; intrusion of Chinese constructions and expressions; problems with "wh" questions; inappropriate format; and inappropriate register.

Other points made by the Examiners, and which are also attributable to poor English skills, are: the copying of chunks in answer to comprehension questions; and answers which are not coherent with questions.

Other points made by the Examiners are: lack of common sense; childishness; and the writing of model essays.

What can we find in the Teachers' Corpus, relevant to the Examiners' points?

None of the Teachers mentions a lack of common sense in their students. Perhaps, knowing them better, they do not feel this an appropriate comment. One respondent, however, identifies weak English as the cause for an impression of childishness being conveyed to Examiners.

Model essays are, of their nature, probably more frequently a problem for Examiners than for Teachers.

B. *Relevant to Class Content*

No comments are made by the Examiners, relevant to class content, which are not also made by the Teachers.

Points made by the Teachers but not made by the Examiners

A. As to the existing quality of students' English

No points are made by the teachers which are not made by the Examiners.

B. *Relevant to Class Content*

Problems of motivation; of adjustment from CE to UE English; of inappropriate and inadequate materials and consequently of inadequate time to prepare materials to improve the shortfall; of student reluctance to participate in class; too large class sizes; mixed ability of classes; heavy marking load; the exam-orientation of the students and the consequent lack of interest of classes which have been adjusted to cater to their demands; competition from other subjects; over-confidence (in schools with a recognised high standard of English); inadequate timetabling for UE; inadequate school resources for UE; the absence of direction, of objectives, of a specific teaching syllabus; inadequate guidance from the ED—both with regard to the syllabus and from the inspectorate*; absence of advice on how to train students in the skills of cursory reading and listening comprehension; ignorance of the marking scheme; the inappropriateness for students who are unlikely to enter the University of the work required for the examination; the impact of the exam restricts what can be done in class; the examination requires too many skills to be demonstrated in too short a time; the teacher's need to learn relevant teaching techniques; the absence of job satisfaction; many of the teachers may be inexperienced or not have a relevant major subject; the fact that class content is partly dictated by students; student's lack of awareness that language is not just like other subjects—is not just a matter of grasping knowledge and information, requiring understanding and memory—and that language is a means of experiencing reality.

*(This respondent highlights problem areas. No-one currently takes responsibility for a teaching syllabus.

Who should do so? Is it the Education Department's Curriculum Development Committee? Or is it the University of Hong Kong itself, since the purpose of the examination is to identify those suited for study in that University?

Who should be responsible for assisting teachers with their teaching? Is it the ED? Is it the Schools of Education of the two Universities?

Currently, it is the Schools of Education of the two Universities, which are concerned with the training of Graduate Teachers, including, presumably, the Graduate Teachers of English Language. The ED's Institute of Language in Education and Colleges of Education do not currently train Graduate Teachers of English Language.)

Comment:
The fact that no points are made by the Teachers as to the existing quality of students' English, which are not also made by the Examiners would seem to suggest (*a*) that the examination is a good means of diagnosing the quality of the English of the examined group as a whole*; and (*b*) that the Examiners' knowledge of their business is to the satisfaction of the Teachers.

*(Apart from some cases where poor students did better than expected and good students did more poorly than expected, Teachers seemed in general to be satisfied with the accuracy of the grades awarded to their students. There was however a fair degree of surprise about the low standard at which the pass mark was set.)

Taken from the other angle, the fact that many points are made by the Examiners as to the existing quality of students' English, which are not also made by the Teachers does not indicate that the Teachers do not know *their* business; for, as already mentioned, the contexts within which the two Corpuses were obtained were very different.

The fact that no criticisms of class content are made by Examiners, which the Teachers do not share, and that no suggestions for improvements in class content are made by Examiners, which are not also made by the Teachers would seem to suggest:

(*a*) that the performance of the candidates in general is a good guide neither to the class contents to which they have been exposed, nor to the attitudes of the Teachers; and

(*b*) that the Examiners' apparent dissatisfaction with the Teachers as a group, as determiners of class content, is either (i) not justified for the group as a whole or (ii) inappropriate; since it does not take into account the limitations on the teachers' control over his/her own class contents.

[Since the UE Teachers as a whole form a much larger group than that of the UE Examiners, it is likely that there are more differences between the teachers themselves than there are between the Examiners. We must also bear in mind that the Teacher Corpus on which this Paper is based is not complete. The Respondents represent at most slightly less than a half and at least slightly less than an eighth of all UE teachers during the academic year 1984–1985. The Examiners' Corpus is, however, complete.

It is therefore possible that a proportion of all UE teachers do have concepts in relation to class content which do partly justify the views of UE teachers and UE teaching, which are evidently held by the Examiners. However, of the Teachers who responded to the Questionnaire, most show views about what class contents are desirable, which are identical to those of the Examiners.]

Taken from the other angle, the fact that some criticisms of class content are made by Teachers, which are not made by the Examiners, and that so many indications of areas for improvements, which could have a beneficial impact both on class content and learning outcomes, are present in the Teachers' Corpus, which are not also present in the Examiners' Corpus, would seem to suggest:

That the Information presented in the Teachers' Corpus is new to Examiners

Degree of Similarity between the two Corpuses

As already mentioned, to some extent, the discrepancy between the two sets of comments is partly the result of the different contexts within which the information was generated.

One of the main thrusts of the Teachers' Questionnaire was the enquiry into the motivation of the students.

Examiners, on the other hand, are not exposed to the daily difficulty of either maintaining or creating an acceptable level of student motivation. Nor do the many problems experienced by the teachers (and of which the Examiners betray no knowledge until 1986—when motivation is mentioned for the first time—) necessarily impinge on the experience of Examiners.

On the whole, the evidence of these two Corpuses, taken together, suggests that there is no real difference between the two Groups. It is likely that if the teachers were exposed to the Examiners' experience*, their views would show little difference from the Examiners' views. Similarly, that if the Examiners had been exposed to the teachers' experience, the indications are that they would have reacted in the same ways as the Teachers.

*(In fact, a few of the teachers *are* exposed to one aspect of the Examiners' experience, as markers:—thus teachers' comments are partly the basis for the Examiners' Reports.

Of those who responded to the Questionnaire, 13 had marked one of the four elements of the UE paper at least once; and one had marked one paper for three years running.)

The attitudes of the two groups towards the teaching of UE and the weaknesses of the students are in reality more similar than the Examiners have so far appreciated

Where should the focus be?

The two most important differences between the two groups seem to be these:

1. The Teachers' awareness of the problems of student motivation (an almost equal number of respondents reported high and low motivation in their students) and the absence of any comment by the Examiners on this problem until 1986.
2. The Teachers' indication of problem areas, which are clearly outside their own control, and their call for help in the areas of: direction; an improved syllabus; advice and training in methodology; methods of bridging the gap between CE and UE English; materials; more time in the timetable: as opposed to the Examiners' evident view that all that is needed to obtain improvements is that certain actions *by students and teachers only* are necessary.

Exposure to the Teachers' experience could change the attitudes of the Examiners

If the Examiners can be exposed to the Teachers' experience, and persuaded to recognise the essential similarity of interests and opinions of the teachers and themselves, (—this Paper is a possibly acceptable short-cut to this exposure—) it is hoped that they will feel interested to extend their own routines and the procedures which currently exist, in the following ways:

A. *Within the Existing System*

1. To direct their comments in their Annual Reports to those who are in a position to make the beneficial changes, which are indicated in the Teacher's Corpus as necessary, but which are in areas which are outside the teachers' own control.

2. To the extent that the Examiners themselves are some of those very people (because of their association, in other capacities, either with the UE Subject Committee and/or the University of Hong Kong); perhaps they themselves will see their way clear to press for the changes, beneficial for the learning outcomes of English teaching in Forms 6 and 7, which are indicated in the Teachers' Corpus as necessary, but which are in areas which are outside the teachers' own control.

One of their specific thrusts might be to act in one of the ways described in the Paper this writer delivered at the Institute of Language in Education Second International Seminar (December, 1986): "Teaching English in Forms 6 and 7 in Hong Kong: Motivation, Problems and Strategies: A Teacher-Centred Survey":

3. This is, to act to enhance the status of both the current and the revised UE examination (for which teaching begins in September 1987 in Form 6), so as to make it equivalent to that of the other, A level, subjects.

[The other suggestion contained in the writer's Paper (*op. cit.*)—action to secure an actual increase in the minimum UE grade acceptable for HKU entrance requirements—is probably incapable of success (although Pyrrhic victories in this area *might* be possible).

A recent report in the *South China Morning Post* (17 July 1987, p. 2) that there is a proposal before the Senate of the University of Hong Kong to require higher language grades for entry to the University, including a higher UE grade, seems a step in the right direction. However, it is hoped that the University will not only monitor very carefully the effects on new entrants' standard of English of the new Use of English Examination Syllabus (which will be examined for the first time in the same year as this Proposal would take place, 1989); but also the consistency of the standard indicated by the same grade from year to year.

Will the proposed new requirement (effective from 1989) of Grade D in the UE (new syllabus) examination *in fact* denote a candidate who achieved a higher standard, than one awarded a Grade E (old syllabus) in 1988?

Certainly, the weighting given to the different language skills by the two versions of the Examination seems different.

How far are the skills tested by the two versions of the Examination comparable?

How far is it the case that any change in the skills tested lies in the direction of selecting with greater accuracy students with the necessary ability in English language skills to study in HKU?

It might be argued that the new syllabus—though probably of greater relevance than the present one for future administrators and executives—provides less stimulation than the existing syllabus, for students who are interested in abstract values and concepts, and what Arnold calls the lively play of the mind.

It may well be, therefore, that Grade D (new syllabus) will not in reality indicate a standard any higher than Grade E (old syllabus).

It should, however, be possible to enhance the status of the revised UE examination, to make it equivalent to that of the other, A level subjects.]

The Cambridge Certificates of Language Proficiency might be an appropriate model. The Examination could be called a Certificate examination, with the expressed aim of testing Language Proficiency, at a level equivalent to that of an A level.

To make the examination an A level subject, there would be a necessity for academic content, in such areas as, for instance, linguistics, semantics and morphology: but it is not in this area that the need of the students and the need of Hong Kong society lies.

A Certificate subject in Language Skills, for which international recognition would have been negotiated as at a level equivalent to A level, would be of help in improving students' motivation in the area where the students' present weakness is perceived, and where Society urgently desires improvement.

B. *Within an extension of the Existing System*

4. To support the suggestion now made of an extension of the existing system, whereby the UE Examiners' Annual Report is submitted to the

Education Department, for a consideration of any implications for necessary action on their part; and to whoever is responsible (whether this is the Education Department's Curriculum Development Committee, the English Language Teaching Unit, the Inspectorate, the Colleges of Education, or the Institute of Language in Education; or the Schools of Education of the two Universities) for long-term measures of support (pre- or in-service training; help with the provision of materials and equipment) for teachers of UE in the Hong Kong schools.

[A measure of assistance for a small number of teachers has recently been offered by various organisations (for example, the Continuing Education Division of the Hong Kong Baptist College and the INSTEP Programme of the University of Hong Kong's Extra-Mural and Education Departments. Praiseworthy though these initiatives are, however, they are inadequate substitutes for the measure of support which could be achieved through integration and expansion of such help in a formal extension of the existing systems.]

What indications are there that the Examiners may be ready to support initiatives involving a rapprochment with the Teachers of UE and with those who support teachers in their work?

There are two hopeful signs.

1. The 1986 Examiners' Report does in fact finally recognise the existence of a problem of student motivation.
2. The current and long-standing Chairman of the UE Subject Committee and the most frequent Chief Examiner in recent times of the UE Examination gave a brief address at the Second ILE International Seminar in December 1986; in which she stated that it was time for people to discuss together the problems of English learning outcomes in Hong Kong.

• • •

Use of the two Corpuses as a basis for decisions for changes to the examination syllabus, and for items for inclusion in any teaching syllabus

The fact that both groups do comment on a number of common areas (albeit with different emphasis and frequency) indicates that the picture given by this analysis of two secondary sources is at least approximate to the reality; and that the use of these two Corpuses as a basis for decision for change is, to that extent, justifiable.

The teaching context: is the standard of English falling?

"Standard"

76 of the 139 teachers who responded to this Questionnaire were experienced teachers of the Use of English course. Their comments include observations on changes in their students' motivation over an unspecified number of years.

The information obtainable from the HKEA's Annual UE Reports spans six years; any changes in the phenomena observed by the Examiners and Markers would, presumably, be reflected in these Reports.

Examiners

Comments which explicitly mention "Standard" occur in the following years: 1980 (Summary, Composition, LT); 1981 (Composition); 1983 (Composition); 1985 (LT); and 1986 (Composition, LT).

As far as Composition is concerned, the comment is fairly consistent from 1980 to 1986: this is, that there are a few extremely good candidates, with an increasing proportion of poor candidates.

As for the Listening Test (LT), the comment for 1985 is quite encouraging. But then, in 1986, there is the strange comment that, although the students did quite well in the examination, their performance implies that their teachers need to worry about their listening comprehension.

Teachers

The Teachers make no comments on changes in students' ability or standard. (No question in the Questionnaire specifically requested such comments; however, given the considerable opportunity for free responses, it would be likely that one respondent at least would comment on a change in students' ability or standard if such a change had manifested itself.)

Comment

The impression given is of a pyramidal situation: in spite of the recent large increases in candidates, the number of very good candidates is approximately the same from year to year; but the numbers in each lower rank increase from year to year.

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A. Major areas of concern

Identified by the Examiners' Corpus

1. *Comprehension*

The impression gained is that, in the case of some students, comprehension may be extremely weak.

The evidence suggests that there may be two main reasons for this:

a. a low standard of English;
b. a lack of critical thinking.

Identified by both the Examiners' and the Teacher' Corpus

2. *Grammar*

Three pieces of evidence suggest that there should be a degree of formal grammar taught in a Form 6 and 7 English course.

a. One teacher reports that his/her students keep on asking for grammar to be taught in class.

b. The Examiners continually comment on poor grammar.

c. Several teachers find that their students would appreciate a bridge between CE and UE work.

B. Comment on the teaching of grammar in Forms 6 and 7

1. The amount of grammar to be taught would depend on the competence of the individual students in each individual UE class. Thus, there is a need for:

   a. a diagnostic test to be administered to each student on entry to the UE course.

   b. individal self-study units in relation to the specific areas listed below (and for any other likely common areas of weakness), at a level appropriate for the maturity of the students, and culturally suitable for them.

2. The amount of grammar work, as such, needed in the UE class might gradually decrease as improvements in English learning are increasingly achieved in the Primary and Secondary Schools.

C. Areas for improvement

Based on the comments of Examiners and Teachers, the following are important areas for improvement.

1. *Comprehension and critical thinking*

2. *Specific points of Grammar*

   "wh" questions;
   giving answers which are coherent with the questions;
   punctuation;
   sentence construction;
   use of links;
   use of tenses (e.g. past perfect, past indefinite, subjunctive, simple future);
   voice;
   transitive and intransitive verbs;
   agreement of subject and verb;
   number;
   use of the definite and indefinite articles;
   use of prepositions;
   gender;
   a recognition and clear understanding of the difference between English and Chinese constructions.

3. *Other Areas for Improvement in Basic Language Skills*

Skill in relation to:

   metaphors and idioms;
   a recognition of the difference between English and Chinese expressions;
   spelling;

an awareness of common errors in pronunciation (and hence, spelling) and the reasons for them;
format;
register;
various means of extending vocabulary;
reading data in tabular form and relating it to information presented in verbal form.

D. Methods of improvement

Comment

1. It seems that grammar and comprehension (and, perhaps, writing also) could be improved at the same time, by focussing on the grammatical and stylistic analysis of passages.

It would be important that the passages used for this study should not require extreme attention to be devoted also to other features, such as would be required if too much of the vocabulary was unknown or if the thought was too sophisticated.

2. Critical thinking should be given more emphasis.

The development of an ability to debate and argue a case can itself be a help to following the arguments of others.

2a. There might be a case, not only for including an oral element in the examination (as argued in the writer's Paper delivered in the Institute of Language in Education International Seminar in December 1986 (*op. cit.*), but of requiring participation in a debate as one part of the oral element. [The administrative arrangements would not be by any means insuperable.]

3. It seems that the written comprehension work, currently required, is far too difficult for many students.

To the extent that spoken discourse is usually less dense in intellectual content, it may be that the intellectual content of oral and listening work is more appropriate than that of reading work, for the weaker students.

3a. There might be a case, not only for including an oral element in the English Examination, but for giving the oral and listening elements equal weighting with the reading and writing elements.

It is not likely that the better students would suffer; since these skills are equally useful to them also; and they are skills which have traditionally been given less formal emphasis in Hong Kong.

4. It cannot be emphasised too much that:
   1. class contents need face validity with the students themselves;
   2. this face validity is most easily achieved if the students perceive (or can be led to perceive) the class contents as relevant to an examination which has high relevance and status.

E. Specific proposals for changes to the examination syllabus

The class contents which this analysis of two Corpuses suggests are required, are most likely to be able to be present in the following conditions:

a if the UE Examination is changed in the following ways:

  i if an oral element is introduced;
  ii if the listening and oral elements together have equal weighting with the reading and written elements;
  iii if the oral element includes a debate section;
  iv if the listening element includes a phonetics section;
  v if the listening element includes a dictation section;
  vi if the listening comprehension includes a passage from Hong Kong's electronic media;
  vii if the listening comprehension includes a question which requires the identifying of the nature of a number of brief excerpts (e.g. a News Report, a political speech, a salesman making a pitch, a secretary responding to her boss, etc). [This addresses the problem of format and register, as well as creating motivation for structured work in relation to English language radio and television; as well as work on awareness of the differences and similarities of English and Chinese usage in matters of register and format.]
  viii if specific vocabulary questions are asked;
  ix if a new reading comprehension question is introduced which requires the grammatical and stylistic analysis of at least one paragraph;
  x if a new reading comprehension question is introduced, which requires the identifying of the nature of a number of brief excerpts (e.g. a letter to a friend, a speech, a bed-side story, etc). [This addresses the problem of format and register.]
  xi if one reading comprehension passage is taken from the Hong Kong daily newspapers;
  xii if the rubric which says that students should not write in complete sentences is omitted. [It is MORE difficult for students to write NOT in complete sentences. Also, it is clear that students need to practice writing complete, grammatical, sentences.]

b Either

  i if a detailed teaching syllabus is produced;

  Or

  ii if a course textbook is commissioned.

Note: The points listed in E are firmly based on the two Corpuses discussed in this article. All (other than (*a*)(ii)) find a basis in specific recommendations, or on identifications of specific areas of weakness, made in the Annual Reports, many of them explicitly.

Many may also be *derived* from the material presented in the Teacher's Corpus.

It is clear that the proposals above indicate an examination syllabus rather different from that of the new Use of English Examination Syllabus for Forms 6 and 7 in Hong Kong, which has—as mentioned above—now been accepted for first examination in the summer of 1989.

Those who have worked on developing the new examination syllabus believe that it is a distinct improvement on the former syllabus.

An examination can of course improve in several areas: in the validity and reliability of the examination as an examination (does it test what it aims to test? do the best candidates score the best scores, etc.?); and in the "washback" effect on the teaching—and learning—in schools.

Given the continuing and growing concern in Hong Kong about maintaining or perhaps improving the standard of English in Hong Kong, a most important concern must also be, therefore, whether it helps either to maintain or to improve the standard of English or not.

Some of the Proposals made in E above are in fact addressed by the new Examination Syllabus.

The issue of grammar (Ea (ix)) is directly addressed by the examining of "language systems". Furthermore, the sample paper does not include any rubric that states: "Candidates are not required to write in complete sentences" (Ea (xii)); and, if this accurately foreshadows the actual Examination Papers, this could also encourage more attention to developing grammatical accuracy. There will however be problems, if markers are instructed not to penalise candidates for grammatical inaccuracy in those sections of the paper which do not specifically test it. Word will get back to the schools, and this will discourage acceptance of consistently rigorous attention to grammatical accuracy.

Much of the HKEA sample paper for the new Listening Test could be seen as an advanced version of a dictation exercise (Ea (v)). More than this, however, it also requires the additional skills of relating information heard, with written and graphic material, and some evaluation of the attitude of speakers. Both these aspects—which are innovations at this level—are helpful. In general, it seems that the new Listening Test will encourage work in the classroom, which is relevant to daily life.

Nevertheless, it is the case that the more complex skills tested in the sample Listening Test paper also require in candidates the simpler skills which would be tested by a straightforward dictation paper (Ea (v)) and some phonetics work (Ea (iv)). The fact that the Test does not *directly* test these, simpler, skills may well mean that students will be resistant to the simpler work which would help them improve. As with the present syllabus, they may be resistant to work not identical in format to the examination itself. If this is the case, many may still not develop the skills, relevant to their future English language needs—whether in the workforce or in their tertiary studies—which this Listening Test sets out to test.

For the new Listening Test to effect more improvement in the Form 6 and 7 English classroom, the addition of even short sections of straightforward dictation and phonetics work into the new Examination Syllabus would, in the writer's opinion, be helpful.

The new Examination Syllabus does not directly encourage the use in teaching of materials from the Hong Kong media (even adapted materials) (Ea (vi), (xi)). It does not encourage oral work (Ea (i)). It does not encourage vocabulary work *per se* (Ea (viii)). Nor intensive work on style, register, or format (Ea (vii), (ix), (x)). Of course, all these—with the important exception of oral work—are quite closely relevant to what the Examination Syllabus does require; but, if they run true to form, students will be convinced of this only if the examination itself *directly* tests such work.

Additions of these elements would thus, in the writer's view, improve the chances that the new syllabus will have any radically improved effect on what takes place in the classroom.

It is very much to be hoped that an oral test will be incorporated into the new UE examination syllabus as soon as possible.

To the best of the writer's knowledge, no teaching syllabus is being prepared, consistent with the new examination syllabus (Eb (i)). No course textbook (Eb (ii)) has been commissioned.

This means, by and large, that what takes place in the classroom, in preparation for the new UE examination, will be determined by the textbooks which are produced by publishers.

Of those on the market already, some show a notable flaw. Doubtless to save or reduce the costs of copyright permissions, the passages seem to have been written by the textbook writer, and have not been selected from a variety of writers who are professionals in various fields. Others rely almost entirely on local journalism for written tests. The former circumstance effectively minimises the range of the students' exposure to a lively variety of authentic English. The latter limits the conceptual level quite severely.

The proof of the pudding is in the eating. It is very much hoped that the HKEA will monitor most carefully the washback effect on schools of the new UE examination syllabus, particularly with regard to any effect on the "standard" of English of the candidates.

Since this process could not even begin for two years, it is hoped that, in the meantime, modifications along the lines suggested above could be made.

In conclusion: a plea for response

This writer would be very happy if this Paper could provoke responses, whether of acceptance, constructive criticism, further information, or alternative suggestions, which would—like this Paper—have the sincere intention of helping to improve the English Language outcomes of Hong Kong students from their Form 6 and 7 English Language Course.

As has already been indicated, there is evidence that there are people within the different relevant groups in Hong Kong who are inclining to action, in relation to the English teaching at the higher levels of the HK Education System.

Let us hope that concerted, harmonious, energetic, and efficient advantage will be taken of this momentum, to build on progress already made, and that beneficial outcomes will be achieved.

Dr. Gillian B. Workman is Senior Lecturer (English) at the Baptist College, Hong Kong. At the next ILE seminar (15–17 December 1987), Dr. Workman's Paper will be on the topic: 'The Need for A Clear Understanding of The Implications of Published Public Examinations Statistics, Particularly with Reference to Conclusions About the Relative Standard of Candidates over a Period of Time'.

從古文字看傳統教育對待體罰的問題

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老師施諸學生的體罰問題，前一陣子因爲電視台播放了探討香港教育有關這類事件的片集，故而引起教師團體予以詰難，認爲該片有誤導觀眾，歪曲老師形象之嫌。誰是誰非，一時之間很難下得定論；何況能不能夠體罰，又必先考慮爲一個，因時地是否有此必要的相對而非絕對的問題。這裏不妨先就語源學的角度，剖析〝教〞與〝學〞二字的字形架構，及擇錄若干先秦典籍一些有關教學與體罰的重要論述，探索中國傳統教育對體罰有那些看法，如果不得不執行體罰時，則會採用那種態度來面對學生的問題。

先看〝教〞、〝學〞兩個字，在漢代許慎的《說文解字》裏怎樣詮釋：

〝 上所施，下所效也。从 ， 。古文 。〞音古孝切。

〝 覺悟也。从教，从 ； ，尚 也。臼聲。 篆文 省。〞音胡覺切。

由許慎的說法，再參考古文字的架構，就可以知道：

1. 學字本來的寫法是〝 〞，裏面包含着一個教字〝 〞，剛好說明教與學二者依存關係；因爲學生所學的，全得依靠老師拿什麼去教給他，此所以《說文》釋教字做〝上施下效〞的原因。
2. 由學字的構形，我們還可以知道上古中國要學生首先懂得那些知識，也就是老師最早要教的。下列甲骨文字能夠提供這方面的訊息：

   A. 見殷契遺珠第522片甲骨

   B. 見殷契卜辭第717片甲骨

   C. 見京都大學所藏甲骨第4 836片甲骨

   D. 大篆

   E. 小篆

   按爻字說文云：〝爻、交也，象易六爻頭交也。〞音胡茅切。周代易卜用筮竹，形狀與後代的竹籌相似，於占卜以外亦用以記數，故甲骨文A型，乃在爻旁着兩手會從記數學起的意思。

B形爲爻下着房舍形，說明商周時代，中國已存有學校一類之學習場所，早非遊牧民族時代那種遇事而學，隨機而教的敎育方法。

C型實際是A型和B型的合併寫法，因爲𠬞(拱)與𦥑(掬)同樣表示用兩手把弄器物；二字的分別只係〝拱〞象兩手奉舉，而〝掬〞象兩手提挽而已。

D型進一步加子字表示這個正在學習知識的人是個小孩子，而E型再加象人手持棍棒狀的攴(攵)字爲義符，然後才構成古人認爲什麼是敎與學的整個觀念；《尚書・舜典》：〝扑作敎刑〞。《傳》：〝扑、榎楚也〞。正好爲此給予論證。

同樣的例子還可以從敎字看到，《說文》裏尚有一個𡥈字解釋爲：〝𡥈、放也。从子、爻聲。〞音古肴切。

這裏的放字作仿效的仿字解，也即是敎字所說的上施下效。敎與學本來就是一種模仿行爲，敎者將先民的智識作出規範的模式讓學者仿效，故謂之師範；學者跟着學懂了，於是恍然大悟，此所以《說文》釋〝學〞字云〝覺悟也〞。又由〝𡥈〞之與〝敎〞，可見敎字加攴爲義符，才將字形固定下來；它的古文〝[illegible]〞不列子爲意符，與〝𡥈〞的不列攴爲意符，都祇能表達敎字的部份意義吧了。

〝𡥈〞、〝敎〞關係猶如〝學〞之與〝斆〞，不過許慎將學字作爲斆字的篆省，而在𡥈字又不列作敎字的省寫，此其一；𡥈字入子部，而敎字入攴部，此其二；徐鉉注《說文》且分讀𡥈、敎二字爲平、去異音，此其三；是以文字學家不審〝𡥈〞本即敎字或省，自易忽略敎、學二字包孕的訊息，不約而同地說明了古人早經認定體罰在整個敎學過程中的存在價值。

至於古人對體罰的問題，又抱着些什麼態度呢？《禮記・學記篇》說：〝大學始敎………入學鼓篋，孫其業也；夏楚二物，收其威也。〞鄭玄注：〝鼓篋，擊鼓警眾乃發篋出所治經業也。孫猶恭順也。夏、槄也，楚、荊也。二者所以撲撻犯禮者，收謂收斂整齊之；威、威儀也。夏、古雅反，注同。槄、吐刀反。《爾雅》云：'槄、山榎'。撲、普卜反。〞

按威儀猶今人之謂儀表，古人施行體罰的原則在警策學生，使其收斂嬉遊之心，上課時能夠肅整容儀；施罰的形式則大體用戒尺，即古人所用的夏(或加木旁)楚，擊打掌心以爲懲敎。

末了，雖是題外話，但值得一說的是，敎育之敎字從爻亦聲；現時一般字模或手寫每誤從孝旁作教，《說文》的孝字作：

〝孝、善事父母者，从老省，从子，子承老也。〞音呼教切。

孝、𡥈異音異義，千萬別混爲一體才好。

中國語文教師延續教育的必然性和必要性

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最近我讀到了刊登在人民教育出版社(北京)出版的《課程・教材・教法》(1986年第3期)上的湖北省武昌實驗中學的一位語文老師陳文國寫的文章。文章談的是試教《閱讀》、《寫作》新教材(全日制重點中學語文課用)的體會，題目是：《新穎・充實・管用》。文章中有一個小標題是《使用新教材必須更新知識》。這段文字是：〝新教材引進了許多新思想、新知識、新訓練，試教過程中也不斷產生一些新問題，這對教師提出了更新更高的要求。如果我們不注意自身知識的更新，那是很難適應工作的。比如'段'的知識是近年來語文教學界紛紛提出的研究課題，而新教材編者已經將它引進了《閱讀》，把它作爲知識體系探討方面的一個重點，並提出了一條研究的思路。再如第六册出現了介紹信息論和控制論的說明文，而《寫作》課本'現代漢語常識'使用的是有別於統用的中學'暫擬體系的新概念'，這些都是我們平時實踐比較少的東西，如果我們自己都沒有掌握，那麼怎樣去教學生呢！因此在試教中，我們加強了學習，博採兼蓄專業和專業以外的新知識來爭取試教的主動權。〞由這一段話，我們可以瞭解到，作爲一個語文教師必須隨時像海綿吸水一樣，學習新的知識，形成新的能力，才能適應語文教育工作的需要。

語文教師的延續教育屬於終身教育範疇。〝國際成人教育會議〞的第三次會議(1972年在東京；第一次會議是1949年在丹麥赫爾辛格，第二次是1960年在加拿大蒙特利爾，第四次是在1985年3月在巴黎，第四次會議通過了〝學習是人的基本權利〞的宣言)確定了終身教育的概念，明確了終身教育的重要性以及在經濟文化發展、社會進步中的重要作用。工作後的語文教師的延續教育，就一般情況看來，我理解爲主要指大學後的延續教育，即取得高等師範院校學士學位的、合格的語文教師的繼續教育；其次是不合格的語文教師的學習，屬進修參加合格考核問題。本文主要談大學後的延續教育問題。

語文教師的延續教育之所以重要，是由於社會是發展的，科學文化是發展的，學術研究是發展的，教育體制是發展的，教材是有變化的，教師是生活在日益發展的社會當中，生活在知識量激增的情勢之中。語文教師要教書育人，授業解惑，要溫故也要知新。在知識量激增的時代，必須日

益充實知識和能力的結構，鍛煉自己的智力，這樣才能適應日益進步的社會的要求。提高語文教師的知識、能力和思想素質問題，從來都不是抽象的、一成不變的，而是隨着歷史的發展而不斷發展的。我們需要的語文教師的素質是適應國家開放、改革、發展社會主義商品經濟，建設高度的民主和物質文明、精神文明所需要的素質，即現代化的素質。

這種素質，有異於我國多年來帶有封閉格局的素質。工作後的語文教師應看到社會科學文化的發展帶來的教育、人的思想觀點、生活方式、消費結構（用北京市的例子說，在飲食、衣着不斷改善外，根據抽樣調查，每百戶居民擁有電視113臺（其中彩電32臺），電冰箱42臺，收錄機71臺，與五十年代已大不相同）、工作教學條件諸方面以及其他社會領域的深刻變革，並應看到國家的建設前景、國際關係的發展對全球的發展正產生着深刻的影響。在這種形勢下，語文教師要瞭解自己的教育對象在認識、知識和能力方面的要求和變化。這就必然要提高自身的修養，開拓視野，增長能力，提高自身的思想、科學、文化素質。

從發展中的社會的要求來看，新的技術革命引起了物質生產和精神生產之間關係的變化，出現了文化教育（含語文教育）與科學技術相結合的趨勢，出現了自然科學與社會科學、工程技術科學等學科之間的相互交議、滲透的局面。這就要求語文教師不僅具備語文科學(1)、教育科學(2)的知識，而且還要具備多學科(3)的基本知識和必要的科技知識(4)以及相應的教學能力(5)。可以看出，社會發展和科學文化的發展必然要求語文教師要改善自己的知識和能力的結構。

從語文教育學的發展來看，中國大陸多年來的語文教育思想，一是傳授語文知識（含課文），二是提高寫作能力。隨着社會發展的要求，現在已經發展爲知識與能力並重而且相互結合的教育階段。知識結構也適應需要，由單純的文學內容發展爲文學——文章（包括應用性文體、科技文體）——語文知識的內容，而能力也適應社會交際日益廣泛的需要發展爲聽、說（包括演講辯論）、讀、寫四種能力同步發展的結構，同時培養學生的創造性思維能力。這就要求語文教師必然要打破過去的枷鎖，增長這些方面的知識，補充並提高自己的教學能力，即工作後不改善自己的知識和能力的結構，就難以勝任語文教師的工作。

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(1) 包括美學藝術。

(2) 包括心理學。

(3) 如電腦語文處理、信息語言學、統計學、控制論、模糊論、統籌學、心理語言學、社會語言學、法制和法律等。

(4) 課本中有大量的關於海洋、宇宙、激光、機器人、大自然、仿生學的說明文。

(5) 如製作軟件教具，使用現代化錄音、錄像教具等。

以上我談了語文教師延續教育的必然性，這正是客觀形勢發展的需要而形成的必然性。

從語文教師的工作自身要求來看，大學後的延續教育是十分必要的。教師的主觀世界應具備熱愛教育事業並爲教育事業獻身的素質，這種思想素質是從事教育工作的靈魂和動力，是教師的脊梁。說文教師應具備這種思想素質，應立志成爲本專業的學者。這樣就會主動地在原有的知識和能力的結構上，添磚加瓦，努力不解，用新的知識來裝備自己，有求知若渴的思想感情，重視延續教育，修正、補充自己的知識和能力的結構，以適應語文教學工作的需要，成爲具有身教和言教品德的語文教育家。

幾十年來社會發展的實踐和科學文化(6)的發展，已經證明語文教師延續教育的必要性。

葉聖陶先生說：〝大學畢業之後還是要自學，在工作和生活中自學，根據工作和生活的需要自學。許多真有成就的人，他們的知識絕大部分是自己學來的。〞(7)盧嘉錫先生(中國科學院院長)說：〝即使讀到大學，一個人……也不可能在學校裏把將來要用的知識全部學完。在當今科學技術飛速發展的情況下，知識更新的進程是非常快的。學到的知識不夠用，甚至過時了，新的知識又急需我們去掌握。〞(8)這些話都說的是大學後繼續學習(9)的必要性。下面想從幾個方面談談語文教師在大學畢業後由於工作的需要和補充新知識的需要而繼續受教育的必要性，這當中也有點滴自己的體會。

第一、要補充關於漢語普通話的語音知識，用普通話進行教學，這是漢語規範化的重要任務。教師要學好〝全國語言文字工作會議〞(10)的文件(11)，掌握國家的語文政策和方針任務。中國大陸的《憲法》已規定〝國家推廣全國通用的普通話〞，普通話理當成爲教學語言，但是從現狀上看，還有不少語文教師不能用普通話進行教學，這些教師正在努力學習普通話的知識和說普通話的能力。去年五月(1985)我來香港參加〝普通話教學與測試研討會〞，瞭解到今年(1986)在香港學校的某些年級增加普通話課程，我想將來普通話也會成爲教學語言。1986年4月18日《光明日報》披露〝港府官員也在學習普通話，港府公務員訓練處長柯維謙先生說：‘港府

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(6) 對語文教師來說特別是文史學科。

(7) 《和青年朋友談自學》第1頁，檔案出版社，1986。

(8) 同上，第3頁。

(9) 對國家和社會來說即延續教育。

(10) 1986年1月。

(11) 見《語文建設》1986年第1、2期。

官員需要與內地官員進行社交上的溝通。'在過去半年，六十名來自各部門的副處長級官員、行政官員、專業人士及工程師等，積極參加普通話課程訓練。"我認爲這就是工作後延續教育的重要內容之一。官員如此，我想語文教師出于自己主觀工作的需要，也一定能很快地適應需要，學好普通話課程(12)。

第二、與學習普通話有關的是，語文教師要補充和增長關於演講、辯論的知識和能力。談說辯論的教學在大陸多年來是忽視的。由于語文課本(13)增加了說話訓練、演講與模擬法庭辯論的課文，中師也增加了口語訓練的內容，同時受到大陸近幾年來開展演講活動(14)和香港舉行的"亞洲大專辯論會"在電視台播出後的影響，中學語文課勢必要加强學生的說話訓練，因此要求語文教師要增加這方面的知識和教學能力。這也正顯示出延續教育的必要性。

第三、新的教學語法體系的學習(15)。大陸的中學語文教學比較重視語法教學。五十年代的漢語課本和六十年代的語文課本使用的教學語法系統是五十年代擬訂的《暫擬漢語教學語法系統》(16)。三十多年來，特別是1976年以來中國語言學界重視了漢語語法特點的研究，有很多研究成果。這些研究成果要反映到中學語文教學中去。爲此，1981年7月在哈爾濱召開了由教育部主持的"全國語法和語法教學討論會"，王力、呂叔湘、張志公、朱德熙、張壽康等一百多學者參加了討論，會上確定了教學語法體系的原則，以後又經過多次修改，在1984年第二期《中學語文教學》雜誌發表了《中學教學語法系統提要(試用)》，這是目前新課本使用的體系。五十年代的《暫擬系統》是字、詞、句的單位系統，而《提要》則是語素、詞、短語、句、句群的五級單位體系，而以短語爲教學中心。語文教師就需要補充、修改自己的語法知識，提高適用於《提要》體系的語法分析能力。這方面的延續教育是十分必要的。北京語言學會爲此舉辦了系列講座，編寫了《中學教學語法基礎》一書(17)。

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(12) 詳見拙文《現代社會與普通話》見《北京師院學報》1986年第2期，這是在香港"普通話教學與測試研討會"上的大會發言。

(13) 高中語文《寫作》。

(14) 如1986年6月大規模的十城市青少年演講邀請賽，由中央電視臺和《演講與口才》雜誌社舉辦，已播出。

(15) 這就是我在文章的開頭所寫的要學習新語文課本使用的有別於"暫擬系統"的語法體系的問題。

(16) 見人民教育出版社出版的《語法和語法教學》1956。

(17) 張壽康審訂，北京教育出版社，1986。

第四、補充文章學的知識(18)。文章學研究文章的組織結構規律和讀寫文章的規律，既是古老的學科，又是新興的學科。大陸已出版了若干本文章學書籍(19)。中學語文教師補充文章學的知識是必要的。

第五、大學畢業後出版的書刊和文物資料的學習。這是大學後延續教育的重要內容。在這裏我可以談一談自己的經歷。我是1946年北京師範大學中文系畢業的，如果把我微薄的知識分爲三，那麼大學和大學以前習得的基礎知識是三分之一，而大學後學習的內容佔三分之二。我畢業後學習了在大學沒有學習過的普通語言學、漢語詞彙學、語體風格學、語文教育學、現代文學等學科和大量的新書刊，而對文物資料的學習則顯得更爲突出。我在大學讀書時，當時的文字學概念告訴我，甲骨文字是殷商文字，鐘鼎青銅文字是周代文字。後來1956年11月到1982年5月，陝西岐周原鳳雛宮殿遺址窖穴出土有字甲骨，北京昌平、陝西扶風齊家村等地又不斷出現有字甲骨並陸續公佈，經考證斷定爲西周甲骨文字，這就打破了甲骨文字專屬殷商時代的概念(20)。而商代婦好墓的發掘，出現了銅器文字，也打破了青銅文字專屬周代的概念(婦好墓文物曾在北京展出)。又如1959年10月在新疆婼羌縣米蘭古城遺址發現的《坎曼爾詩簽》兩抄件；1969年新疆維吾爾自治區吐魯番一座唐墓出土了《論語鄭氏註》(卜天壽抄本)。以後，1972年在山東臨沂銀雀山西漢前期墓裏發現了《孫臏兵法》(21)、《守法令十三篇》、《晏子》、《太公》、《尉繚子》等竹書殘本(22)。1973年在河北定縣西漢中山王墓(即金縷玉衣墓)發現了《論語》、《文子》等竹書殘本，同年在長沙馬王堆西漢前期的三號墓發現了《戰國從橫家書》、《老子》(有影印本)、《經法》(23)、《周易》和《遣册》等大批帛書和竹書。1975年在湖北雲夢睡虎地十一號秦墓發現了《秦律》的部分抄本和秦《大事記》(公元前306–217)(24)。1977年在安徽阜陽雙古堆西漢前期的汝陰侯墓發現了《詩經》、《倉頡篇》等竹書的殘本。這些

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(18) 新的教材有大量的文章(如寫實記敍文、說明文和議論文，有別于文學作品)，有本文第一段提到的關於"段"的知識，這些都屬文章學的內容。

(19) 如拙著《文章學導論》(湖北教育出版社)和由我主編的《文章學概論》(山東教育出版社)，還有《古代文章學概論》(王凱符等，武漢大學出版社)、《文章學》(徐江等，南開大學出版社)等。

(20) 參見《西周甲骨的發現、研究及其學術價值》，王宇信，見《文史知識》1986年第5期；又見《西周甲骨探論》，中國社會科學出版社。

(21) 1975年文物出版社。

(22) 參見《銀雀山漢簡釋文》，文物出版社，1986。

(23) 文物出版社，1976。

(24) 參見《雲夢秦簡初探》，河南人民出版社，1979。

抄本、帛書、竹書，有的是重要佚書，如《孫臏兵法》和《經法》(漢黃老之學)，有的是古抄本。這些文物有的改變了我們對某些古籍的看法，有的修正了我們的認識，有的對勘了《史記》之誤，很有重新學習之感。例如《坎曼爾詩箋》中的白居易《賣炭翁》抄本的年代是元和十五年(公元820年)，當時白居易(公元772–847)年48歲，還健在。抄件的詩句與今本(含課本)稍有不同。如〝翩翩兩騎來是誰〞，抄件作〝兩騎翩翩來是誰〞，案平仄論(下句爲〝黃衣使者白衫兒〞)，作〝兩騎翩翩〞較爲順適；今本〝一車炭，千餘斤〞，抄件作〝一車炭重千餘斤〞，以當中不頓足爲七字爲好；今本〝半匹紅綃一丈綾〞，抄件作〝半匹紅紗一丈綾〞，〝綃〞是絲帛，價值比紗貴得多，應以紗爲是(25)。

又如，從宋代以來就認爲傳世的《晏子春秋》(即《晏子》)、《尉繚子》(兵家)(26)、《六韜》(由《太公》分出)都是後人僞作，但銀雀山出土抄本證明這些都是先秦古籍，而《鶡冠子》前人也認爲是僞書，但從馬王堆出土的古佚書來看，這本書也是先秦古籍，《文子》也是如此，改變了我們過去的錯誤的看法。

我們現在把《戰國策》的《觸讋說趙太后》的觸讋，根據馬王堆帛書改爲觸龍，這是大家熟知的例子。另根據《史記》的記載，蘇秦與張儀是同時期的敵對人物，而從馬王堆出土的《戰國從橫家書》(27)來考證(帛書多爲司馬遷所未見)，根據帛書的記載，張儀在前，當他在秦國當權的時候，蘇秦還很年輕。張儀死在公元前301年是秦昭襄王時代(齊[illegible]王元年)，而蘇秦是活動在齊[illegible]王、齊襄王時代，年輩比張儀晚得多(比張儀晚死25年左右)。這就端正了我們對張儀、蘇秦的認識，而這些資料是我在大學讀書時無法看到的。

第六、〝絶知此事要躬行〞。這是陸游的詩。所謂躬行，我是指要去參觀出土文物展覽，去參觀博物館，也指游覽參觀考察。我們知道傳統的說法是中國最早的文字是殷商甲骨文字，而從山東大汶口的[illegible]口文字(北京自然博物館有復制原大的[illegible]和刻字[illegible][旦])。西安東郊半坡遺址出土的器物有圖畫和文字(如[illegible]，還有複合文字，如[illegible])，根據碳14測定距今約六千年，這樣中國文字的歷史就上推了三千年。幾年以前，河南登封王城崗，發現了夏代文字資料([illegible]，釋爲〝共〞字)。這些都能在半坡博物館和洛陽博物館見到實物和復製品。

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(25) 詳見《出土文物二三事》，郭沫若，1972，人民出版社，第13–14頁。

(26) 上海古籍出版社，1978年注釋本。

(27) 文物出版社，1976。

我過去從來沒有把〝阿房宮〞、〝灞橋〞同現時聯系起來，而到了西安却見到了阿房宮公社和灞橋商店。在秦兵馬俑博物館和銅車馬館瞭解到秦代兵將的裝束和車馬的裝配，在咸陽博物館見到了西漢的大量兵馬俑(形制較小)，在西安(含碑林)見到了聞名的唐宋碑石，在河北正定大佛寺親自撫摸了有名的隋代《龍藏寺碑》，增加了實感。

我過去在讀劉禹錫的《洞庭》：〝白銀盤里一青螺。〞和雍陶的《題君山》：〝一螺青黛鏡中心。〞的詩句時，以爲君山是立着的〝青螺，下圓而上光。1984年我游洞庭，登君山，才知道是橫着的〝青螺〞，一頭寬一頭窄。如果不到洞庭湖是會用想像去代替真實的。在洞庭湖我親眼見到范仲淹《岳陽樓記》中寫的〝長烟(雲)一空，皓月千里〞的景像。〝一空〞應是〝滿空〞，我見到了滿空的條雲。語文課本(初五冊)注爲〝大片烟霧完全消散；一，全〞是失實的(從互文看，〝一空〞應與〝千里〞相對仗)。我覺得這樣的延續學習也是不可少的。

第七、必須改變死板的教學方法。應當讓學生不僅〝學會〞而且〝會學〞，要把死教變爲指導學生學，這種改變在大陸已有端倪，但未形成風氣。這是複雜的問題，也是重要的問題(習慣的教法是很難變的)，本文不準備詳述這個問題，但改變是必要的。

從以上叙述可以說明語文教師延續教育的必要性。

下面想談談中國大陸進行工作後的語文教師(主要是大學後)的延續教育的實施簡況。

1985年《關於教育體制改革的決定》指出：〝必須對現有的教師進行認真的培訓和考核，把發展師範教育和培訓在職教師作爲發展教育事業的戰略措施。〞、〝要爲在職教師舉辦函授和廣播電視講座，要切實辦好教師進修院校。〞據此，中國國家教育委員會主任李鵬說：〝今年(1986)我國租用的國際通訊衛星專門開設了電視教育頻道，爲培養中小學教師提供了一個很好的條件。〞(28)李鵬還說：〝實施九年制義務教育，師資是個大問題。沒有合格的教師，就難以保證教學質量。目前我國有八百萬中小學教師，擔負着兩億多中小學生的教學任務〞、〝他們中間還有不少的同志沒有接受過正規的師範教育，爲了進一步提高中小學的教學水平，保證教學質量，需要進行在職培訓。現在'中國教育電視'(29)節目的播出和電視師範學院的建立，就爲廣大中小學教師的在職學習和提高創造了一種條件。〞、〝今後一個時期，要把成人教育的工作重點轉移到崗位職務培訓

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(28) 李鵬《堅持改革，大力發展基礎教育》1986年9月11日《光明日報》。

(29) 引者按，即國際通訊衛星專用於電視教學的頻道，在語文方面開設現代漢語、古代漢語、文章寫作等課程。

340

上來。〃、〃這種教育應當提倡學用結合、學以致用和以不脫產的業餘學習爲主。同時積極開展大學後的繼續教育。〃(60)

上面的幾段話說明了兩個問題：一個問題是爲了貫徹《中華人民共和國義務教育法》中的第十三條：〃國家採取措施加强和發展師範教育，加速培養、培訓師資，有計劃地實現小學教師具有中等師範學校畢業水平，初級中等學校的教師具有高等師範專科學校畢業以上水平。國家建立教師資格考核制度，對合格教師頒發資格證書〃的條文，現在國家已頒布了試行辦法。考核合格證書暫設教材教法考試合格證書和專業合格證書兩種。〃計劃在五年或者更長一點的時間內，先讓教師在所教學科方面達到國家規定的標準，能夠勝任所教學科的教學工作，作到崗位合格。〃(61)就語文課來說，已擬定了現代漢語、古代漢語、語言學概論、教材教法等科的考試大綱，並編印了相應的教材，準備明年舉行第一次考核。這是中國大陸在教師進修考核方面的重點工作。

第二個問題是：大學後的繼續教育。目前雖然不是國家教師培訓的重點，但從李鵬的講話中可以看出，國家對大學後的延續教育是重視的。目前從事大學後教育工作的單位很多，除各省市教育廳局、教育學院舉辦語文學術、教學講座，研究班，開展電影、電視教學錄音、錄像討論和觀摩教學，召開教學經驗交流會和專題研討會之外，就語文學科來說，國家對中國語言學會以及各省市語言學會，中國修辭學會以及地區修辭學會，作家學會、全國中學語文教學研究會(含各省市研究會)，中國邏輯與語言研究會，現代漢語研究會、《中學語文教學》雜誌社和中國民主同盟中央、中國民主促進會中央及地方市委會舉辦的語文學科講座都是支持的。下面舉例來說一說。

北京教育學院除培訓非大專畢業的語文教師(開面授、函授課程，舉辦電視講座)之外，從1978年到1984年舉辦了語文專題講座122次，參加聽講者爲84 100人次。該院從1983年起辦了語文教學研究班，以提高具有大學畢業程度、從事教學工作多年的教師水平，注意解決教師的知識更新和進一步提高教學能力。1983年9月開辦的語文研究班招收了59名學員，學習的課程有教育理論，如德育論，學習心理和教學論(62)，學習語言學、美學、文體通論等課程，脫離教學崗位學習半年；1984年又舉辦了同樣的研究班。

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(60) 《搞好電視教學．發展開放教育》，見1986年9月25日《光明日報》。

(61) 《中學語文教學》1986年第9期17頁。

(62) 討論傳統教學論以及蘇．贊可夫、美．布魯納和法國、德國等的教學論。

東城分院和西城分院近幾年也舉辦了中學語文教材教法研究班和不同課題的研究班(如現代漢語)，參加的多爲骨幹教師。北京教育學院組織的學科教材教法研究班，開展教學研究、教學經驗總結和交流活動(含教學電影和錄像分析)。結業時每個學員要交學業論文(34)。1986年7月14日北京市教育局同日本國際協力事業團合作舉辦的教育工程學教師培訓班開學，有40名教師參加學習，學習視聽教育、計算機在教學上的利用等課程(35)。

河北省教育廳師範教育處於1985年12月在唐山市舉辦了〝中師口語教學講習會〞，這是第一次口語教學研究的會，有十一個省市中等師範學校的口語教師140餘人參加，有研究漢語口語、口語修辭、演講學的專家講課，對口語教學問題進行了討論，並發出了加强口語教學研究的《倡議書》(36)。

河北保定地區教育局在1982年4月舉辦語文學術報告會，我在會上講了開創語文教學新局面的幾個問題(37)。1980年武漢市教育局與教育學院共同舉辦〝中學語文課堂教學研究會〞，請張志公、葉蒼岑、張壽康等講課(38)並舉行觀摩教學。1982年河南省洛陽地區教育局也舉辦過兩次爲期12天的語文教學講習班。1985年11月江西宜春地區和新餘市教育局舉辦〝秀江之秋中學語文教研週〞，有二十一個省市的近千名語文骨幹教師參加研究教改問題，有徐仲華等十三位專家(包括特級教師)作了專題報告。這種教學研究活動是難以數計的，僅我個人幾年來就曾參加過北京、錦州、吉林、長春、通遼、洛陽、信陽、岳陽、廣州、昆明、深圳等二十幾個城市的有關提高大學後語文教師水平的教學活動。

學術團體也經常爲語文教師舉辦介紹科研成果的講習班，一般舉辦十天到十五天左右，多半在假期內進行組織。如中國語言學和中國修辭學、中國文章學會(籌)現代漢語研究會曾多次舉辦語法修辭、文章學講習班(如在咸陽、福州、昆明、敦煌、承德等地)。

北京語言學會爲提高語文教師的語言教學水平，於1981年舉辦〝現代漢語講座〞，有王力、呂叔湘、周祖謨、周有光、張志公、朱德熙、張壽康等教授講課，每週一次，歷時數月，有一千七百人參加學習(39)。1986年暑期又舉辦了《中學教學語法提要》系列講座請十餘位語法學者講課，講稿經整理後已定由和平出版社出版。

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(34) 以上參見《北京市中小學教師培訓工作概況，1978-1984》。

(35) 7月15日《北京晚報》。

(36) 詳見《演講與口才》1986年第3期第40頁。

(37) 六講，見拙著《語文學習與教學》，甘肅版，1984。

(38) 我的講稿見上書。

(39) 講稿已由知識出版社出版，1983。

全國中學語文教學研究會於1979年在上海成立，多數省市設有分會，這是專門以研究語文教育理論、交流教學經驗、進行教學改革爲任務的研究會，多年來舉行了幾次年會和專題討論會。年會論文已編輯出版《語文教學研究》(40)、《語文教學在前進》(41)，對語文教師進行延續教育起了重要作用。

目前大陸出版的語文教學期刊已有《中學語文教學》、《語文教學與研究》、《中學語文》、《語文教學通訊》等二十餘種(42)。這些期刊及時刊載進修資料等，對提高教學水平、交流語文信息很有作用，可以看成是語文教學水平和顯示研究方向的標誌。不僅如此，雜誌社也組織教學科研活動，如《中學語文教學》就組織過多次專題討論會(43)。1985、1986舉辦了兩次〝語文研究新成果講習班〞，由李何林(魯迅專題)、周振甫(古代散文)、周汝昌(紅樓夢)、張壽康(文章學)、李燕杰(演講學)、舒乙(老舍之子講老舍風格)、李金鎧(電腦語文處理)等人講課，講課的還有柯岩、劉紹棠等作家，並有魏書生等特級教師講教學經驗，受到語文骨幹教師的歡迎。講稿由湖南教育出版社出版。

大陸各民主黨派也積極舉辦多學科講座，如中國民主同盟(含北京市委)舉辦的三次講座，曾請朱光潛、常任俠講美學，陸宗達講訓詁學，林傳鼎講教育心理學，季羡林講中國文化的發展戰略，常迥講信息科學，講課的還有費孝通、錢偉長、陶大鏞、談家楨、鄧廣銘等人，語文教師可以選聽，也起到了教師延續教育的作用。

以上所說的一些情況，只是我個人接觸到和瞭解到的信息，真可以說是管窺一斑，因爲這些活動，各自爲政，缺乏全國性的統計資料。

中國大陸的中學語文教師共626 014人，其中高中教師84 914人，初中教師541 100人。全國中學語文教師具有大專學歷的只有152 258人，沒有取得大專學歷資格的473 756人。從這個數字看來，大陸的語文教師工作，理當以不合格的教師進修考核工作爲重點，可是我們可以說，大學後的語文教師延續教育已引起重視。不過，這一工作尚未形成全國性的計劃網絡，除各省市教育廳局、教育學院較有計劃外，各群眾團體等的活動，既缺乏橫向聯系，也缺乏有計劃的統一組織。也可以說，大陸大學後的延續教育已經興起，一批起步較快的高等院校已經做出成績。清華大學

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(40) 教育科學出版社。

(41) 人民教育出版社。

(42) 見《中學語文教學》1986年9月號封四。

(43) 如1983年北戴河文言文教學討論會，會的成果是出版了《中學文言知識學習要點》1986，今年11月開同樣性質的會。

已成立繼續教育學院，幾年來開辦多種新學科的進修班三百五十七個，培養了業務骨幹兩萬零一百六十人(44)。我相信今後國家教育部門定能制訂大學後延續教育的計劃並大力貫徹實施，全國高等師範院校包括電視師範學院也會具有語文教師大學後延續教育的單位來開展教學活動，全社會也會進一步提供語文教師工作後進修的足夠條件。

1986.10.10

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(44) 《光明日報》1986.10.6。

FUTURE ISSUES OF ILEJ

Volume 4 of ILEJ will be published in mid 1988. Contributions will be welcomed. They should be sent to the editors before 31 December 1987 at the following address :

The Editors (English/Chinese): ILEJ,
Institute of Language in Education,
Park-In Commercial Centre 21/F.,
56 Dundas Street,
Kowloon
HONG KONG

Articles should be approximately 4 000 words in length. An English style-sheet is attached on the next page for your reference. A brief abstract in the same language as the articles should be included. Book reviews will also be welcome. Further information about the ILEJ may be obtained from Ms Madeleine LAU, Tel. : 3-7719552.

徵稿

《語文教育學院學報》第四期將於一九八八年中出版，歡迎來稿。來稿如用中文撰寫，請用原稿紙單面橫寫，字數宜在四千以內。每篇文章請附內容提要，如另附英譯者更佳。稿件請於一九八七年十二月前寄交下址：

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柏裕商業中心二十一樓
香港教育署語文教育學院
語文教育學院學報編輯收

STYLE SHEET

1. Manuscripts should be typewritten, preferably on A4 size paper. Typing should be double-spaced and on one side of the paper only.
2. Items to be italicised should have single underlining. These include the following:
    a. Section headings and subheadings (which should not be numbered).
    b. Words or phrases used as linguistic examples.
    c. Words or phrases given particularly strong emphasis.
    d. Titles of tables, graphs and other diagrams.
    e. Titles or headings of other books or articles referred to or cited.
3. Capitals (no underlining) should be used for the following:
    a. Title of article or review. (The author's name(s) may be in smaller type).
    b. Headings of NOTES and REFERENCES sections.
4. Single inverted commas should be reserved for:
    a. A distancing device by the author (e.g. This is not predicted by Smith's 'theory'. . . .).
    b. A method of highlighting the first mention of terms specially coined for the paper.
5. Double inverted commas should be reserved for verbatim quotations.
6. The first page should contain the title of the article at the top of the page, in capitals, with the name of the author(s) immediately below and centred. A reasonable amount of blank space should separate these from the start of the text. Headings such as *Introduction* should be underlined and located at the left-hand side of the text. There should be two blank spaces between the subheading and the start of the first sentence of the text, which should be indented 5 spaces.
7. Tables and diagrams should each be numbered sequentially and their intended position in the text should be clearly indicated. Diagrams should be on separate sheets. All such graphic displays should have single underlining. Capitals should only be used for the initial letter of the word Table or Diagram and for the first word in the following sentence (e.g. *Table 2. Distribution of responses)*.
8. Footnotes should not be used. Reference in the text should be to author's name, year of publication and, wherever applicable, page or pages referred to (e.g. "This is refuted by Smith (1978a: 33-5). However, several authors take a different view (Chan 1978:13; Green 1980)").
9. Notes which require explanation should be indicated by superscript numerals in the body of the article and should be grouped together in a section headed NOTES (in capitals) at the end of the text. The number and quantity of notes should be kept to a minimum.

346

10. References should be listed in alphabetical order in a section headed REFERENCES (in capital letters), immediately following the NOTES section.
11. In cases of joint authorship, the name of the main author should be placed first. Where each author has taken an equal share of the work, the names should be sequenced alphabetically. The fact that the names are in alphabetic order may, if so desired, be pointed out explicitly in a note.
12. Journal articles should be referenced in the following way:
    Oller, J. W. and Streiff, V. 1975. "Dictation: A test of grammar-based expectancies," *English Language Teaching Journal* 30(1): 25–36.
13. Books and pamphlets should be referenced in the following way:
    Foss, B. (ed.) 1974. *New Perspectives in Child Development.* Harmondsworth: Penguin.
14. Articles in books should be referenced in the following way:
    Kvan, E. 1969. "Problems of bilingual milieu in Hong Kong: Strain of the two language system." In *Hong Kong: A Society in Transition,* edited by T. C. Jarvie and J. Agassi, pp. 327–343. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

THIRD ILE INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR— 15, 16 and 17 DECEMBER 1987

The Institute of Language in Education will hold its Third International Seminar from 15 to 17 December 1987 at the Shangri-la Hotel, Kowloon, Hong Kong.

Seminar Theme

The theme of the Seminar is "Languages in Education in a Bilingual or Multilingual Setting".

Seminar Objectives

The objectives of the Seminar are to provide opportunities for teacher trainers, linguists and applied linguists, language teachers and educational planners to:

1. examine issues in language planning in education;
2. identify the factors which foster a supportive relationship in the teaching and learning of the various languages and dialects within any given society in an educational context;
3. explore the criteria for successful individual bilingual/bidialectal/multilingual language development;
4. examine the issues involved in raising language awareness and identifying good teaching practices;
5. explore the issues involved in the effective use of language as a tool for classroom learning (medium of instruction);
6. identify the criteria for successful classroom language learning (language-as-a-subject).

Further information about the Seminar may be obtained from the Director, Institute of Language in Education, 21/F., 56 Dundas Street, Kowloon, Hong Kong.

The articles in this Journal record the personal views of the contributors and should not be taken as expressing the official views of the Education Department, Hong Kong.

本學報各篇文章內容，僅代表作者個人見解，並不代表香港教育署的意見。

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第四期 一九八八年

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語文教育學院
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本期學報得到校外學者出任顧問・及院內同事協助編輯工作・謹致謝意。

INSTITUTE OF LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION JOURNAL

Volume 4 1988

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語文教育學院學報

一九八八年

第四期

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FOREWORD

The fourth issue of the ILEJ contains articles on listening and reading skills (William Cheng, Margaret van Naerssen and Graham Low), on teacher education and educational changes (John Clark and Tian Ben Na) and on language learning and teaching problems that can arise because of the influence of dialects (Lee Hok Ming and Liu Shu Xin). There is also a discussion of recent developments in Chinese language teaching in Hong Kong (Au Yeung Yu Wing), a description of a dictionary use survey which has been carried out by the City Polytechnic of Hong Kong (Andrew Taylor) and a summary of an experiment in which micro-computers are exploited in a writing skills course (Frances Leung). There is one article which draws attention to the differences between the perceptions and expectations which Hong Kong and Macau students bring to the classroom, and the view of the teaching-learning situation held by teachers using a communicative language approach (Carol MacLennan). There is also an article on language and teaching problems that are related to "the inherent conflicts in secondary school TEFL" (Brian Tomlinson).

前言

本期刊載的文章，內容包括聆聽和閱讀技巧的討論（鄭旭亭、瑪格麗・范瀚斯和盧克倫）；教師培訓和教育轉變的意見（簡閣達、田本娜）；語文教學中的方言干擾問題（李學銘、劉叔新）；香港中文教育發展近況（歐陽汝穎）；一個由香港城市理工學院進行的字典使用調查（泰勒）；在寫作教學中使用微型電腦的試驗（梁周麗梅）；香港和澳門學生在課堂中表示認知與期待的不同和教師對使用語文傳意方法而營造教學情景的見解（麥卡蓮）。此外，本期還有專文討論"中學英語教學內在矛盾"引起的語文教學問題（湯連生）。

CONTENTS 目錄

歐陽汝穎	香港中文教育發展近況	7
William CHENG	Cinderella goes to the Ball or Listening Comprehension Comes into Its Own	16
John L. CLARK	The Relationship between Teacher In-Service Education and Educational Change	30
李學銘	在方言環境中的語文教學與學習	39
劉叔新	漢語方言語文教育的方言干擾問題	48
Frances LEUNG	Exploiting the Microcomputer in English Language Writing Instructions	57
Carol MACLENNAN	An Investigation of the Criteria which a group of Hong Kong and Macau Students of English list as those which make a good Teacher	61
Margaret van NAERSSEN & Graham LOW	But you can do Reading Research: Projects for Book Flood Teachers	75
A. J. TAYLOR	Learners and English Dictionaries: Some Assumptions and Challenges	88
田本娜	語文教師的在職培養與提高	93
Brian TOMLINSON	Conflicts in TEFL Reasons for Failure in Secondary Schools	103

香港中文教育發展近況

歐陽汝穎

香港大學教育學院師範學系

一、引言

香港自開埠以來，百分之九十八居民是華人，日常交往以中文的應用爲最廣。可是，由於香港一直以來都是英國的殖民地，英語是香港的法定語言，所以英語的社會地位遠較中文優越。這種重英輕中的現象，由上而下，深入民間，因而大大地阻礙了中文教育的發展。除了上述的歷史因素外，香港人使用中文的模式也影響了中文教育的質素。由於香港華籍居民主要是粵籍，因此，廣東話(廣州話)便成了當地的通用口語。廣州方言與"普通話"的詞滙、語法都有很多不同的地方，當地華人講的是廣東方言，寫的是文言文或語體文，所以他們是不能"我手寫我口"的。他們要把口語變成書面語，是需要經過思維上的轉換或翻譯的過程。因此，有些語言學者認爲，香港華人學習中文，並不能算是母語學習。但是，由於廣東方言與中文語書面語同屬中國語言，因此亦不能算是第二語言的學習。香港人學習中文的方法和途徑，便因此出現了很多問題和困難。

香港中文教育的發展，自開埠至今，可分爲四個時期：第一個時期是"唐文時期"(1841－1900)。當時香港的外國人，通稱中國人爲"唐人"。當時在書院讀英文的，稱爲讀番書，寫番文，學番話；讀中國書的，便稱讀唐書，習唐文，寫唐字。學塾裡教授中文的老師稱爲"唐書先生"。這是受中國傳統舊教育影響的時代。

第二個時期是"漢文時期"(1900－1930)。1900年後，"唐文"已漸漸被"漢文"一名取代，當時的中文老師被稱爲"漢文教習"，學校的中文課本亦稱爲"漢文讀本"。漢文得名的由來，據說是跟當時的外國人熱心"漢學"有關。這是受外國教育影響的時代。

第三個時期是"中文時期"(1931－1975)。1931年後，中國僑務委員會成立，香港僑校一律向中國政府呈請立案，並參加廣東省教育廳舉辦的中學會考。爲了適應內地課程，當時香港人對中文科的稱謂，便漸漸與內地一致。"漢文"一詞也逐漸被"中文"取代。這是受內地及時代影響的時期。

第四個時期是"中國語文時期"(1975－當前)。這時期，香港教育署把小學中文科改稱爲中國語文科，強調小學生學習中文應以應用爲大前題。及後，中學中文科亦分爲中國語文科及中國文學兩科。"中國語文"一名，正式爲官方採用。各種公開考試，也把中文科改稱爲中國語文科或中國

語言文學科。這是香港就當地的特殊情況，自行設計中文科課程，試圖使中文學習科學化的時代。

由於歷史的原因，在香港，"中文"、"中國語文"、"漢語"、"唐文"、"華語"、"華文"等都是同義詞，它們只是在不同時期對"漢語"的不同稱謂而已。本文中對各同義詞的運用，也是採取同樣的原則。

上述首三個時期的概況，已有不少的著述論及，因此，這裡不再作討論。下面筆者將集中報告香港中文教育的近況。

二、新語文政策與教育設施

1975年，港府正式承認中文為與英語具有同等地位的法定語言，這對中文的社會地位的提昇，起了很大的作用，同時也為中文教育注射了一支強心劑，因為隨着中文被承認為法定語文後，就是一系列新語文政策的實施，現分別列述如下：

甲、中文基金會的成立——這基金會的成立，可以代表官方對改善中文教育的第一步。1981年6月，香港政府宣報原則上同意設立一個獨立的中國語文發展基金會，計劃為學童編印良好而有趣味性的中文刊物，普遍提高市民的中文程度，推廣中文在社會上的應用等。該會改名為中文基金會，此為香港政府於1985年宣佈耗資三億一千萬元推行語文教育計劃的其中一個要項。

乙、語文教育學院的設立——同一時期，港府亦宣佈設立語文教育學院，它是直屬於香港教育署的。語文教育學院的工作包括：1.為中英文教師提供複修及進修課程，讓他們把握語文教學的最新動態、課程設計、教學方法等。2.設立一個各類語文教學的資源中心，為所有專業教師提供設施、教學資料、會議地點，以供他們交換經驗。3.推行各類有關研究、設計及發展中英文教學的標準教材。語文教育學院自1982年創立至今，已有千多名在職教師完成進修課程。從1987年開始，該學院更為各科教師提供中文進修課程，來配合母語教學的實施。

丙、中文科教師的增加——在增加教師人數方面，港府在過去的幾年，也不遺餘力地襄助。在1982年，為了能推行語文科的輔導教學，教育署已在各學校增加了語文教師的教席。為了進一步提高中學教授中文的質素，教署在1985年6月宣佈，準備在每所開設18班或以上的中學，增加一名學位中文教師，使中文科教師每週的教節得以減少，並可不須教授四班以上的語文課，使教師在工作量減輕的情況下，對教授中文的質素有所提高。

丁、公開考試刪去答卷語言的註明——香港的公開考試，自1975年宣佈中英文中學的考試課程合併後，證書上均註明答卷語言。1985年，教育署同意廢除證書上答卷語言的註明。這不但可以鼓勵考生運用中文答題，還反映了當局有意破除對採用中文答卷學生的偏見，藉以提高中文在教育上的地位，使達致與英語平等的水平。1986年，第2號教育統籌委員會報告書建議，高級程度考試可改用中文應考，而非以英語作答不可，這可以說是官方落實考試語言政策的另一證明。

戊、母語教育的推行——過去，香港的中小學是根據教學語言，分爲英文、中文中小學。英文學校除了中國語文及中國歷史外，其他科目都是以英語授課的。而中文學校除了英文課外，所有科目都用中文（廣東話）講授的。有關當局基於1982年國際顧問團報告書的建議，並從推行九年普及教育取得的經驗，了解採用母語教學的急切性。於是，教育署於1986年發出了鼓勵中學採用中文爲教學語言的通告，並成立了中文課本委員會，監察中文教科書編寫及出版事宜。1987年5月，港府更公佈撥款七百萬資助出版中文課本。此外，專上學院及大學應否採用母語教學，也是當前的論題。作爲第一學府的香港大學，原則上也同意接受用母語授課，但詳細的施行方法，仍在商議中。

這一系列的公佈，證明了有關當局對語文政策的態度——盡力提高中文的應用範圍及社會地位。這無疑是科學化和進步的，也可以說是一舉兩得的。第一得是使學生有更多的機會採用中文學習、溝通、表情達意。在熟能生巧的大前提下，學生的中文水平自然得以提高。第二得是採用母語學習，省卻了過英語關的工夫，學生學習的效率更藉此可以提高。

三、教學課程

正如任何國家一樣，香港的語文教育發展，是受制於官方的。一切有關教育的問題，如課程的設置、革新、教材選訂、公開考試形式等，都是由教育署及考試局這兩個官方部門管理、統籌。

甲、中小學中國語文科課程——自從中文成爲合法語文運動成功後，教育署於1975年發表了一份嶄新的中小學課程綱要。這綱要跟過去的截然不同，在課程、教材、教學方法三方面作了重大的改革。

課程的整體特色包括：重視培養學生對語體文的閱讀和理解能力、指導學生運用語體文表達思想、重視學生聆聽及說話能力、書法和工具書教學等。

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爲了能讓出版商編寫出好的課本，教材來配合新課程，教署在1976年發出了一份學校通告，對小學中國語文科課程綱要及小學中國語文科理想課本的選擇，作出指示和表明態度、立場，同時更附上一些有關當局自撰的課文及應用練習作爲示例，反映了教署對改進中文教學的熱誠。

爲了使小學生能夠積極從實踐中學習，教署在1975年正式推行"活動教學"，把單元教學的概念引進課堂；亦把傳統的教師講學生聽的學習方式變成"集體教學"、"分組學習"、"個別輔導"的活動，使學生對語文學習的興趣大大增加。

至於1975年推出的中學語文科課程，在當時看來，也是頗具突破性的。那是由於它將中文科分爲中國語文科和中國文學科，也同時把中、英文中學中國語文科課程統一起來，把中文教育帶進中國語文教育的年代。

這課程的特色，教學目標方面包括：強調思想能力的訓練、切合學生生活的需要、加強以學生爲本位的學習成份。課程內容的特色則是，加強語文運用的練習、重視閱讀理解能力的訓練、重視補充教材的教學和課外閱讀活動。至於教材的編選，爲了配合以應用爲大前提的教學目標，文言文的分量減少了，語體文分量大大增加。此外，選材的範圍更廣，新課程把中學各年級教材的選文篇數增加了，目的在給予教師更大的選擇自由，如在58篇的中學一年級選文中，教師可根據學生的程度及興趣，選教24至28篇。至於中四、中五的課程，除了共同的課程外，學生更可視乎對學習文言文或語體文的喜好，選讀甲組或乙組選文，以應付中學會考。

上述兩個課程自1975年推出後，一直沿用至今，但在80年代初期，教署已着手設計一個新的課程。據教育署長於1984年底的報告，認爲該項決定是因爲現時的課程，推行幾近十年，社會環境、教育制度、學生的語文程度，在這十年裡都有所改變，因此，現行的課程或許有未能切合實況的地方。

就中學中國語文科而言，修訂工作的重點分爲二方面：

1. 加強中國文化的學習——除了將中國文化的學習加進主要的教學目標裡，還多選典籍中有關中國哲學思想、藝術、道德價值的篇章作爲教材，使學生能藉此對中國文化有進一步的認識。
2. 刪去不理想的教材——淘汰現行不理想的教材，另選新教材，並希望新教材是一有機的整體組合。

乙、列出初中（中一至中三）、高中（中四至中五）兩階段的具體教學要求，使教師在各階段都有明確的教學計劃、提高教學效率，使學生在各階段都能學到有關的語文知識及技能。

中學中國語文科課程修訂工作，從1982年開始，已於1987年年底完成及公佈，並向教師徵詢意見，再經三年的研究、修改、重新編訂教科書，

約在1991年可以全面推行。至於小學的中國語文科課程，也正在進行類似的修改，以期中小學兩階段的教學能緊密配合。

這一系列的課程修訂工作，反映了有關當局對改進中文教育質素的政策是持之以恒的。

丙、輔導教學　爲了提高學生的語文水平，教署於1982年宣佈，全部官立及資助中小學從小四至中三，須設立輔導班。所謂輔導班，就是指從同一年級不同班別中，抽取語文能力較差的學生，把他們集中起來，然後按照他們的困難和弱點施教。輔導教學的最終目的，是使這批學生能夠追上普通班學生的語文程度，能夠和他們一起學習。

爲了能評定學生的中文水平，教署教育研究處近年也設計了一套中小學語文水平測試的工具，供各校評定學生水平之用。這些測試工具的設置，把香港的中文教育帶進了科學化的紀元。

中國語文教學研究中心的擴展，也是與新課程配合的。中心的宗旨，是通過中小學中國語文科教學的改進工作，從而提高學生運用中文的能力。工作範圍包括：輔導教師解決教學困難、採取適當步驟配合教學的新發展、設計及搜集語文教學的教材、教具和方法供教師參考、舉辦進修講座協助教師適應課程改革及教學效果、收集教學資料供參考等等。

丁、普通話課程　普通話科的設立是近期香港中文教育發展的一個重要里程碑。1980年，教育司宣佈教署成立了普通話科委員會，計劃將普通話列爲中小學課程的獨立科目。1981年，當局採用18所小學進行爲期三年的普通話教學試驗計劃，成績令人滿意，並決定於1985年9月，將普通話列爲選修課程，在全港小學的四至六年級推行。至於中學的普通話教學試驗計劃，亦在1984年開始，1987年完成。由於反應熱烈，已有多所學校主動提早將普通話列入課程內。1985年5月，署理教育統籌司透露，有關當局接到將普通話列入會考課程及設立普通話科的公開考試的建議，考試局有關的工作小組正研究其可行性。

普通話科的設立與有關的考試的擬定，正標誌着普通話在香港的應用日廣。由於普通話是一高級形態語言，學習它有利於學生寫作，因此，推廣普通話的學習，不獨可以逐步解決香港人不能"我手寫我口"的困難，還可以間接地把中文水平提高。

上述的現象標誌着香港的中文教育發展，正在逐步走向正常的規律。因爲用方言(口頭語)來學習中國語，畢竟不是一個正常健康的模式，因此，普通話能夠在如此短短幾年間被港人接受，可以說是能夠加促克服用方言(口頭語)學習中國語所帶來的不良後果。

四、教師培訓

爲了配合新的語文政策，香港當前的教師培訓工作可以分爲三大類：

第一類是培訓中國語文／文學科的教師。這項工作自從設有師範教育以來，一直在進行。當前的特色包括：甲，加強對漢語基礎知識教學法和語文作爲工具語言教學法的份量。乙，盡量採用現代化，電化手段來輔導教學，如電腦，無線耳筒接收系統……等。丙，鼓勵中國語文／文學科的教師選修普通話，這一系列的工作是教署轄下的教育學院及大學的教育學院師範學系負責的。爲了給予在職教師複修機會，提昇他們的學養及教學水平，語文教育學院自1982年以來，一直不斷主辦中小學在職語文教師的複修課程。

第二類是培訓普通話科教師。有關普通話科教師培訓的工作，教育署已經在1980年中開始，課程內容分爲兩部份：第一部分爲"普通話語音訓練"，第二部分爲"普通話科教學法"，教師必須完成第一部分的課程後，通過筆試及口試，方可入讀第二部分。爲了令更多的教師能取得普通話教學的資格，語文教育學院目前正開辦定期的全日制中文進修課程，其中基本普通話課程是必須的。每年夏天，他們更開辦語文發展及教學法的短期特別課程，普通話是其中的進修重點。此外，教署轄下的輔導視學處及成人教育組也展開普通話科教師的培訓工作，以配合普通話在全港中小學推行的需求。

第三類是培訓採用母語教學的教師。1986年底，署理港督宣佈爲了協助決定改變教學語言的學校，語文教育學院由1987年2月開始爲英文科以外的教師開辦使用漢語教學的課程。

五、學術研究活動

甲、學術性研討會

香港學術界近年來對中文教育研究的興趣及風氣大盛，這可以從當地組織的國際性／地區性研討會或座談會的頻率中得見。這些學術交流活動，大致可分四類：

第一類是與推廣普通話有關的。如"普通話（國語）教學與測試研討會"，"小學普通話教學研討會"等。

第二類是與語文政策有關的。如"香港中文發展路向研討會"、"香港中文教育前途討論會"，"香港語言政策和語言計劃研討會"。

第三類是與提高語文教學質素有關的。如語文教育學院每年舉辦的"國際研討會"，以及由學會主辦的課程教材教法研討會等。

第四類是與漢語學習有關的。如"廣東方言的研究"、"從心理角度去研究漢語學習"等。

這些研討性活動，都反映了香港及世界各地人士對香港中文教育發展的關注。他們從不同的專業角度探討香港的語文政策的構思，並且提出意見。這些研討、交流活動的興盛，是史無前例的。

乙、中文教育團體的成立

近年來，推動中文教育的團體紛紛成立，這也標誌着中文教育備受重視。這些團體可分爲兩大類：

第一類是對中文教育作整體推動的，如香港中文教育學會、香港中國語文學會等。

第二類是推廣普通話教育的。如普通話教師協會……等。兩類團體舉行的定期性交流活動，內容十分充實，對推廣中文教育，起了不少領導作用。

丙、推廣中文的活動

爲了提高學生對閱讀中文書籍的興趣，多個不同背景的團體，如公立圖書館、報社、社團等，都舉辦與課外閱讀有關的比賽：如徵文比賽、介紹好書等活動，民間的反應十分熱烈。

至於由民間團體主辦的推廣普通話活動，更是不勝枚舉。這包括了電視台、廣播電台、及普通話教育機構。近期由香港教育人員協會主辦的"學生普通話講故事比賽"，參加人數之多，反應之熱烈，實在令人鼓舞。

六、延續教育

自從1975年香港政府正式宣佈中文爲與英語具有同等法律地位的語文後，各政府部門的公函、通知，都以中英對照的方式書寫。自1975年至今，香港的最高立法機構立法局開會，亦有即時傳譯的服務，方便華籍議員用中文發言。1985年香港政府宣佈計劃成立小組，準備利用七年時間，將所有成文法例，翻譯成中文。港府亦會成立一個永久性的小組負責，監察翻成中文的法例。此外，港府幾個部門正就語言規劃或有關的問題進行研究。律政署、教育署及中文公事管理局便一直在緊密合作。基於香港與中國大陸的工商交流日趨頻繁，港府更大力鼓勵中文主任進修普通話，並且聘請專家向他們講授有關普通話應用的種種問題。

由於官方的帶動及與國內接觸交流的頻密，各界人士對學習普通話、提高個人的中文水平有明顯的要求。由於他們已投身工作，因此，只能從業餘教育課程中尋求進修機會。他們進修的課程，可以分爲兩類：第一類是普通話的學習，第二類是提高中文表達水平的學習。如漢語知識、語法基礎、語體文寫作等。這些課程一向是由大學的校外課程負責的，由於供不應求的緣故，已有不少民間團體着手開辦。

七、當前有待解決的問題

雖然上述各方面都顯示着在新的語文政策下，中文教育的發展呈現着一片新景象，但這並不是表示當前的情況是完全理想的。經過了多年來的爭取，加上歷史時刻的配合，我們目前所取得的成果，只是一個開始，那就是中文地位被承認和普通話被推廣。我們當前要面對的問題，是如何好好利用現有的環境及條件去發展、鞏固中文教育。當前中文教育存在的問題不少，其中較爲明顯的就是：

甲、中文教育發展太急，各方面的配合十分吃力——就中文科教師的人數來說，在短短的幾年間，爲了配合輔導教學的實施，爲了改進中文教學的質素，中小學中文科教師的人數需求大大增加。雖然教師培訓工作亦緊密配合，但供不應求的情況仍然存在。有些學校不得不聘用非中文本科一專科畢業的教師教授中文，大大地影響了教學的質素。在普通話教學方面，教師缺乏情況更爲嚴重，因而導致有些學校無法開設普通話科課程。

教材的不足，也是另外一個令人頭痛的問題。

雖然中小學的中文科範文，都是根據教署頒布的原則來編訂或編寫的，但只限於提供閱讀教材而已，其他如寫作、閱讀理解、補充教材等都有賴於教師設計、搜集及編訂。至於普通話科，教署連範文的教材也沒供給，只提供教學大綱而已，因此，教師準備教材的工作十分吃力。由於他們對選擇、編寫教材不一定有深入的認識，因此往往只採用一些坊間出版的教材。這些教材，因爲不須經過教育署審訂，便可自行出版，所以質素十分參差。教師如果不慎地選用了一些質劣的教材，是會影響教學質素的。

此外，教署在監察課程的實施、教學質素方面，也缺乏足夠的人手，因此亦很難對各校的教學情況，作出密切的關注和指導。

乙、普通話推廣的政策，未有長遠的安排——雖然現在有不少中小學把普通話科納入教學課程內，但因每週的教學時間只有一教節（約35－40分鐘），這肯定是不足夠的。再者，學生在這教節外也嚴重地短乏練習說普通話的語言環境，所以，目前的情況，除了可以說是在學校課程中將普通話從"無"帶到"有"外，在推廣方面，是絕對談不上的。當然，要是普通話能夠成爲教學語言，那是最理想的推廣方法。但是，在當前香港的情況來說，是缺乏以普通話授課的各科師資的。唯一可行的過渡方法，是用普通話教授中文課。

由於爲數不少的中文科教師對普通話已略有認識，因此，假如能給予他們一些短期訓練課程，他們是可以循序漸進地逐步嘗試運用普通話授課的。這樣，學生便有學以致用的機會。這個建議，對中文科教師可能帶來不少壓力。但這是可行的。當然，除了求諸學校課程外，我們是希望傳播

媒介，如廣播電台、電視台等，能多編製普通話的節目，讓學生耳濡目染，以收熟習之效。

丙、普通話與廣東話應用政策有待改善——1986年12月，署理港督表示香港已決定提倡以廣東話來作爲教學語言，所以，將來學生會更廣泛地使用廣東話。1987年5月署理教育及人力統籌司表示，將來香港的學校會推行母語教學，所指的母語是廣東話。

這兩項宣佈說明廣東話在最近的將來，仍將會是香港人的母語，在教育及公事應用口語上，官方的法定語言是廣東話及英語，普通話只是第二語言而已，是沒有法律認可的地位的，這個政策對提高香港人的中文質素，是大大不利的。因此，無論新的語文政策對中文（書面語——語體文；口頭語——廣東話）的地位如何提昇，也是解決不了當前這個關鍵性的問題。我們必需對普通話應用的地位作出更週詳的安排，逐步把普通話的地位提昇至跟廣東話相等。

八、結語

上文已就香港中文教育發展概況及其有待改善的地方作出報告，爲了進一步改善香港的中文教育，我們面對的將來，是充滿挑戰的。但無論怎樣，本人對將來是樂觀的，因爲從短短幾年間的改革，我們已取得不少使人鼓舞的成果，在學生的中文水平方面，教署教育研究處發表了一份報告，報導學生的漢語水平正逐漸提昇，在學生閱讀興趣方面，教育署圖書館及閱讀學會的調査報告，也顯示學生閱讀的質和量在不斷的增加。有關團體對中文在中學生心目中地位的調査，及各校使用母語教學的意願統計，其結果也反映了學生及學校對中文的重視，從校內校外團體設立的普通話科課程班次數量來看，港人學習普通話的熱潮，是前所未見的。凡此種種都給從事中文教育人士極大的鼓勵，我們應抱着小心謹慎，如履薄冰的態度，爲進一步提高香港的中文教育作出努力的。

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CINDERELLA GOES TO THE BALL OR LISTENING COMPREHENSION COMES INTO ITS OWN

William Cheng

The title owes its inspiration to an article by Tom Hutchinson in *World Language English* 4:1, 1984: "Making Grammar Work More Creative, or The Sad Tale of Grammarella". Hutchinson argues that grammar, "a thorough generation knowledge of the system of the language", has sat neglected, like Cinderella, unable to go to the Communicative Ball". I do not think I need to draw a parallel between the "fairy tale" which acts as preface to his article and the status of listening comprehension since the latter has long been called the "orphan" of linguistics. Emile Curfs, who wrote "Listening Deserves Better" in MET 9:3, 1982, states that listening is the Cinderella of the activities in a language class." The purpose of this paper is to look at some of the recent developments in the teaching of listening comprehension and offer some practical suggestions to language teachers and teacher trainers. I shall focus on the local context but I trust that what is said will also be of relevance to the teaching of listening comprehension in the ESL/EFL context in other regions.

Listening—a neglected skill

In the heyday of the Oral-Structural Approach, the speaking skill received the lion's share of attention and minimal pair drills, pattern practice and dialogue work were the order of the day. Very little research was done on the listening process or on how listening comprehension could best be taught. This is not to say that listening comprehension was not tested in public examinations. The TOEFL Examination has for a long time included a listening component. The Use of English Examination conducted by the University of Hong Kong includes a test on listening comprehension. However, even in the post-oral approach period and up to the late 1970's listening comprehension materials consisted mainly of spoken texts followed by comprehension questions. It is interesting to note that Mary Underwood pointed out in 1978 that "If the recognition of the value of listening practice can be accompanied by a major swing away from listening followed by testing of comprehension towards a real effort to teach listening skills, much will be gained by our students". One of the reasons for this was the fact that linguistics had been preoccupied with the study of other aspects of language. An upsurge of interest in psycholinguistics and discourse analysis brought about a refreshing change and a much clearer picture of what is involved in the listening process has emerged. Gillian Brown's (1977) *Listening to Spoken English*, for example, has done much to increase our knowledge of discourse features in informal English and how a good listener is able find his way through the apparent chaos of spontaneous utterance. Later writers such as Munby for example, have even proposed a detailed list of listening skills. Such a taxonomy can help materials writers to design more appropriate materials to *teach* rather than test listening skills. Howard Thomas (1982) gave a lucid survey review of nine books of materials for developing listening skills showing how the "new wave" materials offer something much more "powerful" in learning terms than the limited exercises in texts which were used for testing comprehension only". In a session entitled "a survey of listening games and activities" which I gave at a summer course conducted by the English Language Unit of the Chinese University of Hong Kong in July this year, I asked the members to note what additional materials had been published since 1982. The following is a partial list of materials now available.

Title	*Author*	*Publisher*	*Year*
Basic Listening	John McDowell and Sandra Stevens	Edward Arnold	1982 (Reprinted 1984)
Better Listening 1 and 2	Mary Underwood	OUP	1985
Are You Listening?	Wendy Scott	OUP	1983
New Access Listening 4	D. H. Howe and Gordon McArthur	OUP	1984
New Access Listening 5	D. H. Howe and Gordon McArthur	OUP	1985
Access Today Listening Practice	D. H. Howe and Gordon McArthur	OUP	1986
Active Listening	R. R. Jordon	Collins	1984

Cinderella is getting ready for the ball.

Listening comprehension in ESL/EFL, with special reference to Hong Kong

Jack Richards (1983) in his article "Listening Comprehension: approach, design and procedure" points out that research in psycholinguistics, semantics, pragmatics, discourse analysis, and cognitive science has provided information on the nature of listening comprehension. However, he also points out that "there is little direct research on second-language listening comprehension". One of the most recent articles on the subject: "Developing Listening Fluency in L2: Theoretical Principles and Pedagogical Considerations" by Patricia A. Dunkel (1986) stressed the importance of listening comprehension in L2 instruction. To quote from the article: "The advocates of the comprehension approach to L2 acquisition suggest that listening comprehension should be the focal methodology in foreign/second language instructions, particularly at the initial state of language study." Patricia also refers to J. Morley's view that extensive listening is one of the "convergences on common focal points" concerning second language learning/teaching shared among L2 researchers and materials developers today. This emphasis in the importance of listening comprehension is most welcome. There is, however, not much additional information on research into listening comprehension in the ESL context. The writer refers to the psycholinguistic research of Bransford, Johnson and Anderson which highlights the part that background information plays in listening comprehension. This is emphasized by many other specialists who stress that one's "knowledge of the world" helps one to comprehend a message and practice materials should include this aspect. With regard to the question of strategies used by efficient listeners and the design of task-based listening activities, she mentions quite a number of useful activities, some of which can also be found in the writings of S. Rixon (1981) and Penny Ur (1984). The article is interesting and useful from the pedagogical point of view but does not encompass much new ground.

Coming to the local scene, one could say that interest in listening comprehension came about as a result of the introduction of a listening component in the Use of English Examination. One of the earliest locally produced books on listening comprehension was the one written by Nancarrow. Like workbooks for "teaching" cursory reading, listening comprehension books focus on practice for examination purposes and few of them focus on teaching the enabling skills (or strategies). With the introduction of a listening test in the HKCEE in 1985 workbooks containing more interesting and purposeful tasks began to appear and publishers now compete in producing listening materials and workbooks.

With regard to research on listening comprehension, very little has been done by research students or teachers. One MA. Ed. student of the Chinese University, School of Education, Ms. Lui Ling-yee, completed a thesis entitled "The Effect of Accent, Note-taking and Speech Rate on Listening Comprehension" (1981). I am not aware of other MA. Ed., or M. Phil., theses on the subject. However Dr. Joseph Boyle of the Chinese University has done some impressive research on factors affecting listening comprehension. His findings are mentioned in an article with the same title in *English Language Teaching Journal* 38:1 (1984). Since this is a Hong Kong study, the information provided will be extremely useful for those involved in the teaching and testing of listening comprehension, including teacher trainers.

The listening comprehension process

Despite awareness of the central importance of listening comprehension in communication, it is true to say that our knowledge of the process of comprehension is still sketchy. In an article in *Cross Currents* entitled "Psycholinguistics and Listening Comprehension for the ESL Classroom" John T. Crow (1984) points out that there are four steps in the listening comprehension process:

1. The placing of the verbatim content of the utterance in short-term memory.
2. Chunking thought groups into single units of information i.e. performing a constituent analysis on the verbatim content of short-term memory.
3. Extracting the propositional content of the constituent and placing it in long-term memory.
4. Crow points out that by this stage "short-term memory is purged and the verbatim content is lost"; however the gist of the message is retained.

The above is an over-simplication but Crow maintains that the model is sufficient for the classroom teacher. For those who prefer diagrammatic representations, a model given by Douglas McKeating (1981) and one by Maley (1978) are lucid and useful.

Some problem areas for ESL students

A few of the important problem areas are listed below:

1. *The transitory nature of speech*

   This is one of the basic differences between speech and writing. A reader can alway backtrack and reread what he does not understand, but not so with speech, unless it is recorded. This is what makes it so difficult for the non-native speaker when he has to listen to a message in English. All too often he misses a word or a phrase and is not able to use other linguistic cues and his knowledge of the world to complete the message. The feeling is often one of frustration. "I must understand every word or I cannot understand anything" is the cry of despair, whereas the proper attitude should be "If I understand the main message, I do not have to understand every word."

2. *The problem of accents*

   Even adults and fluent L2 speakers of English seem to look on accent as a major difficulty in the comprehension of spoken English. I once acted as interpreter at a meeting organised by the Fellowship of Evangelical Students. A number of speakers from different regions gave short messages. Different varieties of English were spoken. I was surprised when I was congratulated on being able to interpret messages spoken in a variety of accents. On reflection I could understand why they made such a remark. I had been exposed long enough to American, British, Scottish, Irish, Australian, Indian and Singaporean English to enable me to comprehend a wide variety of accents, but I can see how one exposed to only one variety of English accent will have difficulty adjusting to other accents. For example, I had considerable difficulty in comprehending the speech of one or two of the participants in the film "Communication Games in the Languages Classroom".

3. *Speed of delivery*
   Most students say that native speakers speak too fast. This is a well-known fact and even the BBC Overseas Service and the Voice of America take note of this and ask the broadcasters to slow down their speed of delivery. On the other hand, it is necessary to train students to get used to the speech of a native speaker speaking at normal rate of delivery if they are to learn to communicate with expatriates after leaving school.
4. *Phonological problems*
   These are problems such as phonemic contrasts, vowel reduction, reducing of ending, juncture and shifting of stresses. Books on pronunciation teaching contain some examples. Unfortunately, it would appear that many of these aspects are not systematically taught in English language courses.
5. *Selective listening*
   The native speaker listens selectively; he searches for ideas and imposes a structure on the stream of sounds he hears. He does not attempt to listen to every word. The ESL student who is not trained to listen selectively will strain to hear every word, with the result that listening becomes a mental and physical strain and the message becomes unintelligible because his short-term memory is overloaded.
6. *Insufficient knowledge of the characteristic features of speech*
   Most ESL students do not have sufficient knowledge of such characteristic features of spoken English as redundancy, pauses, hesitation features circularity, etc. The efficient listener uses his knowledge of such features to help him process meaning. He is aware, for example, that important information is conveyed through loudness, stronger stresses, slower speech as well as rephrasing and repetition, whereas greater speed and shift to lower intonation key are usually indication of unimportant information. This is a much neglected area in the teaching of listening comprehension.
7. *Intonation*
   In spoken English, intonation is used to convey emotion, structure, discourse and underline important information. ESL students often miss the subtle nuances conveyed through intonation. This is another area worth looking into when designing materials for teaching listening comprehension.

I mentioned earlier Dr. Joseph Boyle's very useful article on factors affecting listening comprehension. Teachers are urged to consult his article when designing teaching strategies to overcome difficulties students encounter in learning to develop skills in listening comprehension.

Listening comprehension: enabling skills

At the beginning of the paper, I mentioned the importance of teaching the various sub-skills (or strategies) needed for efficient listening. Various lists have been proposed (Rivers 1968, Munby 1978, Methold 1980, Richards 1983). Richards' taxonomy includes 33 micro-skills for conversational listening and 18 for academic listening (listening to lectures). The Hong Kong Secondary School Syllabus (English) lists the following inventory for stages III and IV.

Stage III:

1. To discriminate between similar speech sounds, homonyms, stress and intonation patterns.
2. To get the central idea(s) or the main theme.
3. To distinguish main ideas from supporting ideas and to grasp details.
4. To make inferences.
5. To use contextual clues to deduce word meanings.
6. To understand instructions and follow directions.
7. To recognise the speaker's intention.
8. To predict what will follow.

Stage IV:

1. To abstract relevant content, and to distinguish facts from opinions.
2. To identify differences between similarly-worded statements.
3. To adjust to the speaker's voice, accent and style.
4. To judge relevancy.
5. To evaluate accuracy of new information against one's prior knowledge.
6. To judge validity and adequacy of main ideas.
7. To understand the difference between connotative meanings and denotative meanings.
8. To identify speaker's attitudes and to judge how far the speaker has achieved his purpose.
9. To recognise self-contradiction in what the speaker says.
10. To be aware of persuasive devices used by the speaker and to get meaning from imagery.

Not all the skills are of equal importance; some require more extensive and intensive teaching. The teacher should have a proper plan for introducing, teaching and review of the skills.

The question of purpose and area of use

It is necessary for teachers and materials developer to consider the language appropriate to academic or occupational purposes as well as the area of use. Furthermore, materials readily available to Hong Kong students should also be noted. The following list extracted from a paper received from the Examinations Authority should be of use to teachers and materials developer.

Material Category	*Area of Use*
(*a*) 1. Academic Purposes	—Talk, lecture, panel or group discussion etc.
(*a*) 2. Occupational Purposes	—Surveys, reports, meetings, interviews, messages, promotional material, discussions, a committee, etc.
(*b*) 3. Using the media for information	—News broadcasts, weather forecasts, sports results, special announcements, interviews, panel discussions etc.
(*b*) 4. Entertainment	—Excerpts from films/radio/television: tapes and records
(*b*) 5. Dealing with official and semi-official bodies	—Rules, regulations and procedures, official announcements
(*b*) 6. Visiting places of interest	—"What's On" programmes, talks, interviews, discussions
(*b*) 7. Social interaction with native and non-native speakers of English	—Introductions, apologising, complimenting, complaining, praising, etc.
(*b*) 8. Travelling and making travel arrangements	—Travel agents descriptions of itineraries, tourist guide descriptions, travellers' reports.
(*b*) 9. Shopping and using services	—Product descriptions, advertisements, sales promotions

Games and activities for developing listening comprehension skills

Teachers should read the very useful survey article "Recent materials for developing listening skills" by Howard Thomas (1982). Other useful articles include:

Author	*Title*	*Journal*
R. White	Listening Comprehension and Note-taking Parts I and II	Modern English Journal 6:1, 2
Alan Maley	The Teaching of Listening Comprehension Skills	Modern English Journal 6:3
J. McDonough	Designing Exercises for Listening to Lectures	Modern English Journal 6:6
Emile Curfs	Listening Deserves Better	Modern English Journal 9:3

Author	*Title*	*Journal*
M. Geddes & R. White	The Use of Semi-scripted simulated Authentic Speed and Listening Comprehension	Audio-visual Language Journal 16:3
W. Beile	Towards a Classification of Listening Comprehension Exercises	Audio-visual Language Journal 16:8
J. Richards	Listening Comprehension: approach, design and procedure	TESOL Quarterly 17:2
S. Rixon	The Design of Materials to Foster Particular Listening Strategies	ELT Document, Special, 1981 *The Teaching of Listening Comprehension*

Penny Ur's (1981) *Teaching Listening Comprehension* is the best resource book on the subject and contains a wealth of useful ideas on teaching listening comprehension. I have included as an appendix a list of activities taken from E. Curf's article and some suggestions mentioned in Penny Ur's book. The list was originally given out as part of a questionaire to Dip. Ed. students to find out what activities they have used and which activities mentioned are considered useful. I trust such a list will be of use to teachers.

Many of the activities mentioned in the articles and the appendix require the use of taped materials or talks/lectures given by the teacher. Since listening comprehension is only one side of the communication process, we should also introduce activities requiring accurate communication of information between students. A number of this type of activities can be found in such books as *Bring the Lab Back of Life* by Philip Ely (1984). *Drama Techniques in Language Learning* (new edition) by Alan Maley and Alan Duff (1982) and *Communicative Ideas* by David Norman et al. (1986). A few examples will be given in the talk.

Some tentative suggestions for teaching trainer

Because listening comprehension is such an important skill, TESL courses should include a component on teaching this skill. The following suggested topics are offered for the consideration of teacher trainers.

1. The process of comprehension.

   How much a trainee has to know depends on several factors, e.g. whether he is a graduate or a non-graduate, and whether he is being trained to teach upper or lower forms in a secondary school. The basic facts should be taught to all trainees but the graduate teacher who will be teaching higher forms should be encouraged to read such

373

books as G. Brown's *Listening to Spoken English* and some of the materials listed under "Background Reading" in Penny Ur's *Teaching Listening Comprehension*. Dr. J. Boyle's article "Factors affecting listening comprehensions" also contains a useful list of books and articles for background reading.

2. The difference between speech and writing.
3. The characteristics of spoken English and how to exploit materials containing examples of such characteristics. A useful illustration is found in "The Design of Materials to Foster Particular Listening Strategies" by S. Rixon in *The Teaching of Listening Comprehension*, ELT Documents, Special, 1981.
4. General principles of teaching listening comprehension, with special reference to ways of developing skills.
5. Selection of suitable materials for teaching listening comprehension.
6. Varieties of listening practice, including information transfer exercises, exercises focusing on anticipation and prediction, listening games, problem-solving exercises, note-taking exercises etc.
7. How to provide feedback.
   All too often teachers merely check the answers in the workbook. An additional task is to find out how students arrived at the answer. Teaching students how to listen and make use of different cues is important.
8. Exploiting different materials mentioned previously under *area of use*.
9. Designing one's own listening comprehension materials.
10. Opportunities for developing listening comprehension skills outside the classroom.

I have given a brief survey of some of the problems and the variety of resource materials now available. Teachers, teacher trainers and materials developer must all work together to help develop this important skill so that our "Cinderella" can go to the communicative ball.

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Appendix

		Teaching Listening Comprehension	*Activities Used*	*Useful*
2.1	The teacher uses cuecards, or any other kind of visuals, says a word and holds up or points to a visual. If the word identifies the visual the pupils mark *true* on their papers, if not they write *false*.			
2.2	For a useful minimal-pair listening exercise the teacher can distribute sheets with drawings of objects (e.g. a mouse/a mouth, a bear/a pear, eyes/ice etc.). As he pronounces one of each pair, the pupils indicate which of the two they hear.			
2.3	Another minimal-pair exercise, which requires much less preparation, is to ask the pupils to write 1 when they hear /t/ and 2 when they hear /d/ while the teacher reads one of each	38–41		

		Teaching Listening Comprehension	*Activities Used*	*Useful*
	pair: two/do, town/down, side/sight etc. Similarly with other contrasting sounds.			
2.4	Pupils have a list of 10 to 20 words (peas/peace, plays/place etc.) and number the words in the order they hear them.			
2.5	Pupils listen to a number of plurals or past tenses and put them in the right column, marked /s/ /z/ /t/ /d/.			
2.6	Visual cues can be used not only to be identified with words (see 2.1) but also with sentences, descriptions and stories. Magazine cut-outs can be very useful here. Pupils listen to a sentence/description/story and indicate whether or not it fits a visual cue.	80-1		
2.7	Pupils listen to names of people, streets, squares etc. and on paper they underline the stressed syllables.			
2.8	Pupils listen to groups of four words, e.g. should/would/food/stood/and put a cross by the odd man out.			
2.9	Pupils draw a number of clock faces and put in the hands as directed by the teacher. After the results have been checked the drawings can be used for oral or written practice of telling time.			
2.10	Pupils are instructed to draw, or complete, a picture, e.g. draw a room with a table in the middle, a cat under the table, a vase on the table, six tulips in the vase etc. This exercise can be made more complicated at advanced levels.	101-3		
2.11	Pupils are given a street map. They mark the route to somebody's flat according to the instructions on the tape or read by the teacher.	65-6		
2.12	Pupils are given a set of pictures of people and then select the picture that corresponds with the description they hear. The same can be done with pictures of houses, cars etc.	55-66		

		Teaching Listening Comprehension	*Activities Used*	*Useful*
2.13	Pupils have a selection of coloured shapes and arrange them according to the instructions they hear, e.g. no. 1 is a red triangle, no. 2 an orange circle, no. 3 an orange triangle etc.	71–3		
2.14	The teacher reads a simple detective story. Ten events occur in this story. The pupils are given ten sketches depicting each of the events. While they listen to the story they write down the numbers of the pictures in the proper order.	89–91		
2.15	Pupils identify sounds on tape, e.g. animals, traffic noises, sounds in or around the house.			
2.16	Pupils identify sounds, some of which are not all that clear. Pupils use: I think it is . . . It may be . . . I'm sure it is . . .			
2.17	Pupils listen to tape and fill in gaps in a story or dialogue in which weak forms have been deleted.			
2.18	Pupils listen to tape and fill in gaps in a story or a dialogue in which prepositions or verb forms have been deleted. Pupils are familiar with the text.			
2.19	Pupils listen to tape and fill in gaps according to Cloze Procedure.	142–4		
2.20	Pupils listen to an interview with a pilot (farmer, artist etc.) and are provided with a grid in which they record the relevant information, e.g. two columns for advantages and disadvantages of his job.	116–21		
2.21	Pupils have a map of Scotland. They listen to somebody describing his journey. They draw in the journey.			
2.22	Pupils listen to a story with deliberate mistakes (content mistakes, not structural ones). Pupils spot the mistakes, orally or in writing.	80–1		
2.23	Pupils listen to ten bits of information about departures and arrivals of buses, trains or planes. On paper they	92		

		Teaching Listening Comprehension	*Activities Used*	*Useful*
	also have ten pieces of information, some of which do not tally with what they hear on the tape. While listening they indicate right or wrong.			
2.24	Pupils listen to a conversation between two housewives. In a grid they put down all sorts of information, e.g. newspapers they always read, TV programmes they like or dislike, parttime jobs they have etc.			
2.25	Pupils listen to scraps of conversation in a shop. In a grid they indicate whether the speakers are complaining or apologising, selling or buying, nervous or at ease, angry or pleased, formal or informal.			
2.26	Pupils listen to a detective questioning some suspects. Pupils are asked to spot conflicting evidence. A grid with indications of times, places, people they met etc. will again come in handy here. Pupils work in groups.	118-9		
2.27	Pupils listen to six people being interviewed after a meeting. They have been talking about a protest march against the building of a motorway right through their village. Pupils indicate in a grid whether the interviewees are sympathetic or unsympathetic, reluctant or willing to join the march, interested or not interested.	45-50		
2.28	Pupils listen to a story or monologue containing a straightforward narrative. The sentences have been scrambled and the pupils are asked to rearrange them in a logical order. Pupils preferably work in groups.	63-4		
2.29	Pupils listen to tape and after listening they are given writing or oral assignments, e.g. do they agree or disagree with what was said on the tape?			
2.30	Pupils listen to story or dialogue and are given sheets with true/false, Mc	134-5		

		Teaching Listening Comprehension	*Activities Used*	*Useful*
	or open-ended questions for them to answer.			
2.31	Guessing definitions. The teacher defines or describes something and the pupils guess what it is.	87-91		
2.32	Constructing models. Pupils listen to tape and construct a model according to the instructions given	70-6		
2.33	Summarising a familiar exercise.	45-7		
2.34	Prediction.	139-41		
2.35	Listening to a one-sided telephone conversation.			
2.36	Interpretive listening. Pupils listen to a dialogue and try to identify who and where the speakers are, the topic of conversation, etc.	160-4		
2.37	Problem solving. Pupils listen to a short description/narrative containing a problem. They discuss ways of solving the problem.			
2.38	Conflicting versions/jigsaw listening. Pupils listen to several versions of the same incident (e.g. an accident) which contain conflicting information and try to form a coherent version of the situation.	156-60		

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

John L. Clark

Introduction

There are two quotations which seem to me to sum up what lies behind effective teacher education and educational change. The first, a proverb from Confucius, is well known:

> "If you give a man a fish, you feed him for one day. If you teach him how to fish, you feed him for a lifetime."
>
> (Confucius)

The second quotation is less well-known, but is equally pertinent.

> "But you, who are wise, must know, that different nations have different Conceptions of things and you will therefore not take it amiss, if our Ideas of this Kind of Education happen not to be the same as yours. We have had some Experience of it. Several of our young people were formerly brought up at the Colleges of the Northern Provinces: they were instructed in all your Science; but, when they came back to us, they were Bad Runners, ignorant of every means of living in the woods . . . neither fit for Hunters, Warriors, nor Counsellors, they were totally good for nothing.
>
> We are, however, not the less oblig'd by your kind Offer, tho' we decline accepting it: and, to show our Grateful Sense of it, if the Gentlemen of Virginia will send us a Dozen of their Sons, we will take Care of their Education, instruct them in all we know, and make Men of them."
>
> (Response of the Indians of the Six Nations to a suggestion that they send boys to an American College in Pennsylvania, 1744).

The Confucius quotation implies that rather than attempting to feed teachers with pre-cooked "fish" in the form of ready-made syllabuses, pre-packaged course books, externally-produced end-of-year attainment tests, in-service methodological recipes for instant communication, and the like, it is more effective to set about enabling teachers to look for, catch and cook their own "fish", i.e. to enable them to participate in the creation and renewal of their own syllabus, resources, classroom strategies, tests etc. Learning to do this, however, takes time and demands experience, and some may be better at it than others for a variety of reasons. It is important therefore to ensure that teachers who are still learning how to renew their own curriculum receive an appropriate level of guidance and support from existing syllabuses, resources, in-service courses etc. We must not leave those fishermen who are still learning to fish to starve.

The quotation from the Indians of the six Nations indicates that rather than attempting to create an ideal curriculum suitable for all contexts and all learners at all times, it is better to accept from the start that educational contexts will vary one from another, some in minor ways, others in major ones. There may be important cultural differences, as between the indigenous Indians and the newly-arrived European Americans in Pennsylvania. Even within the same broad cultural group, classrooms will differ in terms of the values pursued by the community they serve, in terms of the characteristics of their learners, in terms of the experience, personality and teaching styles of the teachers, and most importantly, perhaps, in terms of the curiously unpredictable classroom atmospheres that emerge from the interaction between teacher, curriculum and pupils, and between pupils and other pupils. It is when we realise this that it becomes clear that curriculum renewal or educational change, which I take to be the same thing, must derive from the peculiar characteristics of each culture and of each classroom within it. This implies, I believe, that teachers and learners must play a central role in the development of their own curriculum.

influences lying behind educational change

There would seem to be five major influences lying behind educational change in the language curriculum. They are:

—social-political attitudes, which are clearly subject to shifts of focus, as society and political groups attempt to come to terms with ways of promoting their economic growth, their social cohesion and their spiritual welfare. The role of language is clearly crucial in all three sectors

—educational value-systems, which are broad constructs created out of the interaction between the socio-political factors outlined above, educational philosophy, school practices, and new educational insights emerging from research and from studies of classroom teaching and learning

—applied linguistic insights, deriving from current developments in linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and other related fields, in so far as they are relevant to language teaching and learning

—teacher experiential wisdom, deriving from classroom practice — an often forgotten factor, but one which, as Atkin points out, is a crucial influence on successful curriculum renewal

> "For centuries . . . skilled craftsmen have been making metals. They have learned to add a little of this substance and a little of that, then heat the batch for a certain length of time until it reaches a certain colour, then let it cool at a certain rate . . . Meanwhile, 'scientific' approaches to metallurgy have not succeeded in fully explaining all that the master craftsman does . . . Isn't it possible that teaching is at least as complex as metallurgy?"
>
> (Atkin 1968)

—pupil characteristics deriving from their changing aspirations and motivational patterns.

In this paper there is space only to trace the influence of two broad educational value-systems on the way in which teacher education and educational change is promoted.

Educational value-systems

There are perhaps two educational value-systems currently in contention. Skilbeck (1982a) has referred to these as reconstructionism and progressivism. These two conflicting value-systems have emerged from the slow move away from elitist education, which focussed on abstract knowledge and high-culture, towards egalitarianism on the one hand and learner-centredness on the other. Egalitarianism is bound up with reconstructionism, and learner-centredness with progressivism.

We shall examine briefly how each value-system influences teacher education and educational change. (For a fuller account, see Clark 1987).

Reconstructionism

Skilbeck's (1982a) analysis of reconstructionism indicated that it is an essentially optimistic ideology, which believes that man can improve himself and his environment. Reconstructionists envisage that social, economic, intellectual, and spiritual advance can all be rationally planned for. Education is seen as an important agent for bringing this about. It is seen as a means of redressing the injustices of birth and of early upbringing, and of working through consensus towards a better world in which all citizens are equally valued.

Reconstructionists tend to have great faith in the power of planning, of setting goals to be pursued, and of deliberate intervention in the education system to bring about the desired outcomes.

Examples of reconstructionist forces at work are as follows:—

- —the move towards comprehensive schools and mixed ability classes
- —"immersion" programmes in Canada, which derive from the political desire to foster greater national cohesion between English and French speakers.
- —the Council of Europe Modern Languages project (Council of Europe 1981), which aims to bring about greater European Unity through better communication among speakers of different languages, and through preservation and promotion of linguistic and cultural diversity.

Reconstructionism gives rise to a centralised planning and control of education. It tends to adopt a "top-down" approach towards educational change, in which the government of the day appoints committees of carefully selected experts and representatives of different interest-groups to produce a global policy document. At a more technical level further committees are established to work out detailed subject syllabuses, teaching/learning resources and examinations. All of these can be said to form a curriculum "package", which is created outside the classroom and then passed on to teachers to implement in their various schools.

In-service training centres are then charged with the task of training teachers to adopt the new package, and schools are offered incentives to implement it.

Reconstructionist educational change is thus a "top-down" affair, brought about from outside the classroom by committees of government-approved "experts". Teacher in-service education is seen as the means through which teachers learn to adopt the new packages.

Progressivism

Progressivism looks to Rousseau for its inspiration, and to Piaget among others for its pragmatic support.

It makes for a learner-centred approach to education, which attemtps to promote the pupil's or teacher's development as an individual with intellectual, skill-based, and emotional needs, and as a social being. The learner is seen as a whole person and not just as a disembodied intellect or skilled performer.

Progressivists tend to see education as a means of providing learners with learning experiences from which they can learn by their own efforts. Learning is envisaged as a continuum which can be broken up into several broad developmental stages. For progressivists, "growth" through experience, (learning by doing and reflection upon this), is the key concept.

For progressivists, education is not seen as a process for the transmission of a set of closed truths, but as a way of enabling learners to create, then test and improve their own knowledge, and through this to learn how to learn. Teachers are not simply instructors, but creators of an environment in which learners can learn and learn how to learn by their own efforts. As Rogers (1969) puts it:

> "The only man who is educated is the man who has learned how to learn; the man who has learned how to adapt and change; the man who has learned that no knowledge is secure, that only the process of seeking knowledge gives a basis for security."

The progressivist approach to educational change is to involve teachers in the renewal of their own classroom curriculum in the light of their own contextual requirements. It enables teachers to do this through in-service support which provides teachers with access to information, and with basic research, implementation and evaluation skills, so that over time they become increasingly responsible for their own curriculum. Progressivists stress the importance of teachers learning together in groups by their own efforts. As Rudd (1973) puts it:

> "I regard it as axiomatic that the teacher who learns from his own experience understands in a way which is just not available to persons who merely try to follow the instructions of others . . . I see the local curriculum development group as a setting within which teachers can become the willing agents of their own continuing professional education."

Thus, in the progressivist approach, teacher in-service education brings about educational change, which is firmly rooted upon classroom reality.

383

The advantages and disadvantages of the reconstructionist approach to educational change

The advantage of a reconstructionist "top-down" approach to curriculum renewal is that it looks neat and tidy, because it can be centrally controlled by the government of the day, and can be easily sold to the public.

The major disadvantage is that the rhetoric incorporated in the policy and planning documents and in the new curriculum package is seldom translated into classroom reality. All classrooms are different, and what may work in one classroom may not be wholly appropriate in another. All too often new curriculum packages only work in the "best" classrooms, and need adaptation before they work in others. Classroom habits, uncooperative school managers, large class sizes, lack of resources, insufficient staff, timetable problems and other constraints are often conveniently allowed to block innovation. In addition, teachers tend to remove the innovatory parts of a new curriculum package and teach in the same way as they did before. They may do this because they are not convinced of the value of a new curriculum package, or because they have not internalised the new perceptions of the teaching and learning process embodied in it. Suffice it to say that "top-down" curriculum renewal has a history of limited success, despite the investment of huge sums of money in it (cf Skilbeck 1982b). It does not allow for teacher development or innovation, for flexible response to contextual requirements, or for spontaneity. Nor does it help teachers to learn how to learn to improve their own curriculum.

The advantages and disadvantages of the progressivist approach to educational change

Perhaps the main advantage of the progressivist "bottom-up" approach to educational change, which emphasises the importance of teacher-based development work, lies in the greater sense of commitment teachers feel towards a curriculum whose shape they themselves have had some say in. It is when teachers are committed to what they are doing, that teaching seems to be at its most effective. A sense of cooperative professionalism inspiring self-confidence is more likely to be engendered when teachers perceive that they are curriculum-makers, rather than servants to a curriculum created by outside agents, however expert the latter may be.

Teacher-based educational change leads to slow but permanent evolution, which, it may be argued, is preferable to the revolutionary style of change implied in reconstructionist practices, where lengthy periods of relative inaction are interrupted by sudden "top-down" inspired hiccups that everyone must quickly react to. Externally imposed change often leads to a loss of self-confidence and anxiety among teachers.

The disadvantages of the progressivist approach to educational change are that it is messy and difficult to control. It leads to great diversity, and can seem somewhat directionless. It also places an enormous burden on overworked teachers, who in current conditions have little time to devote to the reading, group discussion, reflection and action that is required for effective "bottom-up" curriculum renewal. Many Governments fail to perceive the need for extra personnel and resources to permit effective educational change to occur, and seem to prefer centralist reconstructionist practices over which they can be seen by the public to exercise control. On pragmatic grounds, therefore, it seems necessary to attempt to work towards some sort of integration of the best features of reconstructionist and progressivist practices.

Towards an integration of the reconstructionist and progressivist approaches to educational change

It would seem sensible, in so far as it is possible, to combine some of the advantages of the "top-down" and "bottom-up" approaches to curriculum renewal and to eliminate their least attractive features. This seems to imply that there should be a sense of direction provided from the "top", but that space should be left for those at the "bottom" to interpret that direction to suit their contextual requirements. In the ALL (Australian Language Levels) project, in which I was recently involved (Clark 1987: Chapter 7, Curriculum Development Centre Canberra 1988), the solution offered to this problem is to provide from the "top" a curriculum framework and principles of procedure to guide teachers and other curriculum developers to work together from the "bottom" on school language policies, syllabuses, schemes of work, resources, classroom strategies, assessment schemes, evaluation procedures etc. In their turn the syllabuses, schemes of work and resources created leave space for an appropriate level of pupil choice. The ALL project thus represents an attempt to integrate "top down" and "bottom up" work across the various sectors of education in the renewal of language curricula across the various states in Australia. It will be interesting to see how the project develops.

In terms of teacher in-service education, it would seem sensible to provide for an array of different styles of in-service work for different purposes. These would include:

—short in-service courses on particular limited areas of concern

—more lengthy courses for teachers to develop research, implementational and evaluative skills, and to upgrade the conceptual and pragmatic bases from which they currently operate

—lengthy secondments to individuals or small groups to work on particular tasks for which they have a particular aptitude (e.g. a syllabus, a set of resources, innovative classroom strategies etc.)

—Ongoing school-based curriculum development work, supported by appropriate consultants, to assist the school itself to improve its own curriculum and practices, since as Whitehead states:

> "The first requisite for educational reform is the school as a unit with its approved curriculum based on its own needs, and evolved by its own

staff. If we fail to secure that, we simply fall from one formalism into another, from one dung-hill of inert ideas into another."

(Whitehead 1932:21)

- subject-specific teacher curriculum renewal groups, supported by appropriate consultants, to work on the permanent improvement of policy, syllabuses, resources, classroom practices, assessment etc. within their subject area (Clark 1987).

In-service teacher educators must strive to find the appropriate balance between "top-down" informational input, tutor-directed experiential tasks through which knowledge and awareness can be improved, and self-generated research and application work, attempting to combine the best of reconstructionist and progressivist methodological practices. The balance between these elements will change according to context.

Contextual influences

Apart from the obvious financial and administrative constraints and those deriving from socio-cultural traditions, there are two major contextual influences which should guide us in the choice of mode of teacher education and of educational change. The first of these influences derives from the stage of development reached by the educational system itself and the individual teachers within it. The second influence derives from the personality and attitudinal characteristics of those involved.

Beeby (1973) has outlined four stages of development through which educational systems seem to pass. They are as follows:

- The Dame School stage, in which Schools tend to follow a narrow curriculum with much rote-learning and little flexibility.
- The stage of Formalism, in which Schools follow a rigidly prescribed syllabus with approved materials towards tightly prescribed examinations. Teachers follow textbooks and prescribed methods slavishly.
- The stage of Transition in which contextually appropriate adaptations to the syllabuses and existing materials are encouraged. Experimentation, however, is usually restricted by the examinations in force.
- The stage of Meaning in which teachers are encouraged to participate in the curriculum renewal process. Individual differences are catered for, and teacher responsibility for the curriculum is promoted.

Beeby maintains that the four developmental stages are linear in nature, and that one cannot bring about changes that belong in the stage of Meaning, for example, in an educational context still engaged in the stage of Formalism. Equally it would seem counterproductive to will an educational system already approaching the stage of Meaning back into the stage of Formalism, as appears to be the current government's wish in Britain. It would seem important to provide the appropriate level of "top-down" guidance indicated by the level of development achieved by a particular educational system.

It is possible in very general terms to view the progress of individual teachers as passing through the same sort of stages as the systems they serve. Thus many teachers in their first years tend somewhat unthinkingly to adopt the practices of those who taught them at school (the Dame School stage), or need close guidance and tight supportive structures (the Formalistic stage), before they are ready to adapt or to innovate (the Transitional and Meaning stages). It would therefore seem sensible to accept that individual teachers will require different levels of guidance and support in the path leading towards responsibility for their own curriculum.

In addition to being at different stages of development, teachers vary in their personalities and in their attitudes towards the taking of responsibility and educational change. Some of this variation is culturally derived, while some is more individual. Although it is somewhat of a caricature, there are perhaps 4 basic attitudinal types among teachers — the conservatives, the adopters, the adapters and the innovators. As outlined in Clark (1987):

> "The 'conservatives' are those who have discovered a style of teaching and who have developed an approach, strategies, and techniques that suit their existing knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and who do not wish to change these. They may not wish to do so through strong faith in the rightness of their attitude, through fear of the unknown, or because their own education has not equipped them with either the desire or the tools for learning how to learn any further. It is understandable that there are 'conservatives' among older teachers, whose education and teaching experience may have been acquired in less rapidly changing times, but one also finds a number of 'conservatives' among younger teachers too. They find it difficult to come to terms with ideas or strategies that do not accord with the approach they have developed. They adopt new curricula somewhat reluctantly, and, when they do, they often transform them to accord with their existing approach.
>
> The 'adopters' are those who wait for the 'official' stamp of approval on any innovation before making a move. They are very concerned about whether they are doing the 'right' thing, and tend to have a somewhat naive faith in the notion of the 'official' panacea which will solve their problems.
>
> The 'adaptors' like to tinker with official guidelines and with course materials in order to make them more suitable for their own classroom circumstances. They are sufficiently independent to wish to bring their own personal ideas, attitudes, and practice to bear upon classroom procedures, but may not wish to jettison existing materials and practices entirely, often for very pragmatic reasons.
>
> The 'innovators' believe that they can devise curricula which respond to their pupils' needs and aspirations better than any external body. They work best when they are experimenting with new ideas and new techniques. There are 'solo innovators', who find it hard to share their ideas

and experiences with others or to work with them, and there are 'interactive innovators', who work more naturally in group mode."

Given all of this, it would seem that we should attempt to provide the level and the style of support best suited to each context and to each individual teacher.

Conclusion

To return to the beginning of the paper and integrate the concerns of the two quotations, it seems sensible to accept that since all educational contexts and individual teachers are different, we must pitch the level of guidance and the style of support we offer in teacher education and curriculum renewal work to the characteristics of the educational system as a whole and of the individual teachers within it, while aiming nevertheless to get as far along the road as we can towards a stage of Meaning, in which teachers are supported to take responsibility for their own curriculum.

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在方言環境中的語文教學與學習

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一、引言

一個人的語文學習，基本上會受到四大因素所影響，這些因素是：(1)家庭因素；(2)社會因素；(3)語言習慣因素；(4)學校因素。所謂「家庭因素」，指的是家庭環境和家庭成員對學生語文所造成的影響；所謂「社會因素」，主要指社會上的語文傳媒和學生所處社會環境對學生語文所造成的影響；所謂「語言習慣因素」，指的是口頭語和書面語對學生語文所造成的影響；所謂「學校因素」，指的是學校教師、環境、設備和各科課程、教材對學生語文所造成的影響[1]。在四大因素中，「語言習慣因素」，往往特別受到語文教育學者和語文教育工作者的重視。他們認爲，適當的語言環境，配應的語言習慣，特別有利於語文教學與學習。

香港居民，以廣東人爲最多，講通語言，一般以廣州方言爲主。不過細察目前香港居民所用的廣州方言，其中已滲有新的成分，因此，無論是語音或詞匯，並不完全同於原來的廣州方言，就是與現時生活於廣州的居民比較起來，也有一些不同的地方；這當然是由於時間、地域所影響，所以才會出現這樣的情況。因此，有人索性把香港居民口頭說的所謂「廣州方言」，稱爲「香港話」。學生處身在這樣的方言環境裏，由於受到語言習慣的影響，因而在運用書面語表情達意時，往往夾雜了大量方言和只有本地人才熟悉的外來語，這種情況，無疑使語文教師在批改學生的語文習作時，經常面臨孰是孰非的考慮，受到不少困擾。至於讀文教學的教材，除了古代漢語的教材外，都是符合標準語或接近標準語的現代漢語篇章，與學生平日習用的口語並不相同，於是學生在吸收、應用時，也不能得心應手。可見香港學生在寫作、閱讀時，往往需要一重詞匯、語法的轉化手續，而這一重手續，對語文能力還有局限的中、小學生來說，自然產生困難。簡而言之，目前香港學生的語文學習，所缺乏的正是一個有利的語言環境。因此，香港的語文教師，在這個方言環境中，既要爲自己解決教學上的困難，同時也要幫助學生解決學習語文時所產生的困難。怎樣解決這些困難？這是我想在這裏討論的。

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[1] 參閱何津〈語言環境與語文教學〉，《語文雜誌》第5期，1980年8月語文雜誌出版社，頁96至97。

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二、解決困難的意見

在方言環境中，該怎樣解決語文教學與學習的困難，是一個受人關注的論題。不少語文教育學者和語文教育工作者，在這方面發表了不少解決困難的意見。綜觀他們的意見，大抵可歸納爲幾點：

1. 在中、小學提供必修的普通話訓練課程，讓學生有學習普通話的機會，使他們的口頭語和書面語可以合而爲一，達到「我手寫我口」的要求。
2. 採用普通話作爲教學語言，使學生可以有較多機會聽普通話和說普通話，於是學生對標準語的語音、詞匯和語法，就會較爲熟悉。
3. 推廣普通話在社會上的使用，把方言環境改變爲標準語環境，讓學生浸淫其中，這是從語言學習的角度，爲學生營造一個有利的語言環境。
4. 改革語文教學課程，強調聽、說、讀、寫的均衡訓練；改善語文教材素質，選用語文符合規範的教材或採用符合規範的標準語來撰寫教材。
5. 加強語文教師的培訓，爲現職語文教師提供進修課程，藉以提高語文教師的素質。而每一位語文教師，都必須學習普通話和認識一些與普通話有關的語文常識，包括語音、詞匯、語法等等。
6. 推廣課外閱讀風氣，由政府鼓勵或津貼一些出版商多出版適合青少年程度、興趣的優良課外讀物，讓學生通過閱讀去改進、提高自己的語文能力。

三、意見的可取與不足

上述解決困難的意見，其中當然有可取之處，值得加以肯定，但也有不足的地方，值得我們留意。

從可取的角度看，他們建議改革語文教學課程、改善語文教材、提高語文教師的語文能力、改進語文教學素質，原則是對的，但怎樣改革、改善、提高、改進，則要看具體做法和實際效果。否則空有正確原則，對於實際困難，仍然未能逐一解決。在目前，提原則意見的人多，提解決方案的人少，因而所謂解決困難，其實並未能夠完全做到。有人建議在中、小學開設普通話課程，採用普通話爲教學語言，藉以加強學生的語感，增加他們接觸普通話的機會。這個意見如果真能實現，對學生運用標準語的能力，無疑有提高的作用。只是一談到普通話課程的開設，就牽涉師資問題和各科教節分配問題，其中有待解決的困難，並不那麼容易解決。至於主張採用普通話作爲語文科的教學語言，不能說不對，只是這裏頭既有師資的

要求，又有師生之間和學生之間的傳意問題，如果師資不足，傳意又有窒礙，就有實行的困難，在語文技能訓練和語文知識吸收方面，也不會收到預期的教學效果。推廣課外閱讀風氣，多出版適合青少年程度、興趣的優良課外讀物，的確有利於學生書面語的理解和表達，只是推廣風氣、出版讀物，牽涉面廣，這不單是學校、教師的事，其實也是政府、社會、出版商、家長的事。而且任何一種風氣，往往逐漸形成，不能一蹴即就；出版讀物，出版商不免會考慮市場和利潤，在商言商，也不能說不對。

從不足的角度看，他們的建議，更有可以商榷之處。「我手寫我口」，是民國初年提倡白話文時所喊出的口號。這個口號，在當時爲了提倡新事物，自有它的作用與價值，只是現時大家已寫了好幾十年白話文，應該可以看到一個事實，就是真正與口頭語合一的文章，目前還不多見，即使用方言寫的文章，與口頭語仍有距離。可見「我手寫我口」，只是一個嚮向的目標，一個勉勵的口號！提倡用普通話教學和主張推廣普通話在社會上使用的人，自有他們良好的動機與遠見，對幅員廣大、種族繁多的中國來說，的確需要便於溝通的共同語，而生活在方言環境中的學生，也的確需要學習經過規範的共同語，也即是標準語，只是過分強調口頭語對書面語的影響，而不知道書面語的學習，仍該以書面語的接觸爲最有效，也是很不智的。而且，語文的教學與學習，往往須配合社會的條件與需求。漠視社會的條件與需求而去做一件事，結果會吃力不討好。普通話師資不足，需要應用普通話的場合不多，是目前本港在條件與需求方面的局限，如果要打破這個局限，並不是短期內可以解決的事。普通話是中國人的標準語、共同語，在方言環境中提倡學習，除了有積極的意義外，也是一種認同心態，我們可以理解、可以接受。只是有少數熟諳普通話或略諳普通話的人，不知在什麼時候開始，逐漸養成一種自尊、自重的優越心態，他們認爲，要提高本港學生以至社會人士的中文程度，尤其是書面語的程度，必須採用普通話教學和推廣普通話在社會上的使用。在他們的心目中，普通話是語文教學與學習的救厄解困靈丹，有了普通話，就不會有語文程度低降的問題。其實，在普通話通行地區，仍然有語文程度低降的困擾，能講字正腔圓而又流暢普通話的人，不一定能寫通順的中文，也不一定有豐富的語文知識和文化常識，能講普通話與中文程度之間，尤其是能講普通話與書面語表達能力之間，可說並無必然關係。昧於口頭語與書面語的差距，昧於某一社會的條件與需求，而侈談中文程度的提高，對方言環境中的語文教學與學習，是非常不利的。

四、認識存在的事實

談語文教學與學習，不宜迴避存在的事實，面對事實，深入認識，反而有利於教學與學習的改進。

事實之一，是現在我們所用的書面語，其實是雅俗兼收，古今並包，中西合璧的一種文體，其中既有方言，又有古文辭藻，更有歐化的詞匯和語法。這一種兼收並包的書面語，固然與各地方言口頭語有差距，與經過規範的普通話比較起來，也總有些分別。夏濟安在《白話文與新詩》一文中，即清楚地指出書面語與口頭語的不同。他認為，幾十年來，真正和說話符合的白話文還很少見。而現代人所寫的書面語，其中不乏古文的表現方式，也即是有不少古文的詞匯和語法。夏氏更指出，我們的書面語之所以會歐化，其實是受了翻譯作品的影響。翻譯使書面語歐化，當然有不好的影響，但翻譯也使我們字詞的使用擴大了，同時又使我們在表達方面添了不少新的語法[2]。這些新的字詞和語法，對於一個國族語文的發展與增益，不能說沒有積極的作用。

事實之二，是口頭語固然影響書面語，書面語也影響口頭語，不過，一個人閱讀能力的提高，主要是多接觸書面語的結果，而一個人寫作能力的提高，也主要是多模仿書面語的結果。換句話說，書面語對閱讀、寫作能力的影響，往往大於口頭語對閱讀、寫作能力的影響。一個經常閱讀文字資料、文學篇章的人，可能拙於詞令，但他的閱讀理解能力，決不會差到那裏去，而且因為他經常接觸文字資料和文學篇章，因而執起筆來，往往會想到人家怎樣寫、學習人家怎樣寫，因而他的寫作能力，也不會差到那裏去。夏濟安在《白話文與新詩》一文中指出，我們提筆寫文章，會想到人家怎麼「寫」，而很難想到人家怎麼「說」[3]。想到怎麼「寫」，是書面語的閱讀問題，想到怎麼「說」，是口頭語的聽說問題。我們如果同意夏氏的意見，就不會把一個人的普通話聽說能力，等同一個人的讀寫能力，更不會把推廣普通話的學習，視同救治中文程度低落的唯一靈丹妙藥。

事實之三，是知識面的廣狹，與一個人的理解能力和表達能力，有極密切的關係。換句話說，知識面廣，聽、說、讀、寫能力也高，知識面狹，聽、說、讀、寫能力也低。例如我們要理解、運用語文中的成語、典故，其中就有文化知識的要求。所謂文化知識，範圍極大，涵蓋極廣，可以是文學、歷史，可以是神話、傳說，可以是禮俗、風習，可以是山川、地理，可以是天文、曆算，可以是草、木、鳥、獸、蟲、魚……。缺乏文化知識，在理解或運用成語、典故時，往往會出問題。成語、典故，只是語

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[2] 參閱《夏濟安選集》，1971年3月志文出版社，頁65至70。

[3] 參閱同上，頁66。夏氏在文中舉例說：「有位朋友在香港住了幾年，常常看廣東人的小報，現在也能寫廣東話的小說了，『乜』、『冇』、『咁』等字，居然用來得心應手。這種驚人的成績，固然和這位朋友的語言天才有關，但主要的原因，並不是他的廣東話說得流利，而是他讀了很多文章。他的成功，並不是『模仿語言』的成功，仍舊是『模仿文章』的成功。」

文中的一部分，而且是極小的一部分，這極小的一部分，已需要相當廣闊的知識面，如果從整個語文的理解和表達來看，知識面的要求，就要更廣更闊了。一個人能聽、能說普通話，當然已掌握了一些特定的語音、語法、詞匯知識，但並不表示這個人已具有廣闊的知識面，更不表示這個人一定有很高的語文能力。判定一個人的語文能力高或低，要看他多方面的表現，而知識面較狹的人，必然在聽、說、讀、寫以至思考方面，都有較差的表現。

事實之四，是學習普通話，可使我們較熟習規範了的語音、詞匯和語法，可使我們對標準語的語感增強，而且，我們認識規範了的語音、詞匯和語法愈多，愈方便我們用來作爲共同溝通的工具。只是我們也該知道，普通話對我們語文能力的提高，其實有本身的局限性。我曾經遇到過能聽普通話又能說漂亮普通話的人，但書面語的理解、表達能力，卻並不怎樣高明。據我們所知，在以北京話或普通話作爲日常溝通語言的地區，仍然有文盲和中文程度低落的現象。有人主張在本港推廣普通話的使用，把本港的方言環境，改爲標準語環境。這種主張，目的是爲本港學生營造一個有利於語文學習的環境，可謂「用心良苦」。可是語言環境的出現，應該是自然而然的事，刻意營造一個語言環境，如果只是個小範圍，也還容易控制、安排，如果要一個方言環境的社會，整個變而爲標準語的語言環境，就不是一件那麼容易的事。一個大的語言環境，是不能硬造的。例如廣東省根據國家的語文政策，由官方和教育界極力提倡、推廣普通話的使用，只是實際的情況是，在廣東省，仍然以方言作爲主要的溝通語言媒介；社會上，仍然是多用方言。直到現時爲止，廣東省仍未出現一個完全屬於標準語的語言環境。

五、解決困難的建議

在方言環境中的語文教學與學習，的確有不少困難，要全部解決這些困難，恐怕不大可能。不過，如果我們並不苛求，要解決部分困難，或盡量使一些困難的干擾減少，也不是不可能的事。我在下面，試提一些建議：

1. 不忽視標準語的訓練與學習：在本港這個方言環境中，普通話的應用，在日常生活中並不那麼需要，不過爲了與外地的人溝通，例如國內、台灣、新加坡，普通話的學習，也還是需要的。而且，我們雖不必厚望普通話可大幅度提高我們的語文能力，但到底可幫助我們認識一些規範了的語音、詞匯和語法，這其實是一種知識的增益，同時也有助於我們對語文的運用，尤其是現代漢語的運用。
2. 提高閱讀興趣，推廣閱讀風氣：一個社會、一個國家的語文程度，往往與那個社會、那個國家的閱讀風氣，有很密切的聯繫。要

推廣閱讀風氣，就要提高大家的閱讀興趣。站在教師的立場，要提高閱讀興趣，首先須從自己做起，然後再進而鼓勵學生。懂得怎樣閱讀和有興趣閱讀的教師，才可以具體指導學生怎樣閱讀和影響學生多閱讀。如果閱讀風氣普遍存在於語文教師與他們的學生之間，逐漸推而廣之，一家學校、各家學校、整個社會，就會有較多人有閱讀的興趣。當渡海輪上、地車中、酒樓或餐室裏，都有較多人埋首書刊的時候，也就是這個社會形成閱讀風氣的時候。閱讀風氣較濃盛的社會，才會是一個語文程度較高的社會。

3. 多出版符合標準語要求的優良讀物：如果我們同意，多讓學生接觸書面語，是提高學生閱讀、寫作能力的有效方法，那麼，多出版符合標準語要求的優良讀物，無疑是當前的急務。只要這些讀物的內容、性質符應學生的興趣、程度，學生就會受到讀物的吸引，久而久之，他們的閱讀興趣，就培養起來了。只要學生肯閱讀，讀物的語文與內容，一定對他們的語文能力，有提高的作用。除了政府，本港有能力的團體、機構、商人，是不是可以撇開利潤的考慮，撥出資金，配應人手、資源，爲這個社會，爲大家的子弟，出版價廉質優的讀物？

4. 切實做好語文教學工作，加強閱讀、寫作指導：在方言環境中的語文教學與學習，不時會受到語言習慣因素的干擾。爲了要使學生從語文訓練方面得到較大的收益，語文教師就得要切實做好語文教學工作，加強閱讀、寫作指導。例如在詞匯、語法方面，多做一些分析、比較，使學生對方言與標準語的異同，有較深刻的印象。此外，多安排課內、課外的語文活動，多利用視聽教材、教具作爲教學的輔助；語文練習類型的設計，又多考慮多樣化和趣味化的問題，於是學生就會從語文教師方面，得到較大、較多的幫助。加強閱讀、寫作指導，即是強化書面語對學生的影響，於是學生就可以以優秀篇章作爲學習對象，認識人家怎樣寫和模仿人家怎樣寫。在語文課中，教師應鼓勵學生多讀、多寫、多想，尤其是應鼓勵他們多讀語文符合規範要求的好作品。

5. 擴大學生的文化知識面：一個國族的文化，與一個國族的語文，是交結而不可分的。缺乏文化知識，不但在理解字詞、句段、篇章時有困難，而且也減損了語文表達時的精微與光彩，要提高學生的語文程度，講求課程、教材、教法的改善，講求教師的培訓，是需要的，同時也要想辦法擴大學生的文化知識面。學生的文化知識面愈廣，理解和表達能力就愈高，在理解時，就會減少誤解，在表達時，就會減少錯失。談語文教學與學習，只專注於技

能訓練，只強調語文的實用性，是不夠的，我們應該提供切合學生程度的文化知識，來配應技能訓練的需要！以學習普通話爲例，我們如果只留意語音、詞匯、語法的正誤，而不去了解北方語言區域內的事物、禮儀、風習、生活等等，那麼，我們的普通話，一定掌握得不好。而書面語的學習，更需要文化知識的幫助。

6. 充分利用校外環境的語文資料：所謂校外環境的語文資料，範圍非常廣泛，其中包括：一般人的談吐，電台、電視的廣播，家庭中的讀物(如報刊，書籍)，公共場所、商品、器材的書面說明、宣傳、指示或各種規章、通告等等。這一切，都產生語文影響的作用，向學生甚至全社會的人，進行語文訓練。這種力量十分強大，所起的作用也十分深遠⑷。怎樣充分利用這方面的力量、作用？怎樣把消極的語文資料變爲積極？怎樣把積極的語文資料變爲更積極？在語文教學上，是值得研究的問題。而且，語文學習，必須切合社會的實際需要，必須結合社會文化。社會文化，包括社會中日常應用的語文資料。摒除校外語文資料的語文教學，也即是摒除一部分社會文化的教學，這對學生的語文學習，是非常不利的。因此，語文教師應該把校外環境有關的語文資料，想辦法帶入學生學習語文的範圍，使校外環境和校內環境，藉着語文教學，發生緊密聯繫。而語文教學在講求教學技巧時，要特別留意一點，就是：語文訓練，應該打破校內的局限，因爲它不單是教室裏的事，也不單是學校裏的事。充分認識方言環境中各種有利或不利的情況，充分利用有利語文訓練的校外資料，我們的語文教學和學生的語文學習，才會取得較大的成果。

7. 不必視方言爲洪水猛獸：方言環境之所以稱爲方言環境，是因爲在這個環境中，大多數人都用方言來作爲口頭語的溝通。除非書面語的影響大於口頭語，否則，學生、教師以至社會人士，他們在筆底下常常出現方言的詞匯或語法，那是無可避免的事。在書面語中夾雜太多方言，的確會影響人與人間的溝通。中國幅員廣大，方言極多，我們之所以要學習規範了的標準語，就是爲了大家要有互相溝通的共同語。一般兒童、少年、青年，如果平日較

⑷ 張志公在《語文訓練問題需要加緊研究》中說：「每個有文化的，能讀能寫的成年人如果仔細查看一下自己的語文能力，他將發現，他認識的字，掌握的詞、成語、諺語等等，能夠熟練運用的表達形式，相當不小的一部分不是從語文課中、從學校裏，而是從別的學科中，從自己的閱讀活動中，從社會生活裏的接觸和實踐中學到的。他還將發現，他說話的習慣和能力之中，無論好的方面或者不大好的方面，大都能從語文課堂以外的其他接觸和活動中找到對他有過影響，起過作用的來源。」(見《語文教學論集》，1981年2月福建教育出版社，頁17。)

少閱讀，或所閱讀的大多是不規範的語文資料，於是他們的筆底下，就會出現不少方言的詞匯或語法。鼓勵他們多接觸書面語，多讀語文優良的讀物，是救治的良方。但多讀所產生的效果，往往在短期內並不那麼明顯，於是他們所寫出來的句、段、篇，也就免不了會夾雜一些方言。而對這些方言，語文教師倒不必驚怪駭汗，視爲洪水猛獸。不少學者、作家，筆底下還不是出現方言！只是有些是廣州方言，有些是北京方言，有些是四川方言，有些是福建方言……。我們只要按照學生可以吸收的能力，酌量加以提示、糾正，也就夠了。在小學、初中階段，不妨多提規範意見，多舉規範實例。到了高中、大學階段，學生如果肯多閱讀語文優良的讀物，他們一定可從大量書面語的接觸中，受到較大、較佳的影響。其實一個國族的共同語，必然會吸納不少方言，只不過這些方言，有些已受到規範的認可，有些則因爲有增加表達力的作用，也逐漸爲較多人所接受，最後也許會走入共同語的範疇[5]。

六、結語

談論語文教學與學習的人，都很憂慮方言環境對學生的語文程度，有不良的影響。由於社會發展，科技進步，資訊發達，因此學生的語文，明顯地受到有益和有害的影響，而學生更因在日常生活中，減少了接觸和運用書面語的機會，於是在閱讀和寫作方面，表現不如理想。這種現象，其實不單是方言環境中才出現的問題，也不單是中文教育問題，而是全世界、全人類、任何一種語文教育、任何一個語言環境，都會遭遇的問題。要提高學生的語文程度，要減少方言環境中種種不利因素，我們就得要增加學生在書面語方面的接觸和運用機會[6]。站在教學的立場，加強課內聽、說、讀、寫、思考的訓練，是提高語文程度的有效辦法；重視課外閱讀，着重推廣課外閱讀的風氣，更是可行而又收效的好辦法。

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[5] 唐海濤在〈國語應推行，方言不可廢〉中說：「在國語發展成長的過程中，其實早已吸納了許多方言的菁華，以詞彙一端爲例，國語中就採入了許多粵語成分……這些都增加了國語的表達力，使它更生動而形象化。」（見《明報月刊》第[illegible]卷第四期，1985年4月明報有限公司，頁84。）

[6] 莊澤義在〈提高學生的中文寫作水準〉中說：「中國有許多方言區，那裏人們使用的方言各有一套獨特詞彙和表達習慣。但是，沒有任何一處方言區（包括講閩南話的台灣在內）的學生作文，其受方言干擾的程度，像香港這麼普遍，這麼嚴重，……原因很可能是多方面的，但是最重要的原因，怕是香港學生對標準語接觸的機會太少。……要提高學生的中文寫作水準，必須向他們提供接觸標準語的機會和環境。」（見《明報》，1986年9月19日明報有限公司。）最理想的標準語接觸和運用，當然最好包括口頭語和書面語兩方面，如果兩者要分影響的大小，我認爲書面標準語的接觸和運用，對一個人寫作水準的影響，應該遠遠大於口頭標準語的影響。而且，在香港，教師要向學生提供接觸標準語的機會和環境，書面語的提供，實易於口頭語的提供。

時至今日，學生在語文學習的過程中，可說有所得也有所失。他們的口齒伶俐了，反應敏捷了，見聞增多了，勇於表達了，是他們的所「得」，這得拜社會發展、生活改變、科技進步、資訊發達之賜。然而他們在書面語方面的表現，包括閱讀、寫作，的確不如理想，是他們的所「失」，這也得拜社會發展、生活改變、科技進步、資訊發達之賜。因為現時視聽的設備，如電視、收音機、錄音機、錄影機等等，已用影像、聲音，取代了部分書刊的功能。現時於學生再不能像過往的學生那樣，經常面對書刊的字詞、語句、段落、篇章，作必須的停頓、推敲、思考，於是現時學生的邏輯推理能力，往往缺乏應有的訓練(7)。針對他們的所「失」，加強書面語的接觸與訓練，鼓勵課外閱讀和寫作，不但有利於方言環境中的語文教學與學習，也有利於任何環境中的語文教學與學習。

我國古代的語文學習，口頭語是一套，書面語是一套，「我手」並不「寫我口」，但他們的書面語，卻很少出現方言干擾的問題，現在我們在方言環境中學習語文，尤其是學習書面語，「手」、「口」分離的情況，正好與古人相類似。古人學習語文成功的經驗、心得，是不是可供我們參考、借鏡？古人的語文學習，主要在先熟讀他人的文章、多接觸他人的文章和多模仿他人的文章，然後再放手寫自己的文章。古今時代不同，社會不同、生活情況不同，古人的經驗、心得，不一定百分之百適用於今日，但他們多接觸、多模仿書面語的做法，對我們仍然有參考的價值和啓發的作用。

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(7) 參閱林佚〈中文水平下降四大原因〉，《明報》，1986年10月28日明報有限公司

漢語方言區語文教育的方言干擾問題

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(一)

新中國成立以來，教育事業有了很大的發展。語文教育一如其他學科的教育一樣，從內容的擴展、深化和普及面的擴大來看，都取得很大進展。但是，語文教育的成效並不令人滿意，大中學生以及社會上一般知識分子的語文水平普遍比以前有所下降。原因是多方面的。政治的、文化的及一般教育制度的制約因素，可暫不討論，這裡能夠論定而且須要提出來深省的一個原因，是方言的干擾。

由于漢族人民散布在國土的廣闊地域，而且越來有越多人從富庶的東部、南部沿海地帶和中原地區轉到北部和西北部地區進行開發，又由于漢語歷史上形成了複雜的方言分歧，中國大部分地方都是漢語方言區。其中包括除首都北京以外的幾乎所有大中城市(1)。由于北京話的語音就是漢民族共同語——普通話的標準音，因此除了少量比較土的詞語以外，北京話大體上是同普通話相吻合的。當然，離北京市區較遠的幾個郊區縣的土話，就沒有北京話的這種天然優越的地位。

在如此廣闊的方言區裡，語文教育在各種程度上遇到教育對象方言習慣的障礙，自然產生了特定的困難和問題。所謂語文教育，主要是要讓學習者正確掌握、運用祖國的語言文字(2)，在漢語方言區來說，是要正確掌握、運用漢民族共同語和漢字。而學生從小講的是父母或年長者教給的方言；出了學校，回到家裡，走到社會上，講的、聽的也大多是方言。這樣，語文教育是在兩個語種互相矛盾、互相作用的背景下進行的。一方面，根深蒂固的本地方言習慣，對普通話的學習和使用，頑強地抗拒、排斥；另一方面，在學生學習語文和學着使用普通話時，本地方言習慣又以種種方式輸進學生在口頭和書寫上對普通話的運用之中，給它按上本地方言特點的明顯烙印，使它蕪雜不純，很不完善。這兩方面，都是漢語方言對民族共同語語文教育的干擾。

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(1) 這裡例外的大城市，或許可以提出哈爾濱。哈爾濱話的語音和北京音基本上一致，土的詞語也不多。

(2) 參考呂叔湘先生在《關于語文教學的兩點基本認識》一文裡的注文：“‘語文’有兩個意義：一，‘語言’和‘文字’；二，‘語言文字’和‘文學’……一般說到‘語文教學’的時候總是用的‘語文’的第一義。”（《文字改革》1963年第1期1頁）

一般在實行雙重語言制或流行多種語文的地區，進行其中任何一種對學習者來說並非母語的語言的教育，都會不同程度地受到其他語言的干擾。漢語方言區雖然一般並沒有嚴格意義的雙重或多重語言制（某些居住着少數民族的地區例外），但是本地方言和普通話的並立和互相作用，在某種程度上，尤其是在普通話得到推行的城鎮裡，也可以說是一種"雙語"現象，只不過這裡的"語言"不指某種民族語言，而指一定的語言符號系統罷了。漢語方言區的語文教育受到當地方言的干擾，乃是規律的、必然發生的現象。不過，普通話同每個地方的漢語方言之間，存在着特殊的關係，其關聯的特點與一般並用于同一地區的兩種(民族)語言的關係有別。首先，在每個地方，漢語方言比普通話常用和活躍，地位牢固得多。對于地方上的絕大多數居民來說，當地方言是母語或所謂"母方言"(3)，是社會習慣的一個重要部分，它必然對要學習、掌握另一個語種起巨大的影響。其次，普通話是在北方方言基礎上形成的，與北方方言及其他漢語方言存在親近程度不等的同源關係，彼此在許多材料成分上相接近。這給方言區的學生和一般本地人以母方言代替普通話，或有意無意把普通話的說法說成母方言的或相似于母方言的說法，提供了條件。再次，普通話同漢語方言之間存在漢字的特殊紐帶。漢字的超方言性質，雖然可以使方言區的學生和其他本地人在不掌握普通話讀音的情況下大體學懂普通話的書面語，從而有利于民族共同語的統一，但是同時也強化了方言的牢固地位，使方言區學生意識不到學習普通話的必要性，也使他們習慣于以方言語音來讀漢文，從而大大增加了方言干擾的渠道和機會。最後，又應該說，普通話對漢語方言起着主導作用。普通話用于書面文字、廣播、電視、電影、隆重集會上的演說和其他重大的交際場合，居于較高的、權威性的地位，它以全民族標準語言模式的身份而使地方上的方言服從于它。漢語方言對語文教育的干擾不能不存在某種限度和一定的範圍。所有這些關聯的特殊性，就使得漢語方言對于語文教育的干擾具有一些特點，和一般雙語或多語區語文教育所受到的語言干擾有所不同。這些特點，概括來說，表現爲三個方面：（一），干擾十分容易產生，因而是極爲普遍地、幾乎自然而然地出現的。這使它具有頑強性和持久性，形成一種不易對付的社會性的抗力。不過它也遇到大力推廣使用民族共同語的一定抑制。（二），干擾的渠道多。除了方言習慣直接在普通話的說和寫上起作用的渠道之外，還有漢字讀音和書刊閱讀的以及社會觀念影響的（如認爲在家鄉中說普通話而不操本鄉話，是打官腔，和鄉人不親近或脫離群衆）渠道。（三），干擾有多種多樣

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(3) 「母方言」這一術語，見皮特・科德(S. Pit Corder)《應用語言學導論》(Introducing Applied Linguistics)，漢譯本11頁，1983年，上海外語教育出版社。

的表現方式，分別爲外部的和內部的兩大類型。"外"和"內"，是從普通話語文的教和學的自身角度來說的。關于這一點，容下文再作具體闡述。

（二）

漢語方言區內依方言的不同而形成的各個地域或地方，語文教育所受到的方言干擾會千差萬別，至少也不盡相同。目前，要把每個地方的特殊干擾都確定下來，還做不到。但是大片區域共同表現的基本情況，可以看得出來。而爲了現階段方言區的語文教育能夠逐步制定有針對性的克服干擾的措施，明確不同區域基本干擾情況的不同所在，是必要的。

整個漢語方言區，就流行的方言同普通話的接近、親近程度來看，可分爲兩大區域。華北、東北、西北、西南除西藏、桂南、桂東之外的部分，江淮地區和山東，都流行着官話——北方方言。這一大片區域，傳統上稱之爲官話區或北方方言區。東南浙、贛、湘、閩、粵、台、海南諸省及蘇南地區，流行的是同普通話距離較遠的吳方言、贛方言、湘方言、閩北方言、閩南方言、客家方言和粵方言，傳統上把這片東南區域稱爲南方方言區。南、北兩大方言區，語文教育的方言干擾情況，有較大的差異。

北方方言區的語文教育，一般而論，學生的語言障礙較小，因爲他們的母方言同課本和教學所用的語言差別較小。北方方言和普通話的差別，大多只在聲調上比較顯著，而除去山西一部分、江淮地區一部分及河南北部個別的縣之外，整個北方方言區的方言聲調和普通話一樣，都沒有入聲，差別只在舒聲的調值及部分調類上。因此北方方言區的學生要學會普通話，一般沒有什麼困難，尤其是在學習和掌握書面語上更少詞語、語法差別的障礙，在從家鄉話轉到普通話來的換碼過程中幾乎只是轉換語音形式的局部成分。他們能夠不費多大力氣就熟練流暢地說普通話，在口頭上帶家鄉話的口音一般不重，有的甚至很輕；書面運用上很少會出現家鄉話的特殊詞語、語法痕迹。這就是說，家鄉話對于普通話語文本身的掌握所施加的干擾比較小，影響到所學習、掌握的語文內部的程度比較輕微。例如，天津的學生說普通話時，會說得幾乎像北京人說的那樣純正；遠離北京的武漢、南京、瀋陽、成都等地的學生，講起普通話來一般口音也不重。這些北方方言區城市的學生寫成的書面文字，很容易或往往很自然地符合于共同語的規範。但是，北方方言同普通話的相當接近，却給北方方言區的語文教育以較嚴重的外部干擾。表現爲學生走出了課堂，一般就把普通話置于一邊，只使用家鄉話。于是，語文課中所獲得的語言知識，特別是字和詞的正音、文學語言中許多非來自家鄉話口語的詞語、句式及其使用方式等，難以得到鞏固。之所以離開了課堂就使用母方言，很重要的一個原因，在于周圍的人們都聽得懂，不論在說普通話的環境，還是北京話的

或其他北方方言的環境，自己說的母方言都可以被交際的對方所接受。沒有交際困難的壓力，一般就不想改變自小使用母方言的習慣，何況一改腔還可能討厭或被嘲笑。

就整個北方方言區語文教育的總體來說，方言給予的外部干擾是比較突出的。學生在學期間，平時不說普通話，離校進入社會工作後就依樣不愛說甚至更加疏遠普通話；如果不是從事語文或人文科學的工作，他們離校後的語文知識素養就還有可能日益降低。可以看出，方言的外部干擾所產生的不良影響相當大。它不僅削弱語文教育的效果，而且也成了普通話不易在北方方言區較快推廣的一個基本原因。

南方方言區的語文教育，受到方言的內部干擾比較突出。一般而論，在受過幾年語文教育之後，這個區域的高小學生和中學生不僅能大體上說普通話，而且在須用的時候，在與操北方方言或普通話的人交際的場合，都自覺地說普通話。在北方方言區的城鎮里，從南方方言區來的學生和學生出身的人，如果用母方言同當地周圍的人說話，必然會讓對方聽不懂，因而他們都開腔說普通話，雖然說得並不純正和流暢。可見，必須操用或有必要學會普通話的壓力，使南方方言的外部干擾沒有北方方言那麼嚴重。但是相對之下，內部干擾的不良影響卻比較大，比較明顯。表現在，南方方言區學生說的普通話一般帶有濃厚的口音，無論在口頭上還是書面上都有方言詞語的輸入或印迹，有的甚至摻上方言的語法結構。

普通話在各地說者的使用中，特別在口頭使用上，很自然地會受到各自母方言習慣的強烈影響，摻進母方言的不少成分，尤其是語音的成分。這樣，形成了普通話的種種地域性變異(4)，就是形形式式的"藍青官話"(5)。而南方方言區的"藍青官話"帶有的方言影響相當重，方言印迹很多，很顯著，與普通話規範的差距比北方方言區的藍青官話大得多。湖南、福建、廣東、海南等省區及江西中南部、浙江南部等地的學生，所說的普通話一般相當差勁；教他們語文課的本地老師們，情形也好不了多少。這樣的藍青官話，實在只能勉強地列進普通話的範圍（或者說，處于普通話範圍的邊緣）；從用語習慣轉變的角度來看，像有的學者說的，只是一種"過渡話"(6)。而對于普通話口頭上掌握的水平如此之低，會大大影響書面語的學習；書面語的教學不能在口語教學良好效果的基礎上進行，也無法事半功倍地取得成效(7)。因此，同普通話標準相去甚遠的藍青官話的產生和存在，表明了南方方言直接地嚴重干擾普通話語文的教和學。

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(4) 參見陳原《社會語言學》，218頁，1983年，學林出版社。

(5) 藍青官話指種種不地道的、走樣兒的官話。但它大致就是布龍菲爾德 (L. Bloomfield) 所提的次標準語 (sub-standard language)（見其所著 Language，185頁，1935年英國版）。

(6) 陳建民《文化語言學說略》，見《語文導報》1987年第6期，15頁。

(7) 參見呂叔湘《漢語研究工作者的當前任務》，《中國語文》1961年1月號3頁。

具體一些說，語音方面的明顯干擾主要表現在聲母、韻母上。普通話的四個聲調，南方方言區的學生都能大體把調值唸準確。但是方言中某些不同于普通話的聲母、韻母發音，卻移到普通話相應的或接近的聲母、韻母上。例如，湖南長沙的學生把“湖、狐、灰、昏、荒、橫、宦”等的x聲母唸成f，把“犁、旅、雷、賴、藍、鷺、卵、爛、連、淋、烈”等的l聲母唸成n，把“娘、槍、鋼、亮、燈、能、鄧、蒸、升、冷、更、請、京、聲”等的ŋ韻尾唸成n。福建廈門的學生往往把“麻、埋、眉、蠻、忙、密、木”等的m聲母唸成b，把“人、任、然、燃、染、柔、汝、熱、日”等的ʂ聲母唸成l，把“三、今、金、臨、山、前、銀、根、星、燈、曾”等帶鼻輔音韻尾的韻母唸成無韻尾的鼻化韻。廣州的學生用半元音j來唸普通話的ʂ聲母，給“岸、熬、傲、我、餓、臥、牙、涯”等零聲母字添上ŋ聲母，把“這、者、折、蔗、遮、奢、賒、捨、涉、社、射、攝、設”等的ə韻母唸成iɛ，把“哥、科、棵、窠、珂、可、河、何、賀”等的ɤ韻母唸成ɔ。粵方言、客家方言、閩南方言的齒音聲母只有一套ts、ts'、s（粵、客個別地方話另有ʂ），這些方言地區的學生就唸不出捲舌音聲母，無意識地用ts、ts'、s或某種舌面前、中的塞音、塞擦音、擦音分別替代它們。粵方言的ts、ts'、s其實有點舌面化而近于tʃ、tʃ'、ʃ，因而粵方言區的學生唸普通話的ts、ts'、s聲母和tɕ、tɕ'、ɕ聲母，也走了樣兒。

各種南方方言都沒有普通話的兒化韻，絕大多數也沒有普通話合成詞中的輕聲，因此南方方言區的學生以及學校出身的人通常唸不出兒化韻，把合成詞的輕聲音節都加以重讀並拖長。“冰棍兒” piŋ^{55}kuɚ^{51}說成“冰棍” piŋ^{55}kuən^{51}，“鴨子兒”ia^{51}tsɿɚ'^{214}說成“鴨子” ia^{51}tsɿ^{214}；“火燒” xuo^{214}·shao^{3}（燒餅）說成xuo^{214}shau^{55}，“東西”tuŋ^{55}·ɕi^{2}（事物）說成tuŋ^{55} ɕi^{55}。大量口語詞帶兒化韻，大量合成詞中有輕聲詞素，都是普通話口語的重要特點；南方方言區的學生在家鄉話的語音干擾下，說不出而且歪曲表現這樣的特點，說的普通話固然“生硬”難聽，有時甚至會鬧出笑話或引起誤解。與此同時，對掌握兒化韻和輕聲的干擾還起了抑制學生學習普通話口語詞語的消極作用。這牽連到並助長了詞彙方面的干擾。

南方方言詞彙和普通話詞彙的差別較大。普通話中相當一部分來自北方方言的口語詞語，由于語音形式對于南方方言區的人來說比較特殊、陌生而難學，或者由于詞語的含義或所指的事物對象比較陌生，爲南方方言區的學生所疏遠甚至排斥，他們很自然地用自己習慣的家鄉話相應詞語或普通話中別的說法來取代這些口語詞語。比如，“腦瓜子”“嘴皮子”“逗趣兒”“窩囊”“拉倒”“裝蒜”“瞎扯”“臉紅脖子粗”之類，他們不說也極少能說；要

表示類似的意思，他們大多分別說成"頭""嘴""引人發笑""不中用""算了""裝假""亂講""滿面漲紅"。這是普通話在南方方言區的學生和知識分子口中，一般說得文縐縐而刻板不活的一個重要原因。口頭上如此，書面寫作上自然也一樣。南方方言區的學生雖然在課本和課外閱讀中接觸了不少現代文學作品，但是一般不會把作品中生動的口語詞語吸收到自己的寫作中。他們的行文因而並非偶然地比較死板，干巴，遠不如北方方言區學生寫得自然、活潑。無疑，在他們的寫作上，語文教育得不到應有的成效。

詞彙的內部干擾，還表現為另一種情形。南方方言獨特的詞語比較多，學生們往往有意無意間把自己用慣的這類獨特詞語帶進普通話裡，尤其在書面文字中更顯突出。粵方言區的學生表現得最甚，諸如"靚（漂亮）""叻（能幹）""架勢（了不起）""嘈（鬧）""揸頸（受氣，受制）""攞寀（討便宜）""擁板（牆壁）""屋企（家裡）""鋪頭（商店）""事頭（店主）""伯爺公（老頭兒）""恤衫（襯衣）""士担（郵票）""士的（拐杖）"之類，常可見于他們的文字習作。這一來不符合普通話的詞語規範，顯得怪誕不經，二來也自然不可能掌握好普通話詞語，難以使個人的普通話語彙豐富起來。至于畢業後到社會上工作，在書寫的事務文字或發表的文章、報道中繼續表現出這種愛用方言詞語的習慣，那就更產生不利于共同語規範化的社會影響。

語法的內部干擾，在某些地區也是存在的。例如廣州的學生在講話和寫作中，都常會出現副詞"先"置于謂語動詞之後以及間接賓語置于直接賓語之後的說法，這不是普通話的句法結構，而是廣州方言的句法結構套用到普通話的詞語組合上來。母方言某些特殊的語法習慣，使廣州學生掌握不好普通話的句法，至少不能很快正確、熟練地掌握。不過廣州話以及其他南方方言，在語法方面和普通話畢竟相同之處較多，也較為主要，南方方言區的語文教育受到語法的內部干擾比較輕，而且有局部性而不普遍。

總起來看，南方方言給語文教育的內部干擾是明顯地大量發生的現象。其後果，不僅學生口頭上學不好普通話，只能說一口"不像樣兒"的藍青官話，而且影響更大的還在于削弱了書面語的學習成效。這是不容忽視的。

（三）

漢語方言的干擾，雖然為一些客觀因素所決定而不可避免，但是只要認清事實，採取治本的辦法，完全能抑制其產生或大大降低其程度，盡量縮小其破壞作用。

不同類型的干擾，對付的辦法、措施應有所不同。

要抑制或減少方言的外部干擾，首先須憑靠正確的語言政策和社會規範的約束力量。中國政府三十多年前制定並隨即在社會上推行的大力推廣

普通話和實現現代漢語規範化的政策，對在學校中樹立普通話的崇高地位，初步培養起講求用語規範的風氣，起了很大作用。進一步使在學校中提倡使用普通話以及規定普通話是教學語言（特別是在語文課中），有一個強有力的依據。但是僅有這樣的政策是不夠的。

由于不能在社會上禁止使用方言，不能用行政命令消滅方言，各種漢語方言還將長期在社會上流行下去。而學校與社會、與作爲社會細胞的家庭又息息相通，在語言使用習慣上相互間並沒有屏障。因此，政策上還須對普通話的作用或應用範圍作具體的正面規定，而教學中也要採取有效的辦法，以使學生願學、願說普通話並逐步養成說普通話的習慣。

1986年在北京先後召開的全國語言文字工作會議和"七五"期間語言文字工作規劃會議，明確提出要積極普及普通話，確定到本世紀末在全國範圍內使普通話成爲教學語言、工作語言、宣傳語言和公共場合的交際語言(8)。隨着語言政策這種新的規定在社會上的貫徹執行，一定能在應當說普通話上給學生以相當大的社會壓力；而社會上普及普通話一旦蔚爲風氣，也會給學生隨意使用母方言以強有力的約束。

但是，要使這種壓力和約束力轉變爲說普通話的現實動力，還有賴語文教學採取如下一些必要的措施。

首先，要使學生十分明確所學語言——目標語的功能。教師應該在課堂中強調，不僅普通話的書面語是文化、科學的重要工具和各種社會工作的必要手段，因而需要學好；普通話的口語也是集體工作、集會、公衆的文化體育活動和其他社交場合中正式的、最適宜的交際工具，是國內各民族之間的共同交際語，必須也同樣掌握好。有必要讓學生懂得，如果不全面掌握好普通話的書面語和口語，將會嚴重影響他在社會生活許多方面中的行動。學生要是很明確，他的語文課整個學習過程，"是在作好準備，以便爲了一定的目的，以一定的身份，在一定的場合使用所學語言"(9)，他就會積極學習普通話口語，願意開口說並且多多去說普通話。

其次，教師應當要求和鼓勵學生盡量多地用普通話作口頭交際，並給他們創造進行這種交際的良好條件。只有把目標語用于口頭交際的實踐，才能以一種相反的力量克服慣用方言的"地方根性"（provincialism）(10)。語文教學盡可結合課文知識，穿插安排種種口頭應用普通話的訓練活動，

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(8) 分別見《中國語文》1986年第2期和《語文建設》1986年第6期上有兩個會議的有關報道。

(9) 皮特·科德《應用語言學導論》漢譯本，11頁。

(10) 參見德·索緒爾（F. De Sausure）的Course in General Linguistics，英譯本，205—206頁，1960年英國版。

諸如課堂內同教師的對答、學生互相答問、討論會、朗誦會、演講比賽、話劇和相聲表演、座談作品讀後心得、收聽廣播或觀看電視劇後複述基本內容，等等。如果帶領學生參觀應用普通話較多的文化機關社團如廣播電台、電視台、電影廠、劇團之類，訪問播音員、演員等普通話說得很好的人士，也必然會有良好效果。

再次，有一種有助於培養口語習慣而一向未被注意的辦法，也可以採用。它是利用一般思維同語言密切結合的原理，讓學生用普通話進行思維活動，並逐步形成習慣。思維活動是憑藉無聲的內部言語來進行的，而說話時思維活動的內部言語會很自然地轉換爲由同一語言符號體系所產生爲的有聲言語。如果說的有聲言語要使用一種較不熟悉的、不同於內部言語所用的語言符號，這其間所須進行的換碼過程就使有聲言語說起來很不方便迅捷，說的話語不可能流暢、生動。因此，只有讓學生經常用普通話來進行思維活動，普通話才能在他們身上植根，他們才會習慣於而且樂於口說普通話。要讓他們做到這一點，自然須向他們講清這帶來的好處，更重要的是須採取一些利於檢查和訓練的方法。例如在很短時間內默讀一段詩文，緊接着仍用普通話盡量背誦出來或講出大意，或者默讀劇本或相聲作品若干頁，仍用普通話背出其中最感人、最有趣的語句，這樣的做法是會行之有效的。關鍵之處是學生須自覺地、誠實地確實用普通話去默讀，而且要有毅力強迫自己改變用母方言默讀的習慣。如果進一步能夠堅持用普通話默讀小說等長篇作品，那麼以普通話進行思維就能最終習慣下來。

要抑制或減少漢語方言的內部干擾，主要靠語文課教學挖掘自身的潛力，從教學內容和教學方法兩方面設計出有效的辦法。這裡一個很重要的原則，是須要針對母方言最易給目標語學習者帶來習慣影響的部分以及學生感到普通話難學好的部分，來組織教學內容和確定教學方法。比如在北方方言區，主要須突出聲調的教學，多作母方言與普通話的聲調對比，讓學生掌握兩種話在聲調上的規律對應，多糾正學生朗讀時出現的調值偏差。在南方方言區，語音教學的重點應是掌握普通話的三套齒音聲母、兒化韻、輕聲，以及克服母方言異於普通話的聲母、韻母的影響；另外，普通話口語詞的掌握及母方言特殊詞語向普通話的改換，也應突出爲重點。這是共同所在；南方不同方言的流行區裡，各自還有一些特殊之處。以粵方言代表地點廣州市爲例，這個地方除了突出三套齒音聲母尤其是捲舌音的教學和重點抓兒化、輕聲之外，須着重克服聲母 j、ŋ、v 和韻母 œ、œy、ɔ、ɔi、ɐi、ɐu、iɛ 等所帶來的影響，要把廣州方言的大量特殊詞語同普通話的相應說法作比較，特別留意消除把方言詞語尤其是英語借詞搬到普通話裡來的現象。此外，爲了糾正語句裏來自廣州方言的不規範的句法，可將廣州方言一些特殊句法現象同普通話句法作有趣的對比。

對于南方方言區的學生來說・普通話同他們的母方言差別很大・可說是皮特・科德(S. Pit Corder)所認爲的"第二語言"[11]。雖然不等于一種外語・但學好它的困難程度是接近于學好一種外語的。加以普通話同母方言之間又有許多類似的、同源而相近的成分・比外語還更易摻進母方言的大量成分。因此外語教學中爲正確掌握外語和克服母語影響的有效方法・大體上也可以爲南方方言區的漢語教學所用。這其中・特別是強調聽和說的訓練具有重大的意義。讓學生經常仔細收聽普通話的播音・勤作聽述和字母拼音的聽寫練習・勤作對話和朗讀等・對克服母方言的內部干擾・是能起良好作用的。

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[11] 皮特・科德《應用語言學導論》漢譯本・11頁。

EXPLOITING THE MICROCOMPUTER IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE WRITING INSTRUCTIONS

Frances Leung

Introduction

The microcomputer has permeated education abroad. It has come into classrooms of various subjects, including the language classroom. In Hong Kong, the use of computer in education is also becoming widespread. As far as the author knows, computer-assisted instruction in English language teaching at the tertiary level is so far only carried out systematically in the Department of Languages, Polytechnic of Hong Kong, and the English Language Teaching (ELT) Unit of the Chinese University of Hong Kong in which the author works. This article reviews the author and three colleagues' experience in incorporating the computer into our English writing instructions.

Background Information

The English Language Teaching Unit of the Chinese University of Hong Kong provides two levels of communication skill courses to about 3 000 students every year. One is the compulsory faculty-based general English course for most freshmen; the other is a set of elective courses of more concentrated communication skills such as writing, reading, speaking, listening, business communications, etc. The Writing Skills course into which we integrate the computer is one of the elective courses. In the autumn of 1985, we were given funds by the University to purchase six IBM-compatible personal computers and three printers along with space to house all this hardware. The purpose is to enable computer applications in language teaching in our Writing Skills course. At the initial stage, we plan to teach our writing students to exploit a word processing program as a helpful writing tool. Eventually we hope to introduce computer-assisted instruction materials in class. In September 1985, we selected approximately two hundred undergraduates, who were taking our Writing Skills course, to participate in the pilot project and decided to only use the word-processing capabilities of the personal to start with. We encouraged this group of undergraduates to do all their written work on the word-processor.

We hypothesised that if our students were given the opportunity to use the computer to write, they would be better motivated and would spend more time in revising and editing their English written assignments, which would hopefully lead to more accurate and refined writing. With this purpose in mind, we gave our students a user-friendly program which can be actually used after four hours of hands-on lessons.

A Review of Our Teaching Experience

After teaching students word-processing skills for two semesters, we made the following observations.

1. Have more than one student at a machine. Students feel less intimidated if they have a peer to talk to during computer lessons, which reduces alienation and depersonalisation to the minimum. Two is the ideal number per computer because it allows for optimum student practice and exchange.
2. Encourage the students to use Cantonese to talk and help one another. In fact, Cantonese was used as the medium of instruction in computer lessons although the course is an English language proficiency course.
3. When explaining computer functions, try to relate them to students' conventional writing experience. For example, translate the computer functions into the language of writing with pen and paper: save typed material by "scratching" it onto a diskette for actual retention just like we do on paper.
4. Computer lessons are best conducted in discovery or inductive mode. As each command is introduced, have students perform the operation right away and see for themselves the actual effect by noting the contexts both before and after the command is used.
5. Do not overwhelm students with too many functions of the word processing software in the introductory lessons. Just teach the operation essentials that will enable students to use the computer to finish assignments, but then ensure that an experienced consultant is on duty in the computer room during practice sessions so that students can ask questions and extend their skills when they are actually using the computer to write. Our experience shows that it takes a student approximately four hours to acquire enough basic operational skills required for their undergraduate written assignments.
6. After the initial training, students have to practice a lot to reach the threshold level necessary to fully exploit the computer in pre-writing, writing, editing and revising. And they need to adopt and adapt the new working mode to fit their conventional writing habits.

Results of One Year

After two semesters, approximately two hundred students had computer training and used the microcomputer to finish written assignments. The preliminary results are favourable:

1. Most students welcome the opportunity to use the computer as a writing tool. In fact, our computer laboratory is now so heavily used that students wait outside the laboratory before it opens in the morning, and we have to usually turn several students out at the end of the day. Occasionally, even staff members have to be bumped because students who have priority for using the computers show up with work to do.

2. As we hypothesised, the microcomputer does lead to better student motivation; students do not usually swarm to our Writing Skills course which has a reputation for requiring a heavier work load than other courses. However, after we introduced the computer, the number of students requesting the course has risen considerably.
3. We have collected hard evidence on the word processor's qualitative effect on student writing; the analysis is now in progress. But for now, those of us involved in this pilot project can at least say that the quality of some students' work has improved in that students who care produced more refined writing. The experience of this one academic year observing 200 second-language learners using the computer and reading their work has convinced us of the benefits of incorporating the word-processor into our writing instructions. An evaluation is now underway.

Future Research Directions

The computer team in the ELT Unit has received funds from the Institute of Social Studies of the Chinese University to study the long-term effects of using computer-assisted instruction in our English writing program. In this two-and-a-half year study we will investigate five broad research questions:

1. How can the personal computer be integrated most effectively into a traditional writing curriculum, considering factors like students' computer background, the amount and nature of computer instruction, and student problems?
2. What are the tasks which a computer might help students to perform more efficiently, accurately and better, and what are the tasks the computer does and does not lend itself to? This would involve the search for commercially produced and public domain computer-assisted instruction software, and the development of in-house software to suit our needs.
3. How does the computer affect students' conventional writing habits in pre-writing, writing, editing and revising? What adaptation do students have to make in order to fully exploit the new mode of writing?
4. How does the new mode of writing affect the quality of student writing, in terms of idea arrangement, grammatical accuracy and style?
5. How should English writing curricula be established which have the micro-computer as a central instructional tool? There are many types of formal writing tasks which have standard formats. The drudgery of working within these formats can be in part relieved through the use of the computer. The author has in fact just pioneered a course on the computerised research paper and a review is now in progress.

So far we have collected some preliminary findings pertaining to the above five research question. We hope to answer as much as possible the

409

questions by analysing the findings so that the most effective place for the computer in our ESL writing curriculum can be found.

Conclusion

The applications of the computer to language teaching are very useful, and the instructional possibilities of the personal computer could go well beyond word-processing capabilities. This article has only touched on our small scale experience in introducing the word processor into our writing class and the early results so far. As mentioned earlier, we still have to analyse research findings in order to fully exploit the word processor in our writing instructions. We certainly do not claim that the word processor is a cure-all and necessarily leads to good writing, but it can indeed facilitate the essential processes of the preparation of well-written text, especially in editing and revising. This is, of course, not to mention the fact that the word processor is rapidly becoming an essential tool rather than a luxury for any one who has to deal with words. For this reason, it deserves an important role in the ESL writing curriculum.

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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE CRITERIA WHICH A GROUP OF HONG KONG AND MACAU STUDENTS OR ENGLISH LIST AS THOSE WHICH MAKE A GOOD TEACHER

Carol Maclennan

Introduction and Statement of Problem

Attempts to determine which criteria may contribute most significantly to effective teaching and may thus help to promote effective learning, have generated much research[1]. The justification for the present study stems from the possibility that psychological barriers to learning may be set up when the expectations of the student are not perceived as having been met by the teacher and the programme s/he has set up. As Brumfit and Roberts point out

> What seems to underlie certain new approaches is the idea that learning a foreign language is almost more than anything else, a question of overcoming psychological inhibitions, and emotional problems so that one can bring one's inherent intellectual resources fully into play.[2]

Quoting Henner-Stanchina and Riley (1978)[3], Richards and Rodgers write that

> There is thus, an acknowledgement, in some accounts of Communicative Language Teaching that learners bring preconceptions of what teaching and learning should be like. These constitute a "set" for learning which when unrealised can lead to learner confusion and resentment.[4]

These writers continue by pointing out that many students have preconceived ideas, for example, that the teacher is their primary source of interaction and they may be unhappy to find that in some communicative language teaching classes they are required to interact mainly with each other. Another preconception may be that the teacher should collect in, mark, and allocate a grade to all work that is assigned to students. In Communicative Language Teaching classes students may be upset to find that they are sometimes required to mark each others' work or even their own, and that the teacher does not always collect in everything that they are asked to do.

In his article on teaching in Mainland China, Alan Maley[5], points out several discrepancies in the interpretation of key words between foreign teachers and their Chinese colleagues, hosts and students. He notes, for example, that the following concepts; teacher training, literature, E.S.P., book, reading and test, are all used in very different ways and have very different meanings for mainland Chinese people and native speaking, teachers of English. Most Chinese institutions involved in teaching, Maley indicates, regard teacher training merely as "language improvement," therefore someone who simply "knows" MORE English is regarded as being better trained and more qualified to teach than a teacher who "knows" less. No concepts of "methodology, classroom observation, material trials and development," the setting of aims and objectives, or anything beyond fairly crude forms of evaluation, which are important to foreign teachers, seem to be included in the mainland Chinese view of teacher training.

Maley argues that the two views are almost irreconcilable and calls attention to the fact that "Chinese students and foreign teachers rarely share the same views on the nature of the teaching process." He goes on to outline how memory-based learning is most widely accepted and, even today is regarded as the most effective, if not the only, method of learning. Although, clearly, there are many differences between the system of education which has developed in the Mainland and that which is currently practised in Hong Kong, nevertheless, as Maley points out with reference to the use of tests, it is not only in the Mainland that misunderstandings arise over the use of these words.

This study attempts to discover (*a*) if there are likely to be discrepancies between students' expectations and the classroom situation, and (*b*) to check out three of Maley's points in relation to Hong Kong and Macau students. These are students' perceptions of the functions of (*a*) teacher training, (*b*) testing and (*c*) reading literature. Differences in definition and/or interpretation of these words and the concepts they stand for, are also likely to prevent students expectations from being fulfilled, thus setting up barriers to learning.

The Hypothesis

It was hypothesised that criteria listed by groups of Hong Kong and Macau students of English, as those they regard as being characteristic of a "good" or effective teacher, would indicate the likelihood of there being important differences between students' perceptions of the processes of learning and teaching English as a foreign language, and those advocated by a Communicative Language approach.

Subjects

92 subjects were drawn from pre-university summer courses taught at the University of East Asia, Macau, during July and August of 1987. One set of data was incomplete and had to be eliminated. This left 46 male and 45 famale subjects aged between 16 and 28 years. The length of time they had been learning English ranged from one year of study to 16 years.

Methodology

The study was divided into three parts. On the first day of the course, after a placement test which streamed the subjects into three groups, they were asked to respond to the following questions.

1. WHAT CRITERIA DO YOU THINK MAKE A "GOOD" TEACHER?

2. WHAT DO YOU THINK THE ROLE/JOB OF THE TEACHER INVOLVES?
3. WHAT BEHAVIOURS/ACTIONS DO YOU EXPECT FROM A "GOOD" TEACHER?

One week later a further short multi-choice questionnaire was administered to the same groups of subjects and at the end of the course they were asked to fill in an evaluation sheet, this last will not be discussed further in this paper.

Results

1. *The Questions*

The responses to the first set of questions, on the criteria which subjects think make a good teacher, fell into three fairly distinct categories. These may be termed, the affective, the moral and the theoretical/methodological. Items such as "patient," "gentle," "Kind," make up the first category. "Punctual," "hard-working," "honest," fall into the second, while "competent in teaching," "well organised," "wide Knowledge," were allocated to the third because they seemed to indicate some understanding of the wider practical and conceptual perspectives of the teacher's role.

The initial question, WHAT CRITERIA DO YOU THINK MAKE A GOOD TEACHER? elicited the following responses.

Table 1-1

Group	*Affective*	*Moral*	*Th/M*	*Total*
A	95	79	16	190
B	98	91	16	205
C	28	36	15	79
D	58	77	19	154
E	44	49	13	106
	323	332	79	734

Most responses can be classified as affective or moral, 323 and 332 respectively, while only 79 responses could be categorised, even loosely, as having a theoretical/methodological orientation. This outcome lends some support to the view that students may have expectations of their language classes which are not entirely appropriate to the learning situation. When these are not met they may generate feelings of confusion or resentment which, in effect, create psychological barriers to further learning.

What seems to be important here, is that students expectations of teachers and lecturers are centred on affective and moral qualities and behaviours, whereas teachers and lecturers, while not neglecting these aspects of their role, are far more likely to be focusing their attention on practical theoretical and methodological dimensions. Although, as Gagne[6], points out, the critical effects of human models cannot be ignored, even if the learner's initial predisposition towards the teacher is positive, this may be undermined, reduced and even eliminated as a consequence of the attitudes the learners develop incidentally and fail to examine.

2. *The Questionnaries*

Turning now to the questionnaries,[7] I will discuss only a few of the most interesting responses. The final group totals of combined male and female subjects for questions 2, 3, 8, 9, and 12 provide evidence which appears to support the major hypothesis of this study. This is that the perceptions Chinese students of English in Hong Kong and Macau have of the characteristics and behaviours which make a "good" or effective teacher may not be in accord with those which underpin communicative language teaching programmes.

If we look now at the individual questions it is seen that subjects ratings for question 1, do not directly support the hypothesis for that question; this was that "KNOWING MORE ENGLISH IS A MORE IMPORTANT CONTRIBUTION TO MAKING A "GOOD" TEACHER THAN TEACHER TRAINING." The subjects indicated that "having been trained to teach" was the most important response here, with "knowing the most English" as the second most important asset of the teacher.

Table 2-1

Q.1. A GOOD TEACHER IS ONE WHO ...

		Ranking	
	Male	*Female*	*Combined*
A. Knows the most English	2	2	2
B. Has been trained to teach	1	1	1
C. Is a Native speaker	4	3	3
D. Knows the most grammar	3	4	4

The combined male groups state that D, "knowing the most grammar" is more important than C, "being a native speaker," while the combined female groups reverse this order, reflecting the combined totals in their third and fourth choices. These responses appear to suggest that students in the Hong Kong and Macau area have a broader concept of teacher "training" than their mainland counterparts and that they may also have a different approach to the effects of such teacher education on teacher behaviour. However the possibility that subjects were responding as they thought the researcher wanted, cannot be ruled out here.

The responses to question 2, for which the hypothesis was that subjects would indicate that the teacher is the main source of attention in the classroom, positively support this. All combined groups unanimously rated interaction with the teacher as students' principal focus of attention. Item C, "listening to the teacher" was seen as the most important function for students, with item A, "communicating with the teacher alone" as a close second.

Table 2-2

Q.2. IT IS MOST IMPORTANT FOR A STUDENT TO . . .

	Ranking		
	Male	*Female*	*Combined*
A. Communicate with the teacher alone in class	2	2	2
B. talk to many other students	3	3	3
C. listen to the teacher in class	1	1	1
D. Work with a partner	4	4	4

These responses, contrasted as they are with the low ratings subjects give to items B and D, interacting with other students, suggest that their understanding of the aims of the communicative approach to TEFL are likely to be limited, and even inadequate for successful study by this method. Programmes of the communicative type attempt to maximise the amount of time students spend actually using the target language, and this can only be done effectively by having students working and communicating with each other. From their responses to this question it would seem that the subjects in this study are unaware of the reasons for using each other as resources or of the validity of the practice. Such a view is upheld by the ratings allocated by subjects to question 3. Here the hypothesis, that subjects will indicate that teachers (and teachers alone) should mark all students' work, was borne out. The combined totals on this question reflect closely the individual totals for each group.

Table 2-3

Q.3. A GOOD TEACHER . . .

	Ranking		
	Male	*Female*	*Combined*
A. Never lets students mark each others work	2	4	2
B. Must grade all subjects work	1	1	1
C. does not need to mark everything S's are asked to do	4	3	4
D. Never late S's mark their own work	3	2	3

Most subjects, in fact, indicate that they consider a good teacher must mark all the work students produce, a position which conflicts with both the practice of communicative language teaching and the theory on which it is based. Once more the highest rated item, B, "a good teacher must grade all students' work," indicated that these subjects hold a somewhat traditional view of the teaching and learning processes, and are, perhaps, not aware of the range of varied purposes for which students are given tasks and assignments, particularly in communicative language programmes. The limited view these subjects have of the aims of classroom interaction is further emphasised by their other responses to this question, which however, were not unanimous as was their first rating, item B.

Never letting students mark each others' work was regarded as second in importance by the combined male groups and the combined male and female groups, with this being considered of least importance by combined female groups who place D—never allowing students to mark their own work, in second place. These responses once more suggest a fairly authoritarian, structured approach to the classroom with students expecting to have very little autonomy in relation to their learning.

The next set of results to be examined are those for question 8. The items in this and the following four questions, were, like question 1, based on Alan Maley's article already referred to. Here it was hypothesised that "the development of critical judgement is not perceived as a major reason for subjects to read literature (fiction)." The responses to this question not only support the hypothesis, but also tend to support Maley's comments on the matter. Maley writes that courses of English literature taught at most Mainland Chinese universities are survey-type courses which give an overview of the field along with "the study of short extracts from approved authors."[8] These are courses which look at the end product while the Western/foreign approach to literature teaching, on the other hand, focuses on the process and aims to provide the student with a set of tools to develop critical judgement.

All groups in the present study rated reading literature "to develop critical judgement" as its least important function.

Table 2-8

Q.8. YOU READ LITERATURE (FICTION) TO . . .

		Ranking	
	Male	*Female*	*Combined*
A. develop critical judgement	4	4	4
B. enjoy the story	3	3	3
C. widen your ideas about other cultures	1	1	1
D. learn more English	2	2	2

The most highly rated response was 8C,—that subjects read literature to widen their ideas about other cultures. This response tends to reflect Maley's comment on the "product" approach to literature teaching, by suggesting that the subjects in this study believe that an overview of the culture can be acquired by surveying the important periods in English literature and becoming familiar with major writers, and that such concerns are the main aims of reading literature.

Once more it is possible that some subjects answered this question in terms of what they believed the researcher might regard as "the correct" answer, rather than stating what they actually do in terms of their fiction reading. Item D—reading literature "to learn more English" was ranked second, which, given the difficulties language learners often have with reading fiction in English, is an objective which many students may often resign themselves to. As a result of their preoccupation with vocabulary and their high dependence on dictionaries rather than using the context to decode meaning, it is likely that they often find it almost impossible to adhere to the story-line and so settle for using fiction as a vocabulary building exercise. The hypothesis for question 9 was that "students would indicate that they regard tests as necessary or essential and that they do not consider testing may be over used. This was borne out by the results, with only one male group deviating from the group totals. This group's responses were rather strange, as having ranker B—"tests are essential" as their first choice, they rate "tests are necessary" as their last, after "useful" and "used too often."

Table 2-9

Q.9. TESTS ARE . . .

		Ranking	
	Male	*Female*	*Combined*
A. necessary	1	2	1
B. essential	3	3	3
C. useful	2	1	2
D. used too often	4	4	4

The Male/Female totals in this question, as can be seen from the above table, also do not agree. Males ranked tests "necessary" as their first choice, while females ranked them as only "useful." It seems likely, however, that while they complain, often vociferously, about tests, most subjects, like most Chinese students, accept classroom testing as inevitable. In fact the position of English on the hierarchy of disciplines has a low status in the eyes of many students, partly because of the "low university entry requirement for English . . . in an exam driven society,"[9] especially since most other subjects, like economics, accounting and business studies, for example, test students very frequently. Students are encouraged to take these tests very seriously even when they contribute very little either to the students' overall learning or to their final results.

Maley calls attention to the misunderstandings with which the testing areas is beset, commenting that acting as a vehicle for the passing or failing of students is its main function in Mainland China. This position was not borne out by subjects responses to question 10 as was hypothesised. Subjects place B—the mastery-type function of testing, highest, with C—the progress and achievement function, second, A—the competitive/ranking aspect third and D—the pass/fail intention last.

Table 2-10

Q.10. TESTS ARE USED TO . . .

		Ranking	
	Male	*Female*	*Combined*
A. show which s's are the best	3	3	3
B. show how much information s's have learned	1	1	1
C. assess students progress	2	2	2
D tell which s's have passed or failed	4	4	4

These results indicate that Hong Kong and Macau studends are likely to have a more sophisticated approach to the testing process than that of the Mainland groups which Maley writes of. This would of course reflect the professional and institutional differences in the uses of testing in the two areas.

The hypothesis for question 11 was that subjects would rate items A and B which refer to the affective/moral qualities of the teacher, more highly than item C—related to teachers' training and experience or item D—a distracter related to traditional teaching. This, however, was not the case. There was almost unanimous agreement that being well trained and experienced was the most important indicator of a "good" teacher. Only one female group varied from this, indicating that the affective aspect "being kind and friendly" was what they looked for in a good teacher. This response came second, before the moral-type item, in all other groups, but one other female groups reversed the latter order.

Table 2-11

Q.11. A GOOD TEACHER SHOULD BE . . .

		Ranking	
	Male	*Female*	*Combined*
A. kind and friendly	2	2	2
B. punctual and hard working	3	3	3
C. well trained and experienced	1	1	1
D. prepared to follow the text book carefully and give lots of homework	4	4	4

The results for the final question of this type question 12, are interesting in view of the high place given to teacher training in the responses to questions 10 and 1. The responses to this question reverse the previously recorded order and place "having a trained teacher's certificate" as lowest on the scale of priorities. Clearly this could indicate a sophisticated approach to the question which makes a distinction between simply holding a certificate and actually being able to use the professional knowledge it represents, expertly. This interpretation is unlikely in this instance as the responses to question 1 indicate.

The hypothesis, which was almost the same as the one for the previous question, that subjects would rate C—the affective and A—the moral qualities of the teacher more highly than B—teacher training, and was not supported in question 11, was in fact upheld in this question. All groups here rated "having a trained teachers' certificate" as least important, although they had just, also unanimously, rated it as most important in the previous question.

Table 2-12

Q.12. A GOOD TEACHER SHOULD . . .

		Ranking	
	Male	*Female*	*Combined*
A. be honest and treat s's fairly	1	2	1
B. have a trained teachers' certificate	4	4	4
C. be patient and good tempered	3	1	2
D. use a variety of teaching methods	2	3	3

These anomalies seem to indicate that the subjects are often "hedging their bets," and are trying to second guess the questioner in attempts to provide what they believe will be "correct" answers, even though they were told that being "right" or "wrong" is not an issue here.

Discussion

It appears likely that a discrepancy does exist between the preconceptions and expectations which Hong Kong and Macau students bring to the classroom, and the view of the teaching-learning situation held by teachers using a communicative language approach. The set of expectations students have of teachers, it was hypothesised, would not reflect much understanding of current TEFL theories or practices, but would be based on a mixture of attitudes to education which students have absorbed from their parents, their own past classroom experience, popular social attitudes to the teacher's role generated by the media, along with their current subjective attitudes and emotions.

Although the syllabus for the lower secondary schools in Hong Kong[10], advocates a communicative approach to functional competence, it is possible that the rationale behind this approach, along with the approach itself, is not well known or understood by many Hong Kong students. If this is the case, then students may be sabotaging their own learning by subconsciously developing attitudes towards learning, and expectations of the learning situation, which are unhelpful.

Gagne[11], comments that the fulfilment of an expectation is a powerful factor in the establishment of positive attitudes. On the other hand it is possible that failure to meet students' expectations may therefore generate negative attitudes. When, for example, the teacher's programme, methods, or behaviour don't accord with their expectations students are likely to become confused and even resentful.

Allwright[12], notes that student motivation is a complex concept involving a whole cluster of variables. Family influences and various types of mass media are powerful sources of attitude shaping and change. Attitudes are, of course, central factors in the development of motivation and are, as Gagne[13], emphasises, frequently incidentally learned, therefore there is often no consciously considered rationale behind them. An example of this is the popular song that was enthusiastically received by many young people a few years ago. The message of Pink Floyd's song "we don't need no education/we don't need no thought control," may have been accepted by more than a few adolescents quite uncritically. Powerful media forces appeared to be giving their approval to the "message" of this song. The video which accompanied it portrayed the teacher as an evil indoctrinator while portraying students as innocent victims of his authority. The attitudes to teachers and to the learning process, which this song, given its widespread popularity promoted, are likely to have been adopted fairly uncritically by impressionable young people. Some students may have been influenced quite incidentally to adopt its negative message and hostile position towards education.

In his 1974 study, Allwright[14], points out that the amount of power available to the teacher is likely to be very much less than is generally believed. What teachers can be expected to accept as their responsibilities are seriously limited by the amount of actual power available to them. Allwright comments on the opponents the teacher may have to contend with. Peer group approval in adolescence, for example, is often gained by being seen not to try to learn in class, or by opposing the teacher in other disruptive ways. This of course, is linked to other areas which may detract from, or limit the teacher's power; these are the psychological predispositions of the learner. As Gagne[15], emphasises, the "conditions that form and modify attitudes surround the individual constantly."

Morrow[16], comments that education must be ultimately concerned not just with teaching but also with learning. He continues by noting that one consequence of this is that what happens in the classroom must involve the learners and must be judged in terms of its effects on them. Learning therefore becomes, to a large extent, the responsibility of the learner. This is clearly the case in the communicative language classroom although it is probable that this point is not generally evident to students, who may still believe that learning is something that happens to them simply as a consequence of the teacher's teaching.

In her study "Classroom Interaction and the Second Language Learner," Janet Holmes[17], refers to Willes[18], (1975, 1983) studies into the sociolinguistic rules of the classroom and gives examples which illustrate the importance for pupils of knowing the rules for interacting in the classroom. It is also important, it would seem, for Hong Kong students of English to know and understand the directives in the Communicative language class, and for them to be aware of WHY they are being asked to engage in a particular activity. It is possible and even likely, that such students have few ideas about the purposes or objectives of most tasks set up for them, and they may neither understand, nor may they be informed of, the teacher's objectives and it is probable that they do not set objectives to be met by themselves independently. Because they don't understand the indirect methods of the Communicative Language Teaching Programme, students may consider the activities the teacher sets up as a waste of time, while the teacher of this communicative method will often regard the habitual learning practices of students, based as they often are on rote learning methods, as misguided and unproductive.

The tentative interpretations of this study suggest that further research into student attitudes, perceptions and expectations and their influence on language performance, could produce valuable information about the inhibitions and emotional barriers with which students unconsciously limit their learning.

APPENDIX I

Questionnaire

Name *Age* *M/F* *Yrs English*

Mark 1, for the answer you think most important, 2, for the next most important, 3, for the next, and 4, for the least important.

1. A. Knows the most English
   B. Has been trained to teach
   C. Is a Native speaker
   D. Knows the most grammar.

2. It is most important for student to
   A. communicate with the teacher alone in class
   B. to talk to many other students in class
   C. listen to the teacher in class
   D. to work with a partner

3. A good teacher
   A. Never lets students mark each others work
   B. Must grade all students' work
   C. does not need to mark everything students are asked to do
   D. never lets students mark their own work

4. Of your teacher tells you that something in the text book is wrong would you

A. believe the teacher?
B. believe the book?
C. ask someone else?
D. check the information for yourself at another source?

5. If your teacher makes a mistake would you
A. lose confidence in the teacher?
B. feel doubtful about other information s/he gives you?
C. check all future information carefully
D. feel it is quite reasonable for the teacher to make mistakes?

6. If your teacher says s/he doesn't know the answer to something you have asked would you
A. lose confidence in him or her?
B. consider it quite reasonable for a teacher not to know?
C. tell people your teacher isn't very good?
D. Ask h/h to help you find out?

7. You read a book to
A. learn new vocabulary
B. learn grammar
C. extract specific information
D. to learn as much as you can from it

8. You read literature (fiction) to
A. to develop critical judgement
B. to enjoy the story
C. to widen your ideas about other cultures
D. to learn more English

9. Tests are
A. necessary
B. essential
C. useful
D. used too often

10. Tests are used to
A. show which students are the best
B. show how much information students have learned
C. assess students progress
D. to tell which students have passed and which have failed

11. A good teacher should be
A. kind and friendly
B. punctual and hard working
C. well trained and experienced
D. prepared to follow the text book carefully and give lots of homework

12. A good teacher should
   A. be honest and treat students fairly
   B. have a trained teacher's certificate
   C. be patient and good tempered
   D. use a variety of teaching methods

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BUT YOU CAN DO READING RESEARCH: PROJECTS FOR BOOK FLOOD TEACHERS

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Current research in language acquisition suggests that exposure to language (which is both stimulating and comprehensible while slightly beyond the learner's current proficiency level), can contribute significantly to language development. One way in which this sort of exposure can be provided is through a structured "reading for pleasure" program. A reading for pleasure program typically includes one or more of the following: provision of a very large number of books to read (hence the label "reading flood"), regular timetable slots for silent reading of books which the students have chosen themselves and the use of "Big Books", designed to be read orally by the teacher, but allowing the learners to see what is being read. Big books can, of course, easily be supplemented by smaller versions which may be issued to individual students.

Empirical evidence for the success of reading flood programs comes from a series of evaluation studies carried out in Fiji (e.g. Elley and Mangubhai, 1983; Elley, 1985). In the programs evaluated by Elley and his colleagues, not only did the learners significantly improve their proficiency in English as a Second Language, but the gains appear to have spread to other academic areas as well.

There seem to be at least three compelling reasons why an educational authority might want to develop a reading flood program:

1. As long as the reading materials are interesting and comprehensible (to be understood as "slightly challenging") and both teacher and school support the enterprise, there is a high chance that *learners will improve their second language proficiency*.
2. The demands made on the non-native-speaking teacher are not great, and it is supportive of non-native English teacher by providing a source of native English speaker input.
3. Actively encouraging reading for pleasure as a part of the English course ought to foster the habit of reading for pleasure generally—a long-term goal of many education systems.

Possibly because of the obvious success of the Fiji program, several Southeast Asian countries are now experimenting with, or are already implementing, similar programs: Malaysia (Hill, 1983), Singapore (Ng, 1985) and now Hong Kong (see Appendix).

This paper is aimed at teachers, particularly in Hong Kong, who become involved in a reading flood program. In most curriculum development exercises which are organised by an Education Department or Authority,

425

there is often a considerable delay while external evaluators gather data, interpret them and report on their findings. There is frequently a further delay while the Education Department decides how best to inform teachers of the results. In this sort of situation, the individual class teacher is in a difficult position. On the one hand, a positive, enthusiastic teacher is needed to help motivate the learners; on the other, a delay in receiving feedback about the success of the program can make it hard to maintain one's enthusiasm and confidence. We suggest that one way to maintain your interest and enthusiasm is to set up a small "research" project of your own.

Please note that we are NOT suggesting that you are somehow challenging or replacing any official evaluators. Nor are we suggesting projects which require you to be an expert in research methods and statistics (though collaborating with a colleague who *does* know some statistics would be an excellent idea). As a result of the absence of statistical control, your findings are not likely to be as generalisable or reliable as those of the official evaluators. BUT, and this is an important BUT, you are in a better position than official evaluators on three counts:

1. You have the direct experience of participating in the program at classroom level.
2. You have needs which are specific to yourself and/or your particular institution.
3. You can afford to use your imagination and explore topics which official evaluators would have to regard as "not cost-effective".

Our suggestions are divided roughly into four groups:

1. Studies that examine the effects of the program on language proficiency and use;
2. Studies that examine the effects of the program on reading habits;
3. Studies that examine the development of the teacher's oral reading techniques;
4. Studies that elicit student feedback/evaluation.

The studies cover a broad range of areas and proficiency levels. Although the Hong Kong project is currently only at the secondary level, we have tried to suggest some ideas which could be adapted without great difficulty for use in primary classes, were it to be extended.

A. Studies of the effects of the book flood program on language proficiency and use

1. How do book flood students score on school exams in subjects other than "English"?

   Keith Johnson (University of Hong Kong) (1984?) has suggested that the results of any (or all) of four types of language test could be compared with the results of school "subject" exams:

   a. Tests of reading ability in English.

b. Compositions marked following the procedures adopted by the Hong Kong Examinations Authority. These would function as indicators of writing proficiency.

c. General proficiency tests in English.

d. General proficiency tests in Chinese.

As all similar classes in a book-flood school will be involved in the program, you would have to find an indirect way of establishing whether the book flood had contributed to an increase in "academic subject" scores. Although it is difficult to find a perfect solution, we might suggest the following project.

Unless you have good reason to believe that last year's classes were either exceptionally clever or exceptionally poor, you could use them as a substitute "control" or non-experimental, comparison group. Better still would be to take the average of the last *three* years classes. You could then see whether this year's average 'History', 'Chemistry' or whatever mark differs from the average obtained by students *not* involved in a book flood. If there was any really noticeable increase, you could perhaps go to the subject teachers and try to discover which particular skills the improvement related to. As long as you recognised that the improvement *might* be due to other causes, and not to the effects of the book flood, you would have a good basis for future planning and some detailed ideas about what areas to investigate the following year. As observable differences in grades for History of Chemistry might take two or three years to appear, it would make a lot of sense to set this up at the outset as a three year project. This sounds like a lot of work, but is not in fact, since the subject teachers will be calculating the grades for you.[3]

2. What is the effect of the program on English spelling?

Krashen, in "Power of Reading" (1985) summarizes the effects of attempts to teach literacy "skills" directly and in isolation (Smith 1982, Torrey 1969 and Goodman and Goodman 1982 cited in Krashen 1985). He notes that there is no compelling evidence in first language learners that such efforts are effective. Smith argues against teaching phonics in isolation and demonstrates that the phonics rules are too complex to learn and have too many exceptions. The ability to do phonics is a result of knowing how to read, not its cause. Smith's position is based on many case studies of children (first language learners) who have learned to read without formal instruction (Krashen 1985, 108).

With this in mind, let us now look at spelling lessons in particular. Krashen describes a typical spelling lesson in English:

> In thousands of English classes children are given a list of about twenty words each week. They are to learn their definitions and how to spell them. They may be given the list on Monday and

> tested on the words on Friday. During the week, they do exercises such as using the words in sentences and matching words definitions and synonyms. Those who are "readers" typically know what most of the words mean already, say fifteen or sixteen out of twenty, and can spell fourteen, fifteen of them. They have seen them before . . . The non-readers are not in that position . . . For them, even to even achieve a C—requires a heroic effort. Language arts for them may be nothing more than a test that they fail. And like victims of child abuse, they blame themselves.
>
> Our reaction to such students, more drill and practice, more spelling and vocabulary lists, may simply be making matters worse . . . And the more we drill, the less time students have for what may be the only real cure—reading exposure—and the more we convince them that they will never succeed (Krashen 1985, pp. 108–109).

Will this work in a foreign language environment, when students come to reading for pleasure with a much smaller vocabulary than native-speakers their age? The following is an idea for primary-level book flood programs, but it will take a brave teacher to test this out! In one book flood class you could try suspending spelling lessons, accumulate, weekly, the time normally spent on spelling and use it for silent, free reading. Periodically, spelling tests (the same as are given in other classes) could be given, maybe not every week, but monthly, or every two months. The scores could be charted over the course of the year and could be compared with spelling results from a similar but non-book-flood class.

At the secondary level, where spelling lessons are not common, but dictations are, you could make copies of all dictations before returning them. Then, do not discuss common spelling errors with the class. Using the copies, begin tracking the spelling errors. Then, if possible, compare the progress with another similar but non-book-flood program.

3. Do students begin using the input from stories when they write or orally tell their own stories?

   a. *Openings and Closings*

      If you have some examples of students' written stories you could conduct an informal experiment to see whether the reading of stories and books as part of the book flood program has contributed to an increased ability to write effective opening paragraphs to their short stories. You could check in terms of grammatical errors, but you could also check on the degree to which a dramatic start was used, interesting sentence patterns were exploited, or speech was used as part of the opening sentence. A similar analysis could be made of closings to see whether students begin to write effective closings which have a twist, for example, or whether they begin to adopt the technique of relating the last sentence back to the first one. In primary grades, you could also make notes on openings and closings as used in oral storytelling by students.

Even if you have no comparable data from students not in the book flood program, you could still plot the development, over time of openings and closings. The results would still be of considerable interest. You could also try to relate such phrases back to the openings commonly found in the classroom book collection and used by you in oral story reading (if you are in a primary school program).

b. *Noise Words*

Children's books are full of various types of noise words. Some imitate sounds:

BANG
BOING
BOOM
BRR
CRASH
CRUNCH
DONG
EEK
GRR
MMM
PLONK
SPLASH
SPLAT
THUD
TWANG
WOOF

Others are more objective, detached descriptions which could be done at the early secondary level.

barking
booming
chirping
chirruping
coughing
grating
grinding
froaning
growling
hissing
hooting
howling
moaning
neighing
roaring
rumbling
screaming
screeching
shrieking
snuffling
spitting
spluttering
trumpeting
twittering
warbling
wheezing
whining
whinneying
whirring
yelling
fairy footsteps
a sickening thud

These are just a selection. You will notice that very few such words form part of a standard EFL program. However, a book flood may offer the student a chance of closing the large gap in this sort of area which he/she would otherwise have vis-avis his/her first language equivalent.

At the primary level, it would not be difficult to test for the acquisition of such sounds. You could design a simple pre- and post-test using noise words from book flood materials and check how much improvement there has been. However, it would be even more interesting to see how learners might go about interpreting such noise words. The pre-test could ask them to associate a pitch level with an animal or an animal source with a particular term (e.g., Would they expect to find *lions* or *sparrows roaring*?). Conversely, you could set up a situation (e.g., and elephant that starts out happy but later is hurt, or a car that suffers a crash and will not turn properly afterwards) and ask learners to slot noise terms into a passage or picture series.

c. Talking "Proper"

Children's stories regularly contrast conversational stretches with prose passages. Reading for pleasure should give students a much greater awareness of the differences between conversational and written discursive text. You could study this from many angles, but several simple ways would be to look at the development of one of the following:

(1) Do students begin to develop appropriate conversational expressions ("How's it going? "How's life?" "Whatcha doing?" "All right?" and other such expressions commonly found in their books)?

(2) Do they begin to use contracted forms instead of expanded ones correctly? (e.g., "don't" vs. "do not")[4]

(3) Are they beginning to be able to distinguish conversational stretches in a written text? Are they, for example able to underline conversational-type language? And can they recognise inappropriate conversational language if it were inserted in a written text? To test this you might find a passage which contains some conversation by a child. Remove the child's words and insert the wording that might be used by an adult. Would the student be able recognise that the speech was inappropriate for a child? (They would not have to actually produce an appropriate replacement; it should be remembered that recognition is one stage of language acquisition.) It would be especially interesting to see whether the book flood program might help language development in this respect.

When working on any one of these studies, you should be careful to avoid formally teaching any of these patterns or drawing special attention to them as you are testing for sub-conscious learning of such patterns based on the reading program.

B. Studies that examine the effects of the program on reading habits

1. Do joint reading activities found in some book flood programs have any spin-off effect on the reading habits of the students? More specifically do students begin to:

   a. Read more stories to their brothers and sisters in English or in Chinese for that matter?

b. Help fellow students with their English reading, such as both reading to each other (taking turns); reading whole stories to one another; or telling stories to one another in their own words?

c. Feel less "silly" about talking to one another in English?

Useful answers to these questions could be obtained by talking to the students, observing their behavior in class, and even by using simple questionnaires. However, there is a problem: this might actually encourage joint efforts by suggesting such activities as possibilities. The results might not actually be measuring only the effect of the book flood, though it might have a distinctly positive and beneficial backwash effect!

2. Does the book flood program encourage reading for pleasure outside the classroom, i.e., in the school library?

If you are in a school in which there is a comparable, non-book flood program, the following study could be done. Towards the end of the first year of the program you might ask your school librarian to assist you in determining, from student check-out cards, the frequency of use of the library. Compare this with a similar, but non-book flood class in a neighbouring school if there are no non-book flood classes in your school. If you actually do the counting, the other teacher's permission should be obtained. On the other hand, if the librarian were to do the calculations anonymously for both your class and another, the results might be more acceptable.

If there are no comparable non-book flood classes available you could try the following: The librarian and you could compare students from both groups on their use in the previous year with the current year, once the book flood program has been implemented. Has there been any significant increase in library use that might be attributed to the program?[5] Librarians are interested in increasing the use of their libraries and in promoting reading for pleasure, therefore, they would probably be interested in helping you in such studies.

C. Studies that examine teacher growth in oral reading techniques

How does an inexperienced story-reader/teacher adapt to the oral story reading demands in a book flood program? (This study in particular could easily be adapted for primary grades.)

Not all teachers are natural story readers. Book flood programs, especially those involving "Big Books",[6] and other extensive oral story reading by the teachers may, therefore, be somewhat intimidating to some teachers. If you are one such teacher, rather than becoming nervous about reading dramaticaly aloud, why not decide to get feedback on your reading techniques and chart your own growth?

1. *Work with a colleague*

   Work with a colleague, preferably one in the book flood program if there are others in your school. You and your colleague could listen to each other's story reading: the listening could be done live, in or out of the class, or could be done using a taped version.[7] Try to decide what is good and bad about your techniques and discuss the different ways in which certain stories can be read. Write these down, along with any suggested remedies. Then each of you work on improving your own bad points as you read stories to the children. Finally, meet again after 2–4 weeks. Plot your progress on a particular skill and try to relate it to a record of how the children reacted. You might even consider audiotaping all of your story reading. Not only could it be used when you discuss your story reading with your colleague, but it could also be given to the larger pilot program for use, anonymously in teacher orientation/training workshops.

2. *Get student feedback*

   It would be useful to get feedback from your students on your story reading techniques, but it might be difficult to get it directly. However, you could get them to tell you what like or don't like when someone reads to them either in Chinese or in English. (The discussion could be in the students' first language if their English is not adequate.) You might then reflect on these ideas in terms of your own techniques. You could also ask other colleagues in the book flood program (or outside of the program) to have similar discussions with their students and then pool your results. Such information could be given to teachers new to the book flood program either in your school or city-wide.

D. Studies that elicit student feedback/evaluation

1. What do students like and dislike when stories are read aloud to them? (See C. 2. above)
2. Do students agree with the book selection committee on book choice for the book flood program? And what books do the students especially like?

   Perhaps the first question seems a little impertinent; however, in a book flood program the question is crucial. In this type of program it is assumed that the higher the interest and involvement a learner has in the material, the greater the chance of such language exposure significantly affecting language development. (This is, of course, really relevant to all forms of learning!)

   Teachers and administrator, selecting books of high interest for such a program do this selecting with the very best of intentions and base their decisions, to some extent, on their own work/ parenting experiences of what children particular ages like to react. There is also a tendency for book selectors to, perhaps subconsciously, choose books that they think are "good for the children." And certainly some adult judgment is needed to weed out socially inappropriate materials such as pornography. At times, however, the books that are finally selected are not really ones that are interesting to the learners. It is not unusual for us, as teachers, to have expectations as to what would be interesting for a student. It is hard sometimes for us to really remember what it was like to be younger.

Another potential cause for misfiring in book selection is concern or lack of concern about cultural appropriateness. First, when book selection committees overseas rely on the lists of "best-loved books" in an English-speaking country, sometimes the cultural load is too difficult for independent reading. Will the "Solid Gold" choice by American children be equally popular with children in Hong Kong, Singapore, China, etc.? Or will the culture and the child's general lifestyle *significantly* affect comprehension? (This is not to suggest that books with any cultural differences whatsoever be ruled out.)

There is also the other side of the coin: when book selectors become overly concerned about cultural relevance. Children's minds want and need to travel, to learn about new worlds, new experiences. There have been failures in book selections in reading programs when, for example, only local legends were selected/ developed as readers.[8] Certainly such readers can be a *part* of a book flood collection, but restriction of a collection to only culturally deeply-rooted materials may sometimes cause problems. If, of course, the purpose of reading is to reinforce culture/or if the reading is to be a part of culture program, that is another matter; this, however, is not the primary purpose of the book flood approach. Since high interest reading material is however, critical, it is very important to obtain the students' views of the books already selected (if they had't been asked before) and about future purchases.

Since the program in Hong Kong is at present simply at the pilot stage, it is very important to obtain feedback on student interests now for two reasons:(1) however well designed the program may be, if the materials aren't interesting to the students, this could spell failure for the whole program; and (2) if it is decided that the program should be expanded, the increased investment in books stands a strong chance of being very profitable in terms of growth in language proficiency in English.

The Hong Kong flood program has already instituted a feedback system on books in which students keep a reading log, recording their reactions to each book in terms of reading difficulty and interest.

The following is a suggestion for primary grade flood programs. A simple method of obtaining this feedback is to have students regularly vote on the books as they finish them . . . or as they reject them. Large number of slips of paper with the title from the book collection on them could be duplicated, one title per slip. In each book there could be a library card pocket. You would keep a regular check on that all books had a slip in the pocket. On the top of the bookcase for the book collection, or nearby, you could have three "ballot boxes" for despositing the title slip when finished with the book, or when a book has been rejected. The boxes might be labelled by the class according to a popular music/video rating scale or by the teacher, in order to introduce certain phrases in English. However the labelling is done, the boxes would represent "DIDN'T LIKE," "O.K.," and "GREAT." The slips could be counted regularly, with the votes being entered on a master sheet of all the book titles in the collection. If a book was being read orally by the teacher, "ballots," all for the same title, could be handed out after the reading for the voting. Certainly such feedback doesn't give you details about why the children liked or didn't like a book, but the technique is simple and doesn't become a major chore for the students and the teacher. If you are already into the program by now, you could immediately try to have each child try to recall at least their most favorite books among those they've already read this year. They may need to consult the bookcase to refresh their memories (this in itself is a useful activity).

At both primary and secondary levels students could also report on favorite books in English they've read or that have been read to them outside class. (They are probably less likely to remember the titles of ones they didn't like.) This feedback could then be given to the book flood planners, hopefully in time to make a difference in book selections for the following year.[9]

We are certainly not expecting *each* one of you to rush out now and start doing this kind of research tomorrow (although it would be nice if it happened!), but we do hope a few of you might be interested in trying out some of the questions. No doubt, some of you may think of still other research questions since you are more involved in the book flood program than we are at the moment. We hope that you will be willing to share any interesting results you might find, even if it is just on a small scale, with others. And if you have time to share your results with us, both of us would be most interested in hearing from you. Indeed, we would be glad to correspond with any of you if you have questions about the projects you are interested in trying. We hope some of you will develop a "high interest" in some of these ideas, but more important, we hope that your students will develop a high interest in reading for pleasure!

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Note

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2. If you are interested in the application of this type of program in an English for Specific Purposes syllabus, see van Naerssen, 1985.
3. If you have access to a calculator, a small computer, or best of all, a Maths teacher, you could go one better than the above and see whether the flood was causing a change in the *general pattern* of relationships between English and selected subjects. If you think about it, any gains deriving from the flood are likely to set up 'circular' relationships. To illustrate this, let us imagine Student X, who is taking part in the flood, starts to find it easier to understand his History textbook. As a result, there are fewer unknown expressions, in the text, and it becomes far more feasible than before to look them up in a dictionary. The words looked up might well recur, however, in book-flood books, making them in turn easier to read. Similarly, things covered in English classes might also help the reader understand the book-flood books better. It is also possible that the flood *might* make it easier to transfer some skills from English classes to History, or vice versa.

   If you are friendly with a Maths teacher, you could ask him or her to use what is called Path Analysis to draw a "map" of these effects, to establish what is affecting what. You could repeat this from year to year and see if the pattern changed (and how), as students moved from a "no-flood" state to "starting flood" and then "well into flood" ones.

   If you prefer to work alone, you could easily do a far simpler version of this, and just examine the correlations between your English tests and History, Chemistry, etc. grades, over a period of two or three years. Since both English and subject grades could easily affect each other (i.e. the direction of influence may well be two- rather than one-way), correlation is a suitable measure in this case. If you put all students from one year into a single group, and *not split them in terms of their classes*, then you could use the Pearson Product-Moment correlation (which is in every elementary statistics book or computer statistics package). If you *only want to look at your own class*, then you should probably use a simpler correlation index, which makes fewer assumptions about your data. Two such indices, that you could get from any textbook which covers non-parametric statistics and could easily calculate yourself, are "Eta" or "Kendal's Tau". Put like this, you may feel that the work is far too complex for a non-mathematician, but please believe us, it really is simple, once you get started.

4. The problem of appropriate use of contracted and full forms continues to be a problem even for university level students in Hong Kong, at least from our own observations.
5. This cross-year comparison may be complicated by the fact that an individual student may simply have just discovered the library in the current year. This may have nothing to do with the book flood program. However, if class averages are used, the influence of such cases on the results may be reduced. If there is more than one book flood teacher in a school, these teachers might compare their results and thus enlarge the sampled populations.
6. REAP in Singapore.
7. Such tapes, especially your better tapes, could also be used for individual listening by students in a listening corner when one has finished a class assignment, by small groups or in the language laboratory.
8. In the Fiji program locally based readers were quite successful. But in two urban school systems in foreign language settings, locally based stories and legends of that culture were found not to be as popular as had been expected. It may simply be a matter of the types of stories children had been previously exposed to in reading and on television.
9. However, as Marion Williams has pointed out it is surely preferable, before beginning a book flood program to do a student reading interest inventory and base the book selection on this.

Appendix

English Language Extensive Reading Scheme

Hong Kong
1986/87

Level: Secondary, Form 1
Age: About 12–14 years old

Number of Schools: 9 experimental, 9 control
Number of Classes: All Form 1 classes in 9 schools, about 5–6 classes per school
Time: 3 class periods per week, 34–45 minutes each
Materials Used: Library Box Programme Materials:
—Books are organised in boxes by levels, 8 levels
—2–3 copies per title
—15–20 titles/box
Evaluation: —Hong Kong reading tests (by the Hong Kong Reading Association)
—Attainment Tests
Proficiency Tests in Chinese and English
—Observations/Student Feedback on Books

Note: The above description is *not* an official description by the Hong Kong Education Department.

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LEARNERS AND ENGLISH DICTIONARIES: SOME ASSUMPTIONS AND CHALLENGES

A. J. Taylor

0. Introduction

The City Polytechnic of Hong Kong began its first courses in October 1984 and has been expanding rapidly in terms of numbers of both students and courses since then. Planning for service English teaching has proceeded under considerable pressure and with a fast growing staff team from a variety of backgrounds. In this situation a number of assumptions have had to be made, with staff drawing on their experience elsewhere in Hong Kong or overseas. One area in whch assumptions have been made is dictionaries. It has been assumed that students need an English dictionary, that they know how to use it, and that they do use it. It has been further assumed that the dictionary should be a monolingual one. Not surprisingly, the two recommended have been the Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary of Current English (OALDCE) and the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE).

As learners' use of dictionaries has become an area of study in recent years (see e.g. Bejoint, 1981; Hartmann, 1981; and Ilson, 1985) and as the polytechnic is now in its fourth year of operation, it seemed that our students' actual use of their dictionaries should be looked at, to see where they are and then to consider where they ought to be and what might be done to help them get there.

1. Survey

A questionnaire was completed by 122 students, from courses in translation and interpretation (sub-degree), building (degree and sub-degree), and business studies (degree). All were full-time students. Some building students were in the second or third year of their courses; all others, the great majority, were in first year. The results are given here in percentages.

1.1 *The dictionaries used*

The majority of students (55%) said that they usually use a bilingual English-Chinese dictionary, while a further 15% said that they use both a bilingual and a monolingual dictionary. Only 30% said they usually use a monolingual English dictionary.

Of the students who use a bilingual dictionary the great majority (87%) use the Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary. There was no significant percentage of any other title. A few students use dictionaries in the Far East series and a few others use pocket size ones.

The monolingual dictionary in greatest use is the OALDCE (71%) with the only other significant one being the LDOCE (17%). All others in use are smaller, including pocket size.

438

1.2 *Reasons for dictionary choice*

The choices given in the questionnaire were too narrow and the results should be treated with some caution. However, it is interesting that given a choice between "set or recommended by school" and "recommended by friend or relative" the influence was about even for the users of a monolingual dictionary, whereas the school was a bigger influence for users of a bilingual dictionary.

1.3 *Type of dictionary use*

The students were given a choice, although they could write in a use that was not specifically listed. The greatest use is made, in decreasing order, for (i) finding word meanings, (ii) checking spelling, and (iii) seeing examples of how a word is used. The least use is made for (i) obtaining information on usage, (ii) finding out the pronunciation, and (iii) looking up grammatical information. There was a very clear gap in the responses between these two sets of uses. Students were asked to indicate their dictionary use in the summer, when they were not at school or the polytechnic, and during Term 1, but no significant differences emerged.

1.4 *Frequency of dictionary use*

A range of options from once a day to once a month was given. During Term 1 89% of students using bilingual dictionaries reported they used them either or two or three times a week, while the figure for users of monolingual dictionaries was somewhat lower at 72%. Frequency of use during the summer was much lower for both groups, but the users of bilingual dictionaries still reported more frequent use, viz. 53% as compared with 41% for the users of monolingual dictionaries.

1.5 *Problems of dictionary use*

Students were given a choice of five possible problem areas: (i) finding the word sought, (ii) identifying the right meaning, (iii) using the pronunciation symbols, (iv) understanding the grammatical information, and (v) understanding the examples. Students could choose more than one area. The major problem area indicated was (iii) the use of the pronunciation symbols, selected by 48% of the users of both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. The next problem area was (ii) identifying the right meaning, selected by 33% of the users of monolingual dictionaries and 27% of the users of bilingual dictionaries. This was one point where there was a noticeable difference between the students in different courses. Students in the course with the lowest level admission requirement for English rated the two factors of equal difficulty, i.e., it seems they found greater difficulty than others in identifying the right meaning in a dictionary entry.

1.6 *Factors discouraging dictionary use*

The amount of time taken to consult a dictionary was the major factor (42% of responses), while in 14% of the responses it was felt that the dictionary used often does not have the information sought (although it might be that it is rather a problem of finding information actually present). It should also be noted that 25% of the students thought that they had no need to use their dictionaries more than they do now.

1.7 *Suggested improvements*
Students were asked to write in any improvements to their dictionary that would encourage them to use it more. A wide range of suggestions was made, the two main ones being (i) the provision of more and/or better examples and (ii) the inclusion of more illustrations, diagrams, etc. Suggestions that also received some support were (iii) a better/easier pronunciation code, (iv) a larger typeface, and (v) the provision of more, but unfortunately unspecified, grammatical information.

Clearly there is not enough information here for dictionary compilers or English teachers to act on immediately, but the two main suggestions in particular do warrant further investigation.

2. Implications

2.1 *Monolingual or bilingual dictionaries?*
Current accepted wisdom is that students may at first use a bilingual dictionary but that as they reach the advanced level they should make primary use of a monolingual dictionary. Kirkpatrick (1985:12–13) indeed expresses amazement at how quickly learners of English as a foreign language grow out of dictionaries specially designed for them and move on to the use of dictionaries for native speakers. Thompson (1987) has recently taken up the view that more use should be made of bilingual dictionaries, provided they are better constructed.

It is clear from the survey that our desire for students to use monolingual dictionaries and our recommendation of two of them on all book lists (OALDCE and LDOCE) has not persuaded the majority of students. The decision as to which type of dictionary a student will have is made in the secondary schools. It is necessary for us to reconsider whether we want students to make a change and, if we decide we do, to provide specific help and encouragement for them to do so. Up until now this has not been done due to the great pressure on the time available for English teaching and, to some extent, to the assumption that students would change without assistance.

2.2 *Which dictionary?*
It seems that this too is decided for the great majority of our students at the secondary school level. A change costs money and so students will want a very good reason to change. At present both OALDCE and LDOCE are considered acceptable, but what if it should be decided that a new dictionary, e.g. the Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary, is much better and should be very strongly recommended? It seems that any change would be quite slow, and that the best that could be done would be to add it

to the recommended list and provide help for students for all dictionaries on the list. (There are in fact published materials available to help users of both OALDCE (Underhill, 1980) and LDOCE (Whitcut, 1979) and materials are being prepared for the Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary.)

2.3 *Problems of dictionary use*

The problem areas identified in section 1.5 together with the factors discouraging dictionary use referred to in section 1.6 also raise the question as to whether specific assistance should be given in the English classes. So far it has been assumed either that such assistance is not required or that it is not of sufficiently high priority to be included in a crowded syllabus.

3. Conclusion

Although the survey was only carried out on a small scale, the findings indicate that we would do well to take a closer look at what dictionaries our students are using and what use they make of them. Only then can we begin to take steps to ensure that the best use is made of what is available.

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語文教師的在職培養與提高

田本娜

一、語文教師在職培養與提高的意義

提高語文教學質量的關鍵，在于提高語文教師的素質。

從普及九年制義務教育的任務來看，語文教師從數量到質量都遠遠跟不上教育事業發展之需要。由于十年動亂，影响了幾代人的成長，反映在語文教師隊伍中，一是中年骨幹教師乏人；二是青年教師缺乏師範教育的專門訓練。大中城市小學語文教師未達到中等師範（或高中）畢業水平的約佔30%－50%，初中語文教師未達到大專畢業水平的約佔40%－60%。農村語文教師水平還要差些，尤其缺乏專業訓練的準備。因此，大批語文教師需要繼續培養與提高。

從語文教學改革的需要來看，也應該不斷提高語文教師的水平。新時期以來，在語文教學園地裏各項教學改革實驗逐漸展開，許多教師在總結我國語文教學傳統經驗的基礎上，吸取新的教育理論，使語文教學逐步邁向科學化之途徑。這部分教師，一靠自己語文基礎知識扎實，基本功過硬；二是學習了新的教學理論，使教學納入一定理論指導的途徑；三是善于總結自己教學的實踐經驗。因此，教學改革取得顯著成果。但是絕大部分教師仍然靠經驗教學，靠自己讀小學、中學老師教的方法去教自己的學生。若自己的老師教學有方，那當然應該吸取繼承。但多接受了傳統教學方式，習慣于老師講，學生聽，老師說，學生記，重複練習，死記硬背。對于如何發揮學生學習的主動性、積極性和創造性，使之主動探索、主動發現、主動練習、主動求知的原理和方法；對于如何從整體出發，系統地培養和訓練學生的聽、說、讀、寫能力，發展學生的智力，豐富學生的思想感情，養成良好的讀、寫習慣，提高語文教學科學化水平的原理和方法等等，大部分教師尚缺乏理論準備，影响了語文教學質量之提高。要使語文教學從經驗型向理論型過渡，語文教師必須從教育思想、教學理論、語文專業知識等方面，不斷更新知識，充實理論，提高語文專業和教學理論水平。

總之，只有不斷提高語文教師水平，才能提高語文教學質量，才能使培養的一代新人，在運用祖國語言文字工具，進行思想、工作交流方面，適應新時期建設的需要。

二、語文教師的思想、知識、能力、文化素質

語文教學是培養德、智、體、美、勞全面發展一代新人的基本途徑之一。語文教師要完成語文教學的目的任務，首先必須明確語文學科的性質與功

能，並從而確定語文教師所應具備的思想品德、專業知識和能力以及文化等素質。

語文是基礎工具學科，是表情達意的工具學科，是認識客觀世界的工具學科，也是教育學生如何做人的學科。因此，語文學科具有工具性、知識性、思想性和發展性。其功能體現在以下幾方面：發展學生的語言（口頭和書面），提高學生的思想品德，陶冶學生的情感，豐富學生的知識，發展學生的智力，養成學生良好的自學能力與習慣。以上也是語文教學所要完成的任務。

語文教師要在教學中充分體現語文學科的功能，完成語文教學任務，必須具備以下幾方面的素質。

（一）語文教師的職業道德品質

熱愛教育事業，熱愛學生，熱愛自己所教的語文專業；對語文教師的工作具有明確的目標和主人翁感，這是一名語文教師所應具備的最根本的職業道德品質。沒有愛就沒有教育，這並非誇張，而是千真萬確的真理。但是要做到這一點，並不是一句空話，教師必須付出艱辛的努力，以身作則。我曾研究過幾十位優秀語文教師的成功經驗，其根本因素就是熱愛學生，熱愛教育事業，責任心強。他們情願讓學生踩著自己的雙肩，攀登科學高峰，自己做平凡的鋪路石。他們本身就非常熱愛生活，是精神文明的表師，因而才能言傳身教，寓教于文，潛移默化，陶冶學生的心靈，指引學生奮進的道路。

目前，有一部分教師專業思想不夠鞏固，還沒有培植起對教育事業、對學生、對語文專業的情感，抱著一種應付態度工作。這樣的教師是不會受到學生歡迎的，往往形成師生對立情緒。我認爲不怕教師水平低，只要主人翁感強，有強烈的學習願望，工作認真努力，有個三年五載，就會很好地勝任教學工作。一名教師不熱愛本職工作，水平再高，不肯出力，也無濟于事。嚴格來講，關于教育專業思想的培養，應該是師範院校完成的任務，當一名師範生走向教育崗位時，就應具有教師的職業道德品質。但是由于十年動亂的破壞，許多教師沒有經過師範教育的嚴格訓練。即使是師範院校畢業的教師，一部分人的教育專業思想也不夠鞏固（社會因素影響很大）。因此，對在職語文教師的培養和提高，這項任務還是相當重要的。

（二）語文教師的語文基礎知識和語文能力結構

作爲語文教師，並不是認識幾個字、會把書讀下來，就能勝任工作；也不是要教學生哪幾篇文章，會講那幾篇文章，就能教語文課。所謂語文教材過關，是對語文教師的最低要求。同時，對教材過關也有不同要求，要達

到對語文教材真正地理解，消化，運用，是需要一系列語文基礎知識和語文能力的。因此，要求語文教師必須具有語文專業基礎知識和基本能力。這雖然是極爲淺顯的道理，但在一些語文教師身上，恰恰缺乏這方面的基本功。我于聽課中發現不少課的失誤，大都因教師的語文基礎知識和基本能力不過硬，因而對教材理解不深，對字、詞、句的含蓄之意、言外之意、比喻之意體會不透，講不清楚，甚而講錯；對學生提出的問題，不能應付裕如。相反，一些成功的課，可以看出教師語文基礎知識扎實、知識領域廣闊，基本功熟練，能夠駕馭教材。語文教師如果缺乏語文基礎知識和語文能力準備，就無法勝任語文教學工作。

1. 語文基礎知識結構及其特點

語文教師一般應具備以下幾方面的語文基礎知識。

(1) 文字學基礎知識。語文教師懂得一點文字學的基礎知識，才能指導學生按漢字規律識字，並能準確地分析字的音、形、義。

(2) 漢語基礎知識。以現代漢語爲主，有條件也應學習一點古漢語知識。語文教師只有掌握了漢語基礎知識，才能比較準確地分析文章詞句，培養學生語言規範化。

(3) 篇章、文體基礎知識。語文教師拾起一篇課文，能較快地判斷屬于什麼文體，文章結構特點是什麼？才能依據不同文體教法之特點進行教學，才能指導學生理解文章結構及表達方法。

(4) 修辭學基礎知識。語文教師學習一點修辭學，才能給學生分析文章的修辭手段，從而培養學生的修辭與欣賞能力。

(5) 語言學基礎知識。語文教師理解了語言的性質、功能及規律，才能明確語文學科的性質和功能，以及語文教學的目的任務和教學特點。

(6) 邏輯學基礎知識。語言和思維是統一的，語言規律和邏輯的關係也非常密切。語言訓練和思維規律——邏輯——結合起來，既可提高語言水平，又會發展學生的思維能力。

此外，作爲一名語文教師還應具有兒童文學、文藝學、語音學等方面的基礎知識。

語文教學是通過教師借助于語文教材向學生傳授語文知識，培養語文能力。傳與受雙方的語文基礎知識，並不能在一個水平綫上，傳方要高于受方，教師才能勝任教學工作。所謂"高于"，應體現語文教師的語文專業知識結構特點。概括言之，有如下幾點：

(1) 具有基礎性。語文學科是基礎工具學科。中小學的語文教學，就是要使學生基本掌握語言工具。學生掌握一些語文基礎知識，有

利于形成語文能力。例如當小學生懂得一點漢字構字規律知識後，就會按漢字規律識字，會提高識字能力。作爲語文教師就應該掌握一定的文字學基礎知識。當然，不能要求語文教師成爲文字學專家。以上談到的各類語文知識都要體現基礎性。

(2) 具有廣泛性。語文學科是一門綜合性較強的學科，它需要教師具有文字、漢語、修辭、文體等方面的語文專業基礎知識，還有與語言關係密切的邏輯學知識。在語文教學中要綜合運用這些方面的知識。

(3) 具有理論性。語文教師掌握語文基礎知識的功能是用以傳達給學生，不僅要使學生知其然，還要使之知其所以然。要給學生講出道理，要指導學生去用，而不是教師自己直接去用。所以要求語文教師掌握的語文基礎知識，應該是有系統的、有體系的、有理論的。

2.　語文能力結構及其特點

語言是教師向學生進行教學、教育的主要工具。尤其是口頭語言運用率最高。語文教師對語言的理解和運用能力應高于其他學科教師。因爲語文教學的目的任務，主要是培養學生正確地理解和表達祖國語言的能力。即培養學生的聽、說、讀、寫能力。毫無疑問，語文教師應具備這些能力。

聽的能力：對學生的提問、發言、朗讀要聽得準確，才能及時判斷，進行引導、答問。

說的能力：口頭表達能力對語文教師來講，非常重要。口頭表達能力結構如下：

(1) 正確的發音能力和講標準普通話的能力；

(2) 組織語言的能力，講話要完整，語氣連貫，層次清楚，富于邏輯的吸引力；

(3) 調整語言的能力，講話要有節奏，分出高低、快慢，便于學生吸取、記錄；

(4) 選擇語言的能力，同一事物可用不同的詞句表達，教師的語言要接近學生的理解水平；

(5) 美化語言的能力，教師的語言要干淨、生動、形象、幽默。

讀的能力：朗讀能力，要讀得準確、流利、富有表情，能正確示範；默讀能力，要求教師要有較高水平的理解能力（即分析、綜合、抽象、概括、比較能力）、品評能力、欣賞能力、批判能力。要有高于學生的讀速。

寫作能力：要求學生的作文，教師一般應該寫出範文。雖然不是篇篇"下水"示範，但要具有一定的寫作能力。還要有評改文章的能力。

寫字能力：語文教師的板書功一定要過得硬；一要寫字規範、工整、美觀，二要板書設計清晰，能體現作者思路、文章要點。

教師與學生所要掌握的語文能力，雖然在項目上基本相同，但在深層結構上教師要高于學生。語文教師語文能力結構有以下特點：

(1) 標準化。教師的聽、說、讀、寫能力都應達到標準水平，要求準確，能起示範作用。

(2) 熟練化。教師只有熟練地掌握語文能力，才能及時指導學生。

(3) 要有相應的理論知識爲基礎。學生語文能力的掌握，一方面靠學生自己的語言實踐，一方面要有規律性知識之指導。例如學生寫字能力的形成，一要多寫，二要明確基本筆畫、筆順規則、間架結構要求，才不致于盲目練習。其他項能力也如此。所以語文教師一方面要以標準的、熟練的語文能力做示範，另一方面還要給予學生規律、規則性指導。

(二)語文教師的教育專業知識和能力結構

語文教師必須首先具備語文專業知識和能力。但是也有的教師，雖然具有一定的專業知識和能力，而不能教會學生。就像自己能唱歌，並不等于會教學生唱歌一樣，自己會朗讀，並不等于會教學生朗讀，自己會寫文章，也並不等于能教學生作文。當然，語文教師的語文專業知識和能力學得扎實、熟練，這是教會學生的基礎；沒有這個基礎，就根本不能担負語文教學任務。同時，我們還應該看到教學不是教師一方面的事，教學過程是教與學的雙邊統一活動。教師的任務是要教會學生。教師除了運用自己已掌握的專業知識和能力，深入理解教材之外，還要研究學生。尤其是小學生更需要教師掌握學習時的生理、心理狀態及智力水平。例如教兒童寫字，教師要懂得兒童坐的姿勢、眼與桌子的距離、握筆要領等知識。又如學生不想讀，怎樣啓發、引導，如何創造學生的閱讀動機；有的學生不注意聽講，用什麼方法轉移學生的注意，將其注意力集中到學習上來；如何教會學生背誦、記憶好文章、片斷、詞句等。所以作爲語文教師的知識和能力結構，除了語文專業基礎知識和語文能力之外，還要有教育專業知識和能力。

1. *教育專業知識結構*

(1) 教育學，主要是教學論；心理學，主要是發展心理學和學習心理學。

(2) 語文教學論。這門學科是以語言學、文字學、邏輯學、教學論、學習心理學爲基礎，將這些學科的基本理論綜合用于語文教學，主要闡明語文教學的基本原理和方法。該學科介于語文專業知識

和教育專業知識之間，是使語文教師所掌握的語文基礎知識和能力，轉化爲學生的語文知識和能力的橋樑。

2. 教育專業能力結構

教育專業能力應該包括：教育能力、教學能力、管理能力、教育科學研究能力。本文重點談教學能力和教育科研能力。

(1) 教學能力。從教學全過程看，教學能力結構包括：

1. 備課能力。語文教師如何運用已掌握的知識體系，將課文中的知識，使學生掌握，並用知識影響學生智能的發展和思想品德水平的提高，是需要教師進行認眞的準備工作的。

教師備課，首先要研究教材。要運用已掌握的語文知識和能力，分析、理解語文教材；理解語言所表達的事物、景物、人物的意義、思想、意境、情感以及語言表達方法。其次，還要研究學生，要運用已掌握的教育科學知識和能力，分析學生已掌握的知識水平、智力水平、接受知識的心理狀態，從而確定教學的重點、難點和教學方法。也就是說，教師在備課中，既要研究語文知識結構，又要研究學生已建立的認知結構；在學生已建立的語文的認知結構基礎上，用新的語文教材形成學生新的語文知識結構。

2. 上課能力。即遵循備課計劃，實現教學的能力。除前邊談到的語言表達能力之外，還應具有組織教學的能力。要善於運用教育學、心理學知識；要有細緻的觀察能力，敏感地、靈活地應付教學中出現的問題，順利地把學生的注意力集中起來，使教學有序地進行。

3. 及時反饋教學效果的能力。能及時地和集中地了解學生對所學知識的理解、掌握程度；要掌握檢查學生語文知識和能力的基本方法。

(2) 教育科學研究能力

語文教師對自己的教學工作，應經常加以總結，積累經驗，提出問題，研究解決問題的方案，不斷提高教學質量。在這項工作中，語文教師應具有：1.設計語文教學實驗方案的能力；2.積累教學素材的能力；3.測量學生知識和智能水平的能力；4.分析學生學習效果的能力；5.概括教學經驗的能力；6.文字表達能力。語文教師教學科研能力的形成，一方面靠教學實踐經驗的積累，一方面靠教育科學理論的指導。

(四)廣泛的、綜合的文化科學知識結構

語文學科的內容是綜合性的，包括自然科學、社會科學、哲學知識；含括中外古今各方面的知識。作爲語文教師，如果文化科學知識不豐富，就難以完成語文教學任務。例如講授《桂林山水》一課，教師沒到過桂林，也要了解有關桂林的地理位置、自然風光、歷史發展、名勝古蹟等方面的知識，根據課文，引導學生進入桂林山水的優美意境之中。這樣並不是要求語文教師成爲各門學科的專家，而是要有廣泛的、綜合的文化科學知識素養。

以上即語文教師應該具有的條件，也是應該在師範院校完成的任務。如果由于某種原因，現任語文教師還不完全具備以上條件，就要有針對性地在某些知識方面進行補課、進修、提高。

三、語文教師培養和提高的基本途徑和措施

(一)分類培訓

現有語文教師隊伍的水平參差不齊，因此培訓提高工作要分類進行。

所謂分類，即指語文教師隊伍的組成、結構，如對文化程度、語文知識和能力水平、教學能力(經驗的、理論的)水平等諸因素，有一個明確的要求，從而劃分不同類別。根據分類做出切合實際的培訓計劃。從業務水平上可分三類。

第一類：語文基礎知識和能力掌握得比較扎實、熟練，具有一定的教學經驗，能獨立分析教材、獨立做課、獨立總結教學經驗，能較好地完成教學任務。但教育理論水平不高。應重點提高教育科學理論水平。

第二類：基本上掌握了語文基礎知識和能力，教學經驗還不夠豐富，但經過努力能勝任教學工作。大部分教師處于這個水平。既要從語文的"雙基"上提高，又要學習教育理論知識。可以重點學習《語文教學論》，以帶動語文基礎知識和教育理論的學習。

第三類：在語文基礎知識和能力方面有較大缺點，還談不上教學方法。這類教師提高的重點是，系統學習語文基礎知識，嚴格訓練基本功。

我國幅員廣大，各地區教師水平也不同。大城市以及教育基礎較好的地區，培訓重點要放在骨幹教師方面（一類及二類中的一部分），也可稱"種子教師"。就是在大面積的基礎上突出重點，在普及的基礎上側重提高。骨幹教師經過進一步培訓後，要在提高語文教師水平的普及中發揮作用。對于教育基礎差的地區以及廣大農村，培訓重點應放在二、三類教師方面，對這些地區錦上添花固然需要，但更重要的是雪中送炭。

(二)分層培訓

自從中共中央《關于教育體制改革的決定》公佈之後，從中央到地方對教師的培養和提高工作，已提到重要地位上來。從上到下層層抓教師培訓工作。

1.　全國性的語文教師培訓工作　國家教育委員會主辦的中國教育電
(1)　電視教學。由中華人民共和國國家教育委員會主辦的中國教育電
視教學，從1986年10月份正式播出。面向全國中、小學教師，進
修中師、師專和電大的課程，以及教育專題節目。語文專業開設
了語文基礎知識課程。全國的中、小學語文教師，凡未達到中師
或師專、大學水平的，當地有電化教學設備的，都可以適當組織
教師學習，系統地提高水平。

(2)　國家教委與中央教育科學研
舉辦全國性的語文教師學習研究班。國家教委與中央教育科學研
究所于1985——1986年在北京舉辦了小學教師研究班，其中包括
小學語文教師。學員來自全國各地，以二十年以上教齡的教師爲
培養對象。學習期限一年。前一階段以自學爲主，系統學習教育
、心理及語文教學理論；後一階段以研究爲主，組成課題研究小
組，學習，研討，寫出論文。學員回本地區介紹個人和小組研究
成果，即在提高指導下普及，收到良好效果。

此外，全國中、小學語文研究會，除召開年會以外，還組織
會員學習語文教學理論。

2.　省、市、自治區的語文教師培訓工作
各地區根據自己師資隊伍的實際情況，由省、市教育部門，採用
不同方式，或集中、或分散，利用業餘時間進行培訓。培訓對象
一般是一、二類教師。

3.　各區縣組織培訓　接受培訓的教師畢
全國性以及省、市一級組織的語文教師培訓，接受培訓的教師畢
竟數量有限，因此，必須充分發揮各基層地區的積極性。例如天
津市幾年來各區、縣充分挖掘潛力，利用本區、縣的師範學校、
教師培訓學校，對本區、縣語文教師的培養和提高做了大量有益
的工作。

1.　高等師範院校承担培訓任務
高師的語文教師培訓，一般是定期的，承認學歷，發給證書。如
天津市教育學院培訓部門已對本市中學部分語文教師進行了脫職
的長期培訓，一般二至三年。學員經過系統學習，考試合格後，
承認大專學歷，授予證書。

高等師範院校除培養未來教師之外，也承担培訓在職教師的
工作。可辦脫職或不脫職兩種培訓班。不脫職培訓班有長期、短
期兩種。長期的學習年限一般爲二至三年，每周利用二至三個半
天或晚間時間參加學習。一般承認學歷，授予證書。短期班一般

學習半年。例如天津師大教育科學研究所于1985年先後舉辦了兩期《小學語文教學論》專修班。面向全市小學語文教師招收學員。採取不脫職形式，每周授課一次，期限半年。採取教師授課、發給講義，師生研討，觀摩優秀課，寫論文等形式。兩期共培訓語文骨幹教師、教研員、教學管理人員200餘名。學習結束頒發"語文教學論"單科證書。在培訓班上，我們利用自編的《小學語文教學論》講義，對語文基礎知識，語言規律及語文教學的基本原理進行了比較系統的教學。教師反映較好，使接受培訓的教師，從教學指導思想、業務水平、教學能力等方面都有所提高。學習結束，共收到學員的語文教學論文和學習體會五十餘篇，而且有一定質量。

(二)培訓形式和措施要多樣化

1. 舉辦專修班。可分長期脫職型和長、短期不脫職型(均見前例)。以系統提高語文專業知識和教育專業知識爲主。各級教育部門、師範院校、語文教學研究會都可以辦，也可以聯合舉辦。平時可以分散學時，還可以利用假期集中一段時間學習、研論。如有條件，可以選擇風光優美或名勝古蹟較集中的地區，可使學習、參觀、休息結合起來。
2. 函授。主要通過書面資料學習。當然，也需要面授輔導。其優點是可以廣泛地吸收學員。但組織編寫、印刷、發放學習資料的工作量較大。
3. 通過教學改革實驗提高教師水平。教學改革是一項複雜的工作，涉及到教學指導思想、教材、教法諸方面的改變與更新。教學改革實驗是對參加者的教育事業責任心、業務水平、理論水平的綜合檢驗。因爲教改實驗本身對教師提出新的課題，從主觀上、客觀上都形成了一種"非學不可"的形勢。一九七九年以來，我在天津市內一所小學進行了"以集中識字爲基礎的小學語文整體改革實驗"。在實驗過程中，組織教師參加對教材和學生學習的分析研究，進行專題探討，整理研究成果；組織聽課和學術研討會等活動，邊幹邊學邊總結，教師的教學和研究能力不斷提高。實踐證明，這是一條提高教師水平的好途徑。
4. 老教師帶青年教師和觀摩優秀課。如果學校有教學水平較高、教學經驗豐富的老教師，可請他們帶徒弟。請老教師有計劃地、實實在在地指導，這是行之有效的好方法。

一個地區的語文教師隊伍中，總有一部分是教學有成效的。應充分發揮這些教師的作用。天津市小學語文界已經搞過數次"優秀課觀摩"(包括老、中、青教師)。這種方式對于廣大急待提高的語文教師是比較實際的，可以從具體感受中學到經驗，起到交流作用。

除了以上幾種形式和措施以外，還可以組織專題講座，學術報告、學術討論會等。充分發揮中、小學語文教學研究會的作用。

總之，語文教師的在職培訓可採用多種形式，每種形式作用不同，可取長補短。從內容上，最好是系統提高和專題學習相結合，從形式上，面授與函授相結合；從時間上，長期與短期相結合、集中與分散相結合、脫職與不脫職相結合；從舉辦單位上，各級教育行政部門相結合，教育行政部門、師範院校、語文教學研究會相結合，發揮各方力量。只有認識明確統一，群策群力，以主人翁的態度對待這項工作，才能創造出各種方式，堅持不懈地提高語文教師水平。

CONFLICTS IN TEFL
REASONS FOR FAILURE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Brian Tomlinson

I would like to start this paper by inviting you to read and think about the following statements:

1. SECONDARY SCHOOLS PROVIDE THE IDEAL ENVIRONMENT IN WHICH TO FAIL TO LEARN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE.
2. DECISIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING ARE USUALLY MADE BY SENIOR MEMBERS OF AN ESTABLISHMENT.
3. ESTABLISHMENTS USE ORDER AND CONTROL TO MAINTAIN THEIR STATUS QUO.
4. LANGUAGE LEARNERS NEED FREEDOM AND FUN.
5. GOOD FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING IS SUBVERSIVE.
6. INNOVATION IS BEST INITIATED BY OUTSIDE AGENTS.
7. CHANGE CAN ONLY BE EFFECTIVELY SUSTAINED AND DEVELOPED BY INSIDERS.
8. DO WE REALLY WANT TO SUCCEED?
9. "SUCCESS" IS NEITHER POSSIBLE NOR DESIRABLE SO LET'S REDEFINE SUCCESS.

I would now like to consider each of these statements and to relate them in particular to the teaching of English as a Foreign Language in secondary schools in South and South East Asia.

1. Secondary schools provide the ideal environment in which to fail to learn a foreign language

Secondary schools exist to prepare children to become useful, loyal and responsible adult members of their society. In order to help them to achieve this goal with large classes of children secondary schools often create an ethos of obedience and conformity which rewards passive attention, memorisation and hard work. This ethos then becomes a tradition and the maintenance of this tradition then becomes one of the main objectives of the school. In order to preserve this tradition the school often discourages initiative, individuality, activity and fun.[1] Thus a school culture and environment are created in which students sit silently in ordered rows listening to teachers imparting knowledge. This might help students to learn information about a foreign language but it also prevents them from developing the ability to use it.

2. Decisions about language learning are usually made by senior members of an establishment

The main objective of any Establishment is to keep things basically as they are. Small changes are welcomed as tokens of progress but radical innovation is threatening to the members of the Establishment[2] and is opposed.

Language planners, curriculum designers, examiners, headmasters and inspectors are usually senior members of an Establishment which might sometimes ostensibly promote change but which remains basically commited to its conservative core of tradition. Teachers are servants of this Establishment and must be wary of supporting any potentially disruptive change. Most students want to become future members of this Establishment and know they must learn its rules and values in order to succeed. Parents of course know this too. And so do the publishers, who often produce text books with modern titles and objectives but with content designed to please the Establishment and thus help them maintain the status quo.[3]

In my experience teacher trainers are the professionals who are most aware of the inherent conflicts in secondary school TEFL and who are in the best position to influence both the "experts" and the teachers and thus to effect change. They often know what needs to be changed but are reluctant to risk their security and status by proposing innovations which have little chance of success.

Of course, what I have said so far is a deliberately provocative overstatement and there are many exceptions to the above "rules". But after twenty three years experience of TEFL in secondary schools I am convinced that their culture of conformity and control cannot produce the numbers of effective users of English apparently now required by the societies they serve. Radical changes of attitude and activity would be required in order to create an environment in which many students could successfully acquire English. Such changes are bound to seem seditious even when instigated by the Establishment itself.[4] They will also seem threatening to those many influential "experts" whose reputation and status depend on their knowledge of English rather than any understanding of the principles of language acquisition.[5]

3. Establishments use order and control to maintain their status quo

Order and control are essential in schools. Without them there can be little learning of knowledge and skills and no preparation for life in an ordered society. But does there always have to be so much negative control in the English lesson? Why can we not develop a secondary school specific methodology[6] which facilitates language acquisition and which contributes to the students' development into mature and responsible adults? At the moment in most schools learners of English are not only controlled by mandatory syllabuses, dictatorial text books and compulsory examinations but also by ordered rows of desks and by norms of silent attention, orderly inertia and passive obedience. The students sit, the students receive, the students follow. But how many of them learn to use any English and how many of them gain maturity or responsibility in this way?

4. Language learners need freedom and fun

My twenty three years as a language teacher have convinced me of one thing. In order to develop the ability to communicate in a language most students need freedom. They need freedom to speak and freedom to keep quiet; freedom to choose what to listen to and what to read; freedom to be active, to take risks, to experiment with the language; freedom to learn what they want to learn and to progress at their own pace; freedom to relax, to enjoy the new language, to create, to have fun. Above all they need freedom from the normal controls of the secondary school classroom; freedom from having to do exactly the same thing at the same time as everybody else; freedom from the harassment of constant questions, tests and correction; freedom from imposed objectives, freedom from the teacher, freedom from the desk. And of course they need opportunities read and listen to English being used and opportunities to communicate what they want or need to say. In short, they need to be allowed to be an individual. But even with all that they need real intrinsic motivation to succeed. Not just the motivation inspired by the promise of rewards but the motivation created and sustained by stimulus, by challenge and by fun.[8] Language planners might decide they want the students to learn English, for example, as a language of science and technology but unless the learners start with activity, creativity and fun very few of them will ever achieve that specialised goal.[9]

5. Good foreign language teaching is subversive

Of course what I am saying is nothing new. For at least ten years now experts have stood up at conferences all over the world and spread the word about the Communicative Approach. Many excellent communicative materials have been produced, successful communicative courses have been run in language schools,[10] many secondary school "experts" and some teachers have now got M.A.s in TEFL and all over the world many secondary school teachers now know what they should be doing. But what has actually changed in the secondary schools? Very little.[11] And it is obvious why. Good language teaching demands time, energy and resources which are not available to the secondary school teacher. And good language teaching is subversive. It encourages activity, noise, initiative, disorder. It conflicts with the ethos of the school. It conflicts with the syllabus, the text book and the examinations. It gets the teacher into trouble.

6. Innovation is best initiated by outside agents

If countries really do want to produce large numbers of students capable of effective communication in English then "subversive" innovations in methodology and materials will have to take place. But if the Establishment invites its senior members to instigate such innovations the result will be understandably caution and cosmetic change. We cannot reasonably expect these experts to throw out the methodology on which they have built their reputations and to replace it with a methodology which not only conflicts with their beliefs but also threatens anarchy in the schools. One way round this problem is for the Establishment to invite outside agents to initiate the change. Such agents must obviously be sensitive to inside reactions but can afford to be bold and experimental in their intent. In Indonesia the Ministry of Education has set up an English Programme as part of their In-On Service PKG Project. The ultimate objective is to dramatically improve the communicative competence in English of students in the secondary schools. The means of achieving this is the eventual retraining of all the high school teachers of English in the country and the assumption is that radical changes in methodology must take place. As the English Language Adviser to the PKG I am the outside agent with no reputation and no status in the system to lose. As such I have been able to take risks and to be radical in my approach. I have been able to advocate and plan a change to a student centred, student active approach with English as the medium of instruction and with the initial emphasis on confidence, fluency and fun.

7. Change can only be effectively sustained and developed by insiders

Of course, in Indonesia there are initially much caution and even resistance from academics, administrators, headmasters and teachers. Many of them were understandably sceptical about such a radical change and many of them feared that they had something to lose. But the programme was designed so that insiders soon became responsible for owning and developing the change. In each of the twenty seven provinces three or four teachers were trained to become teacher trainers and one administrator was trained to become Provincial Supervisor. They now run sixteen week In-On Service courses for teachers of English in their provinces.Some of these teachers become Key Teachers and run part time courses for teachers of English in each regency of the province. I meet all the teacher trainers twice a year for three week National Workshops and I travel the country monitoring the courses <as do a number of short term international consultants and some national consultants>. Of course, the outside agents <myself and the consultants> have been very influential in determining the direction and substance of the change but each provincial group is independently responsible for the content and methodology of its course and each participating teacher is ultimately responsible for deciding what and how to teach.[12] The result has been accommodation, an adaptation of the communicative approach to the local situation. At the moment we are still working with the "old" syllabus, textbooks and examinations but our "new" methodology is beginning to work. The students influenced by the Project are gaining in confidence, fluency and motivation and academics, administrators, headmasters and teachers are beginning to change their attitudes and opinions.

8. Do we really want to succeed?

Most countries in East and South East Asia now aim to achieve objectives involving the development of communicative competence by all their secondary school students by the time they leave school. Have you ever stopped to think what would happen if these objectives were ever actually achieved? Millions of teenagers would leave school with unrealistic expectations of jobs, money and success, with interests and values orientated towards the West and with questioning, individualistic minds unsuited to the societies in which they live. You cannot achieve communicative competence in a language without being exposed to the cultures and values it is used to express. You also cannot achieve communicative competence whilst still at school without becoming more individualistic, creative and expressive. In other words if we want to produce students who can use English well we must change the methodology. If we change the methodology we will change the students too. In Indonesia I can already see signs of this. Students are not only becoming more confident and fluent in English, they are becoming more active and independent, they are making more noise and they are becoming more interested in the West.

9. "Success" is neither possible nor desirable so let's redefine success

But perhaps there is no need to worry too much about the potential cultural pollution of the Communicative Approach. Perhaps we can rely on the inherent conservative forces of the Establishment to localise the Communicative Approach so much that some success is achieved but not too much. That would leave countries in East and South East Asia with two choices. Either to continue to work towards objectives of communicative competence for all and at the same time to ensure that these objectives are only partially achieved. Or to accept the undesirability and impossibility of communicative competence in English for all students and to redefine their objectives. I would prefer the latter choice and would very much like to see realistic long term and interim performance objectives established for EFL in secondary schools and also far more consideration given to the possible educational benefits <and dangers> of learning English as a foreign language. After all it is still true that the majority of students who learn English as a foreign language at school will never need to use it after leaving school.

In the old controlled approaches <grammar/translation; audio lingual; direct method etc> secondary school students gained little English but suffered little harm. There is a danger that in the Communicative Approach many students will still gain little English but will now suffer cultural and social harm. It is an important responsibility for those of us engaged in the formulation and implementation of language plans that we try to ensure that the students gain some English, benefit educationally and are prepared for life in the society in which they will live.

How do we achieve this? The answer should obviously vary according to local needs, resources and norms. So I would like to end this paper by listing some possible answers and leaving you to evaluate them in relation to your local circumstances and to work out answers of your own.

1. By aiming at a basic level of confidence and fluency on which specialised tertiary courses could later build.
2. By developing a basic linguistic knowledge of English on which communicative tertiary courses could later build.
3. By restricting English lessons to a small number of selected students in each school.
4. By only teaching English in certain schools in each area.
5. By having different objectives for different areas of the country related to local needs and circumstances.
6. By having different objectives for different types of classes in the school.
7. By giving all students a basic competence but only encouraging a small number of students to develop this competence further.
8. By not teaching English in secondary schools at all and concentrating all TEFL resources on specialised tertiary courses.
9. By treating English as a special subject taught to volunteers outside the timetable in rooms free from the constraints of the school culture.[13]
10. By having a few bilingual <L1/English> schools in each area using a concurrent code switching method in all subjects.
11. By aiming to give students competence in 'nternational English <i.e. a restricted code featuring such formal operations as the transmission and reception of information>.
12. By developing a methodology whose principle objectives are educational rather than communicative <e.g. a language awareness course aiming to develop understanding of language systems and functions through an exploration of English in use>.

Notes

1. In my experience obvious student enjoyment of a secondary school lesson is often seen as evidence that the students are only playing and that the teacher is failing in his/her duty to get the students to work hard.
2. They usually owe their position in the Establishment to their authorative knowledge. New knowledge in which they cannot claim authority is obviously a threat to their status and therefore to their position in the Establishment.
3. It is obviously easier to sell books to people who feel at ease with the content and methodology of the books rather than to people who feel threatened by their unfamiliar approach. Text books for secondary schools is big business for publishers and text book innovation is a big

financial risk. Therefore it is not surprising that the major publishing houses represent a powerful conservative force in secondary school EFL.

4. I have frequently experienced attempts by Ministries of Education to implement innovations which have been frustrated by teachers saying, "We can't do this because it goes against what the Ministry Syllabus/ Text Book/Examination/Inspector says.
5. If there is a sudden change from a language centred approach to a communication centred approach you cannot expect the experts to suddenly re-educate themselves and you cannot depend on their support.
6. Most of the currently popular techniques of the Communicative Approach have been developed in or for language schools which are blessed with small motivated classes and adequate resources and which do not have to contend with an institutional culture which imposes learning styles alien to the Communicative Approach.
7. In my experience courses based on needs analysis often fail because the students do not actually want to learn what the experts have decided they need to learn.
8. These are my views based on my experience of teaching and observation. For a theoretical discussion of the factors involved in the facilitation of language acquisition see:
    1. Dulay, H., Burt, M. and Krashen, S.<1982> Language Two, Oxford University Press.
    2. Ellis, R.<1984> Classroom Second Language Development, Pergammon Press.
    3. Moskowitz, G.<1978> Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class, Newbury House.
    4. Stevick, E. <1986> Images and Options in the Language Classroom, Cambridge University Press.
9. Many papers on language planning now point out the dangers of cultural pollution but still persist in the fallacy that you can tell students to learn a foreign language for a very restricted future purpose and that they will do so successfully without being allowed to use the language for any social or personal functions during the early stages of learning <see for example "Language Policy in the Pacific Rim", a paper presented by Robert Kaplin at TESL Canada in Vancouver, March 1987>.
10. Most of the techniques of the Communicative Approach have been developed in or for language schools which enjoy the privilege of small, motivated classes and adequate resources and which do not have an institutional culture which is alien to the principles of the Communicative Approach.
11. Many EFL experts have recently been asking why the Communicative Approach has made so little impact on what actually happens in secondary schools.

12. Some are teaching all their lessons communicatively, some are teaching some of their lessons in a communicative way and others in their "old" way, some are teaching all their lessons using a mixture of "old" and "new" methodology and a few are sticking to the security of their "old" way. For a detailed description of the PKG English Programme see my paper, "Choices in CELT" in the collection of papers from the 1986 Hong Kong I.L.E. International Seminar.
13. In many countries the same teacher and the same students approach the learning of English in very different ways in different environments <e.g. in Indonesia in a very teacher centred way in the Ministry school in the morning but in a more communicative way in private courses in the afternoon; in Japan in a very teacher centred way in the timetabled lesson but in a much more communicative way in the English Club>.
14. For arguments in favour of teaching a restricted code see the papers by Keith Johnston and Dr. Prabhu in this book.

Brian Tomlinson is English Language Advisor in the Ministry of Education, Indonesia.

FUTURE ISSUES OF ILEJ

Volume 5 of ILEJ will be published in mid 1989. Contributions will be welcomed. They should be sent to the editors before 31 December 1988 at the following address:

The Editors (English/Chinese): ILEJ,
Institute of Language in Education,
Park-In Commercial Centre 21/F.,
56 Dundas Street,
Kowloon
HONG KONG

Articles should be approximately 4 000 words in length. An English style-sheet is attached on the next page for your reference. A brief abstract in the same language as the articles should be included. Book reviews will also be welcome. Further information about the ILEJ may be obtained from Ms Madeleine LAU. Tel.: 3-7719552.

徵稿

《語文教育學院學報》第五期將於一九八九年中出版，歡迎來稿。來稿如用中文撰寫，請用原稿紙單面橫寫，字數宜在四千以內。每篇文章請附內容提要，如另附英譯者更佳。稿件請於一九八八年十二月前寄交下址：

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— To examine the feasibility of adapting language learning styles employed in one society or culture for use in other societies or cultures.

— To explore the issues involved in using language teaching styles across cultures.

— To compare pupil-centred and teacher-centred approaches to language teaching in different cultural contexts.

Further information about the Conference may be obtained from the Director, Institute of Language in Education. 21/F., 56 Dundas Street, Kowloon, Hong Kong.

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COMPUTERS IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

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Editor:

Martin L. BURNETT

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472

FOREWORD

This special, 'Computers in Language Education', edition of the ILEJ came about because of a felt need at the Institute to bring together in one place papers on this topic delivered at the Institute's two most recent international conferences and those written recently by Institute staff for presentation elsewhere.

Interest in Hong Kong in the use of computers at all levels of Language Teaching and Study has never been greater. We hope that these papers will provide some thought-provoking reading both for language specialists considering using computers for the first time and for those already committed to exploiting the most powerful research tool and audio-visual aid yet to appear.

Interested readers are directed to other papers on this topic published by the Institute in ILEJ Volumes 2 and 4 (1986 and 1988) and to the published papers of the Second Annual Conference on Language Teacher Education, 'Re-exploring CELT' ed. Verner Bickley 1987.

CONTENTS

		Page
Vernon ANLEY	Computer Education	9
Martin L. BURNETT	Computer Assisted Language Learning in Hong Kong Secondary Schools	13
Ronald HO	Implementing Computer Assisted Language Learning in Hong Kong: The Impact, The Problems, and the Future	25
David MA	Training Teachers for CALL—Some Observations	29
Jonathan WEBSTER	Using Commercially-Available Software to Provide a Self Access Computer-Based Learning Environment for the Development of Writing Skills	36
Anthony C. M. CHEUNG and Betty S. N. TSE	Code Switching of Hong Kong Tertiary Students in *Colossal Adventure*	50

COMPUTER EDUCATION

Vernon Anley

It was not so long ago that the application of computer technology was restricted to high level research projects and activities involving prodigious amounts of calculation or data processing. Computers were so expensive that only governments and a few large corporations could afford their use. Today computer use pervades our society and schools are using computers both as tools of education and as topics of education. The degree and rapidity of this change has introduced a deficiency into teacher education.

While a few educational programmes have had computers for up to twenty years, most attention to computers by educators has developed in the last few years. Unfortunately, much too little is known or agreed upon concerning the development and impact of educational technology, and whatever thinking and planning has occured seems to have had little concrete results. For example, a recent survey in the United States indicates that twelve of the largest twenty undergraduate teacher education programmes have no computer literacy requirement for their students. Such a situation is especially disconcerting to computer educators who view literacy as only the beginning of computer education for teachers.

It is hardly necessary to add that computer technology is increasingly a topic and tool of instruction at virtually all levels and in virtually all academic areas. If the students now in pre-service training are not equipped to deal with the issues of computers in education, they will have received less than a complete educational experience. These individuals, in their careers, will be required to make decisions regarding the use of computers in schools, and will not have the proper background to make such decisions.

As a result, it is imperative that all Colleges of Education provide all pre-service teachers with a certain minimal background in computer education. Before suggesting what this should include, I would like to put forward my own view about teaching and changes in education. I offer the following points:

1. *Education evolves, it does not (and should not) erupt*

Educators are not against change. But they clearly understand that people hold intimate and personal feelings about education, and the position of education in society. Adults become slightly uneasy when school programmes for their children vary significantly from what they experienced two or three decades earlier. This tension, ever present, causes practising educators to become increasingly reluctant to diverge from widely acceptable and traditional educational programmes. So, in practice, change in schools will lag behind acceptance among the public at large.

Application of computers to instruction will follow this same pattern. Computers will not be widely used in schools, either as an object of instruction or as a medium of delivery of instruction until they are commonplace and permeate our daily lives.

2. *Between the idea And the reality Between the motion And the act Falls the Shadow. (The Hollow Men, T. S. Eliot)*
Put another way, zealots of educational change frequently sound as if they trained as automotive salespersons. For two decades now we have been barraged by statements of what computers can do in education. In most cases these are statements of theory or vision. Theoretically, a computer can do 'it' given proper support materials. But in order to act, teachers must have those materials at their fingertips, as well as be trained to use them. Such has not been the case. Furthermore, teachers must have materials that are educationally effective. Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI), for example, is only as good as the lessons that are developed for it. CAI is only a medium of instruction; it is not a method. This means that lessons must be developed that are instructionally effective, that are accessible to students, and that work as advertised. Obvious as this may seem, it is not the situation that generally prevails.

Most of the commercially available curriculum packages for microcomputer systems are arithmetic in content, drill in format, and elementary school in grade level. It is not clear that these curricula help students learn material they do not already know. Such curricula can hardly have a long-lasting or unique effect on education.

3. *The teacher only has the time that there is*
Teachers work on a very compacted time schedule. That schedule includes no provision for extensive time to devote to personal or professional growth. Neither does it include time for extensive materials development.

Yet teachers must be involved in initial development if change is to occur. Even if CAI lessons are of excellent quality, CAI will only be successful if it is appropriately implemented in the schools. If we have learned anything from curriculum innovation projects it is that they are only effective to the extent that they are implemented by the instructors. If computers are to be integrated into the curriculm, teachers must be involved in the development and evaluation of those materials and the shaping of curricula that integrates them into the entire structure.

4. *The Curriculum only has the time that there is*
The total school day now is devoted to a designated set of objectives in a designated set of subjects. When large numbers of students start spending a significant amount of time on new curricula or activities, something else ceases to receive the usual level of attention. When continued over an extended period this in turn produces noticeable changes in education outcomes. These outcome changes frequently include unpredicted consequences of an undesired nature.

School curricula will respond to the impact of computer technology by adding courses with new content; courses about computers (e.g. computer literacy), courses on how to use computers as tools (e.g. word processors), courses in programming languages. Curricula will also be affected by the delivery of instruction by computers. Thus some courses will be replaced or modified by computer-related courses. The role of the teacher will change as some of the responsibility for instruction shifts from the teacher to the computer.

5. *The buck stops at the teacher and the school*
The public at large, including many of the university-based advocates of various types of change, place the blame for unexpected or undesired consequences squarely on the teacher and the school. This is true even when the teacher or the school is earnestly attempting only to follow the prescription or vison of proponents or scholars.

What are the implications of these points for computers in education and teacher training? These may be summarized as follows:

1. Computer knowledge adequate to teaching about computers will grow very slowly in schools. Persons training to this level as undergraduates often will be pirated by industry. In-service teachers do not have time available to quickly acquire training comparable to a major in Computer Science. When an undergraduate takes a introductory Computer Science course, it is not uncommon to spend 3–4 hours a week in class plus 20–25 hours per week on personal study and practical activity. A practising teacher cannot invest an additional 25–30 hours a week for 2–4 months in learning anything new.
2. To sustain teacher interest in training, and to encourage still more commercial investment in materials development, computer activity must be permitted to proceed in the absence of 'ideal' training. But the pressure of publicity should shift more to teaching with a computer. Attempts at teaching about computers are expanding much more rapidly than levels of adequate training.
3. Attempts at training those who will teach with a computer should centre round evaluation and use of existing resources. Few teachers have adequate time to train for and to execute courseware development.
4. Training programmes for in-service teachers need a comprehensive, developing sequence of regularly occuring experiences spread over a few years. Single day workshops create a little enthusiasm, but essentially no lasting action. Isolated courses can create limited action, but not of a self-perpetuating type. And very little generalization to new action modes can be expected.

It is quite likely, given 'packed' teacher education curricula, budget reductions and pressure on all departments to keep enrolments as high as possible, that required computer experiences for undergraduates will come to pass not as new courses, but as independent experiences centring around

477

demonstration of performance on a list of related objectives. A curriculum for such a teacher education component would focus on functioning and survival in a computer augmented classroom. No programming would be involved. As much emphasis as time would allow would be placed on selection and evaluation of electronic materials, and integrating such materials and media with other classroom materials and media.

The next step, already taken by some Teachers Colleges, is for courses in computing to become part of the curriculum in each separate subject area, so they will not be housed except temporarily in the department or programme of computing. In time to come, most schools and departments of education and teacher training will have separate programmes or sub-departments specializing in computing in education. While it may be true that computing should be integrated into other subjects, computing is and will continue to be a subject in its own right as well. It has emerged as a politically separate entity within the university curriculum and is emerging as a separate entity in the school curriculum as well, particularly in the form of courses on programming.

Finally, the implications of extensive computer usage in schools will be an important focus of study for some time to come, particularly in terms of graphics, interactivity, modelling, the nature of processes, and problem solving. As the routine aspects of computing in education become normal parts of the traditional methods courses and as people arrive already knowing how to program as well as is necessary, attention will increasingly be focused on what it all means. It may be that along with introducing artificial intelligence to schools, we may be increasing artificial ignorance.

Dr. Vernon Anley is a Vice Principal of the Institute of Language in Education, Hong Kong.

COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING IN HONG KONG SECONDARY SCHOOLS

—an interim report on foreseeable problems—

Martin L. Burnett

Introduction

The English Division of the Institute of Language in Education became involved in CALL with its second intake of 1985 of English Language teachers to its four month, full time, in-service Refresher Course. Starting with an Econet Level 2 network of 12 BBC machines, Lecturers David Ma and Ronald Ho and Senior Lecturer Chan Wai Ming, now of the Sir Robert Black College of Education, ran courses on the topic for both pre-vocational and primary school teachers. Early in 1987 a Computer Unit was formed and the network was extended to 28 stations by adding 16 BBC Master Series computers and an Econet Level 3 hard disc File Serving System.

The first intake of secondary and primary school teachers in 1987 spent two hours a week for the duration of their refresher course learning to use the VIEW wordprocessor; exploring the potential of the CALL courseware held by the ILE; writing evaluations of CALL courseware; writing CALL lesson plans and generally familiarising themselves with the topic. A slightly modified course was followed by the second intake of teachers in 1987 and the first intake of 1988; the second intake of 1988 are currently following a similar course. During the schools' 1987 and 1988 summer breaks we ran two week full time CALL seminars for graduate secondary school English Language teachers. Totting up the figures we find that in three years we have had over 1200 practising English Language teachers in our Computer Room on CALL courses.

In line with the ILE's commitment to promoting CALL in Hong Kong schools, and following its open-door policy to language teachers and language specialists in Hong Kong, we have been gathering books and journals connected with CALL and establishing a courseware library by way of a CALL Resources Centre for Hong Kong teachers. We have also been providing technical and pedagogical consultation services to those interested in CALL in Hong Kong.

The introduction of the use of computers into Hong Kong language classes would constitute a radical educational innovation and if it is to succeed then a good deal of planning for the change needs to be done. Fullen (1982) suggests that successful innovation in education requires a combination of various factors: the development of clear and validated materials; active support from administrators and leaders especially at school level; focused, continuing in-service staff development; the development of collegiality at the school level; and the selective use of external resources (both people and materials.)

Plomp and Carleer, (1987) writing on the introduction of Information and Computer Literacy courses into the Dutch secondary school system—a reasonable parallel to the innovation under investigation—concur with Fullen and give special importance at the beginning of the implementation stage to materials development, in-service training, contacts with other institutes and knowledge of the innovation.

Materials development obviously, then, is a most important factor to consider in the early stages of implementing an educational innovation and the introduction of CALL into Hong Kong schools will require the early and rapid development and validation of a body of usable courseware. I will start by describing the problems in this area that I forsee arising and from these problems and inextricably bound up with them I will move on to the problem that stems from a current clash in thinking on language teaching methodology that exists between the majority of local language teachers and CALL pundits.

There are some potentially excellent items of CALL courseware suitable for experimenting with in schools available from commercial sources abroad. At the moment, however, the supply of courseware suitable for use in Hong Kong schools or for remedial use in the tertiary sector, on anything more than an experimental basis, is not satisfactory. It does not satisfy the ususal criteria applied to the provision of an educational resource. It can not be supplied in sufficient variety or volume at a reasonable cost; its content, where fixed, is frequently culturally inappropriate; and the usual dialogue between writer/designer and end-user can not be sustained.

What is most worrying is not that those teachers who wish to implement the use of computers in their language classes will fail to convince their colleagues; but what happens if they do convince them and then find that there is not the courseware available to use with their students other than as a Friday afternoon occasional 'special treat' or as a 'keep them quiet for half an hour' activity while the hard-pressed teacher does some remedial work with the weaker students, or, worse still, as a 'keep them quiet forever' activity for remedial students in place of conducting a proper remedial teaching programme with or without the aid of computers. It is this type of false start to the introduction of computers into the language classrooms of Hong Kong that could damage the respectabilty of the medium in many teacher's minds and delay the introduction of this most valuable teaching tool into mainstream language teaching where it could make the greatest impact on childrens' achievement.

If CALL has found a place in language classrooms in Europe, North America and Australasia, why isn't there an abundance of courseware available which we in Hong Kong could buy in thus solving our materials development problem?

The fundamental reason for this is quite simply that there is no money to be made from either writing or selling CALL courseware.

It is predominantly written by language specialists of one sort or another with a passion for computer programming. The number of professional programmers involved in writing CALL courseware is minimal. Its production in the UK, for example, was described in 1985 by Self (1985:168) as a 'cottage industry'. Things are no different in 1988.

It is sold at the moment by certain established publishers who seem poised to stop doing so in favour of devoting their efforts to potentially profitable interactive video projects. Longmans and Ginn are just two examples of large companies that have recently announced that they will stop marketing CALL courseware. Other suppliers are either such small enterprises that they can not be relied on to offer the necessary volume and variety of courseware required or function under the sponsorship of UK government schemes that come and go so fast that no continuity of supply can be guaranteed.

Teachers in those countries where CALL has established itself have never relied solely on commercial sources and this trend seems likely to persist through choice and increasingly necessity. Even some of the smaller companies, that may be functioning on a non-profit making basis, are going through significant changes. For example, 4Mation, producers of some of the best CALL courseware, announced recently that they would expect to produce no more than one new item of courseware a year from now on.

There is a further problem with attempting to solve our materials development needs by buying in stock from outside and that lies with both the nature of the courseware that is in use in the countries where CALL plays an integral part in many language classes and also with the nature of those language learning environments.

Where CALL plays a part in these countries in teaching the dominant language of the country where that is different to the students' parents' own language—for example, English to Vietnamese in Australia, English to Hispanics in the USA or French to Cantonese speakers in Quebec—student motivation is high, teacher/student ratios are low and the use of computers in these language learning environments is very different to that which we envisage for them in mainstream compulsory English classes here in Hong Kong.

If we are looking for a parallel with the Hong Kong situation then we should look to the 2 to 3 years compulsory learning of a foreign language that students undergo in secondary school systems in these countries. The predominant methodology in these classes is 'communicative' and there does exist a supply of courseware that is designed to generate and facilitate communicative activities, available from commercial sources from these countries. It falls into two types: games and simulations, which are usually of fixed content and would mostly prove culturally inappropriate in a Hong Kong school setting; and content free, simplified word/text processors, databases and desk-top publishing packages that have been designed with large-scale, long-term, cross-disciplinary project work in mind.

If we are going to side-step the challenge of using computers in mainstream English Language classes in Hong Kong schools, it is this second type of courseware that would appear to offer the best opportunity of implementing the use of computers in at least some language classrooms: language classrooms under the control of teachers employing a communicative, possibly cross-disciplinary, project/activity approach or using the professional versions of this same type of software with non-remedial tertairy level students. Indeed valuable work in this area is being done at some of the local tertiary institutes.

To meet the challenge of introducing microcomputers into mainstream secondary school language classes will however require some very hard thinking not only about how to secure a reliable source of suitable courseware but also about the ways in which this courseware will be used in classrooms. To look at the problem from a different angle: what is it that language teachers in Hong Kong will want microcomputers to do for them?

The ostensible purpose of educational innovation is to improve the opportunities for students to gain useful skills and knowledge. Education policy-makers may decide on what is and what is not 'useful' but it is the individual teacher who effectively manages the learning environment and by statement or inference creates the learning priorities. If we are intent on educational innovation then we must not ignore teachers' views on that innovation. If we do ignore them we will most certainly drift inevitably into farce.

I mentioned, above, that the scarcity of suitable courseware for use in Hong Kong schools, if not remedied in the early stages of implementing the innovation, could lead to a damaging 'false start'. I would further suggest that until we have a clear and honest picture in our minds of what it is language teachers will want to use computers for we will have another potentially damaging mismatch. It is most important that we have clear in our minds what models of a CALL activity will prove acceptable to local language teachers and how and why these models may vary from other models developed elsewhere.

One of the problems one experiences in reading learned articles and books for inspiration on how CALL might be implemented in Hong Kong schools is the orthodoxy that CALL pundits demand. They do so often strongly suggest that there is a right way and a wrong way to use computers in a language lesson and that their use must be consistant with some particular language learning theory. While one expects academics to hold strong opinions on the value of their own ideas, when one tries to formulate pragmatic strategies from them one is quickly sobered by the fact that taken en masse Hong Kong language teachers do not share a common language learning theory and that as individuals their methodology or teaching habits can often vary wildly from class to class or even from topic to topic. When we are investigating what models of CALL activity would prove acceptable to language teachers in Hong Kong, it is important to keep in mind the plurality of approaches to language teaching that exist in Hong Kong and that many teachers may not have a well-defined theory of language teaching at all. What we can assume is that most language teachers know what their students find difficult to learn and what they themselves find difficult to teach and possibly why.

It is on the bedrock of this knowledge that models for CALL activities for use in Hong Kong schools need to be built, refined with local academic insight into the particular problems of language learning that pertain here. Any models that offer themselves for adoption created outside the Hong Kong environment must be scrutinised carefully for their relevance to local conditions.

If we try to 'buy in' models, just what models are currently available? As Phillips (1987) points out there are at the moment three models of CALL activity competing for the status of paradigm, or prevailing model, with CALL pundits. He labels them "The Games Model", "The Expert Systems Model" and "The Prosthetic Model". The "Games Model", which he acknowledges currently enjoys the greatest prestige and the "Prosthetic Model", which he champions and which, in my opinion also, will fairly shortly win this little contest, are both fashioned from Higgins' (1983) distinction between tutorial CALL and non-tutorial CALL. Both models rest firmly on, and I quote from Phillips, "certain theoretical assumptions about the importance of acquisition, of learner-centred methodology, of an integrated approach to the systems of language, of the role of motivation and other affective variables". The "Expert Systems Model" with its adoption of some fairly low-level Artificial intelligence techniques, promising at some indeterminate time in the future to offer individualised "open-ended natural language interaction" seems to worry Phillips as it does others in that there exists in it the potential for the machine to usurp the teacher's role. The development of cheap microcomputers and cheap, fast communications between them and awe-inspiring main-frame computing facilities has well and truly let the genie out of the bottle. The challenge of managing the potential of expert-systems in all aspects of Education will be a great one requiring intelligence, imagination and an unequivocal stance on what roles we will allow to humans and machines in the educational process. This is a problem however for the future.

One or all of these models may appeal to some teachers in Hong Kong but they by no means describe the type of classroom activities that the majority of practising English Language teachers we have had through our hands at the ILE forsee microcomputers assisting them with. The role that these teachers currently forsee for microcomputers transformed into a formal model is certainly not going to achieve paradigmatic status with CALL pundits, but if the purpose of educational innovation is to increase the opportunities for students to gain useful knowledge and if the field agents of the innovation are the teachers currently in post then we must be clear about what models of CALL activities are acceptable to them at present.

The adoption of a particular methodology should not, I feel, be made a prerequisite for making use of this latest audio-visual aid. Used intelligently, computers can contribute something of value in most language learning environments. Leaving to one side the innovative language teaching methods that computers make possible, it is the increase in the availablity of meaningful interaction that so strongly recommends the use of computers in any language classroom and—if we wish to maximise the productivity of this resource—recommends their use in the average not the specialised classroom.

I have already implied that the role that the practising English Language teachers we have had at the ILE to date see for microcomputers is as an assistant to themselves conducting 'traditional' activities. This became clear from an analysis of 187 CALL lesson plans that I carried out late last year (see figure 1). A quick glance at the list of courseware available to these teachers at the time (see appendix 1) will confirm that there was no built-in bias towards tutorial CALL in these courses. The lesson-plans were produced by primary and secondary school teachers on ILE in-service refresher courses and by graduate secondary-school teachers who attended voluntarily a full-time two week seminar on CALL in the 1987 school summer holidays.

% of suggested CALL activities classifiable by the functions below

TEACHER CENTRED PRESENTATION	→ 1ST PUPIL CENTRED ACTIVITY	→ 2ND PUPIL CENTRED ACTIVITY	→ 3RD/4TH ETC PUPIL CENTRED ACTIVITY	→ CONSOLIDATION
EP871 124 LESSON PLANS CONTAINING 126 SUGGESTED CALL ACTIVITIES	21% (SOLE PUPIL CENTRED ACTIVITY 15%)	34%		20%
ES877 33 LESSON PLANS CONTAINING 34 SUGGESTED CALL ACTIVITIES	12% (SOLE PUPIL CENTRED ACTIVITY 9%)	32%	9%	21%
ES871 + EP871 COMBINED	19% (SOLE PUPIL CENTRED ACTIVITY 14%)	34%	2%	20%
GRADUATE TEACHERS *SUMMER SEMINAR 1987* 30 LESSON PLANS CONTAINING 42 SUGGESTED CALL ACTIVITIES	33% (SOLE PUPIL CENTRED ACTIVITY 14%)	21%	5%	7%

Fig. 1

The fact that it was possible to classify the overwhelming majority of suggested CALL activities in this way says a lot in itself about these teachers' perception of the potential role of CALL. A comparsion between the 'conscript' teachers and the interested 'volunteers' is, I feel, the most revealing. We can see that the interested volunteers have more confidence in the efficacy of CALL activities: the activities moving nearer to the beginning of the lesson; the idea of CALL as a consolidation activity nearly disappears (a useful place to put it if you don't really trust its efficacy and you are obliged to find somewhere to put a CALL activity). Yet, despite the obvious confidence that a CALL activity could play an important role in a language learning class, these interested volunteers plumped for tutorial CALL courseware and the use of authoring facilities even more firmly than their conscript colleagues (see figure 2).

CALL Lesson Plans Analysis

	CONSCRIPTS	VOLUNTEERS
USE OF AUTHORING FACILITY	24%	87%
TUTORIAL COURSEWARE	69%	87%
GROUP OR PAIR WORK	89%	77%

Fig. 2

Our disappointment on discovering that no radical change in attitudes to teaching methodology had taken place by exploring the 'new' types of teaching activity implied in the design of the courseware made available to these teachers has been somewhat allayed by the evident enthusiasm they show towards the medium and the confidence they express that it can help them in their teaching.

This extract (figure 3) from the analysis of returns made to a questionnaire aimed at the second intake of participants in 1987 suggests, I believe, that many practicising English Language teachers would be keen after appropriate in-service training to start using computers in their language lessons.

Teacher attitudes to CALL Courses EP872 and ES872

If facilities were made available to you, would you like to make use of computers in:

ES872					
1	the teaching of writing?	YES	73%	NO	10%
2	the teaching of reading?	YES	79%	NO	10%
3	the teaching of speaking?	YES	33%	NO	41%
4	the teaching of listening?	YES	33%	NO	43%
5	preparing teaching materials?	YES	88%	NO	6%
6	day to day school admin.?	YES	73%	NO	12%
EP872					
1.	the teaching of writing?	YES	84%	NO	16%
2	the teaching of reading?	YES	79%	NO	21%
3.	the teaching of speaking?	YES	46%	NO	54%
4.	the teaching of listening?	YES	46%	NO	54%
5.	preparing teaching materials?	YES	88%	NO	12%
6.	day to day school admin.?	YES	72%	NO	28%

Fig. 3

The lack of enthusiasm for using microcomputers in the teaching of listening skills most likely reflects the still 'unreal' sounds generated by speech synthesisers available for microcomputers. The guarded reaction to the idea of using microcomputers to help in the teaching of speaking skills derives most likely from the fact that the courseware held by the ILE aimed at this activity is exclusively of the non-tutorial type, thus reinforcing the impression that the practising English language teachers that we have been dealing with are unwilling at the moment to accept the models for CALL activities currently in favour with CALL pundits.

The demand by English Language teachers in post for CALL training courses far outstrips supply at the moment. As I mentioned above the ILE has had over 1200 practising teachers on CALL courses and this has done nothing to dampen down interest. One would have thought that if the interest were merely ephemeral word would have got around by now that there was nothing in it and demand would have dropped off. The contrary seems to be the case. In summer 1987 we offered 25 places for graduate teachers of English and received over 200 applications; the demand for the 1988 course was the same. Similar courses run at the HK Polytechnic have to date trained 180 teachers. Interest in introductory courses remains high and demand for extension courses is building rapidly. It is hoped that other bodies with an interest in language education will soon start to service this growing demand for information and training from practising teachers. Should they do so they would be wise to bear in mind and plan for the mismatch between teacher expectations and aspirations and current CALL orthodoxy that they can expect.

Our findings that teachers in post tend to view CALL as a way of solving practical problems already perceived and tend to avoid using their new knowledge as a starting point for reviewing their basic teaching approach parallel Plomp and Carleer's (1987) findings on the outcome of in-service courses for teachers in Information and Computer Literacy. Fullan (1982) warns that the use of training can be grossly misapplied unless it is understood in relation to the meaning of change and the change process taken as a whole. In the light of this timely warning, I would agree with Plomp and Carleer in the importance they place on the need for a different kind of in-service course to be made available after the first wave of courses: different courses directed toward teachers developing new concepts, skills and behaviour.

In-service training in CALL, then, should not be seen as a one-off affair but rather as a continuing process. In the induction stage of this process course-designers will need to bear in mind the mismatch they can expect between needs perceived by teachers and the needs of teachers as perceived by teacher trainers. At the same time they should be considering the nature of the extension courses they will need to offer and how these could lead teachers to a broader perspective of the innovation.

To return to the problem of materials development. Whether we are considering the provision of materials for teachers in the first stage of their acquaintanceship with CALL, when the demand is most likely going to be for tutorial CALL materials, or for teachers with a maturing understanding of the innovation, we are going to have to face up to the problem of producing materials locally. For the reasons I have outlined, we are not going to able to rely heavily on outside sources. We will, in fact, have to establish our own local 'cottage industry' for the production of materials probably by non-professionals.

So what kind of courseware do we want produced locally?

If, as I assume we agree, courseware to be used in Hong Kong schools should be attractive to and culturally accessible to Hong Kong teachers and their pupils then tutorial CALL courseware seems initially to present little problem. The best of this type normally comes with an authoring program that allows individuals or groups of teachers to create text files they consider suitable which then become the content of the CALL program as experienced by the user. It would seem that by procuring a variety of such courseware from whatever sources, the required volume of CALL teaching materials can be made available locally.

This is not entirely true. Authoring programs, on first sight, seem to be an answer to a prayer but when one tries to match them with a variety of target groups, as one is tempted to feel should be possible, one quickly realises that, although we can change the content, the appearance on the screen remains the same. It will not do to offer A level standard texts on a screen designed to appeal to a primary school child or vice versa.

Authoring programs are only a partial answer. We will need to produce a variety of items of courseware which will do basically the same thing but in screen design appeal to particular target groups.

The software that forms the base for the production of acceptable tutorial courseware, while by no means easy to write, is not beyond the capabilities of those with a passion for programming who may not however have either the time or experience of professional programmers. If we are going to encourage the production of this type of courseware, we should take the opportunity to learn from the mistakes of others who have taken on the task.

Many commercially available items of tutorial CALL courseware attempt to do too many things at once and end up by doing no one thing properly. For example, a program that may claim to offer opportunities for either practice or testing will, when one runs it for the purpose of practising a grammatical point, not allow you to progress unless you type in the exact answer and yet, when one attempts to use the thing to deliver a test, it will allow you to 'cheat' and see the answers and, worse still, from a testing point of view, tells you when you are right or wrong after every answer entered at the keyboard. This demonstrates not bad programming, but a muddled idea of good teaching practice. In this sort of situation what is needed is obviously two separate programs: one that offers practice and one that offers a test.

Other courseware offers the student a suite of programs to choose from; possibly the option to change the colour of the screen display; whether to have sound effects or not; a list of data files to choose from; and the worst, when you boot the disc, ask the student before anything else to set up the hardware parameters that will be used. I would suggest that all of these options lie properly with the teacher and should not appear on the screen, diverting the student away from a language learning, practice or testing activity to a computer operations one.

I would like to suggest a very simple design philosophy for the development of tutorial CALL software and that is that a CALL program, as experienced by the user, should engage that user in language activities recognized to be of value to the user's tutor/teacher, controllable by the user's tutor/teacher and pedagogically clear to that tutor/teacher.

If tutorial CALL courseware needs to be made available to teachers in the first stages of their acquaintanceship with computers in the language classroom, and I estimate that this stage may be a fairly protracted one, then, at least, it should be sound stuff and I would suggest that the development criteria I have outlined bear consideration.

The best of the Games/Simulation courseware, complete with full colour sometimes animated-graphics and sound requires fairly high levels of programming skills to produce. The available commercial courseware of this type lacks flexibility in that the content is fixed and is often culturally specific and thus inappropriate for use in Hong Kong primary and secondary schools. If this type of courseware is to be available in the necessary quantities as and when it becomes required by teachers maturing in their approach to the use of computers in the language classroom, then something will have to be done fairly quickly to get local programmers on the job.

The work being done locally in the tertiary sector on what Phillips (1987) terms "Prosthetic" applications may, in the long term, produce useful materials and techniques that could, in different packaging, be of use to teachers in the primary and secondary sectors. It will not however contribute for a good many years to the materials requirements of school teachers as they mature in their understanding of the potential of the computer in the language classroom.

Research to date at the ILE on the foreseeable problems of introducing CALL into Hong Kong secondary schools has concentrated on courseware availabilty, quality and suitability and on teacher attitudes to the innovation.

From the first area of investigation we conclude that interested parties should involve themselves in the nurturing of a local CALL materials production 'cottage industry': from the second we have concluded that courses designed to introduce teachers to CALL, such as that offered to the ILE refresher course participants, should aim to meet teachers' felt needs for training to technical competence with the computer hardware available in their schools. The opportunity to conduct experimental teaching using computers should also be made available during such courses. While the promotion of 'new' theories on ways to teach language should still find a place in such courses, this place should be a secondary one and these other considerations should become the central focus of extension courses.

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APPENDIX I

Courseware available to ILE ES/EP871 participants

TYPE ONE
Best Four — Choicemaster — Clozemaster — Copywrite — Crossword Master — Gapkit — Helterskelter — Matchmaster — Microstories — Pinpoint — Quartext — Questionmaster — Sentence Sequencing — Speedread (Daco) — Speedread (Wida) — Spell — Storyboard II — Storyline — Tray — Varietext — Vocab — Wordhunt — Wordsequencing — Wordwright

TYPE TWO
Adventure — Adventure Island — Adventurescape — Box of Treasures — Fast Food — Fishy — Flowers of Crystal — Granny's Garden — Kingdom — London Adventure — Talkback — Tree of Knowledge — Terrible Tales — Witch Way

TYPE THREE
ABC — Beeline — Datastore — Phone — Telebook — Wordstore — View — Viewspell — Viewstore

Courseware available to ILE Summer 87 participants

TYPE ONE
Best Four — Choicemaster — Clozemaster — Copywrite — Crossword Master — Gapkit — Helterskelter — Matchmaster — Microstories — Pinpoint — Quartext — Questionmaster — Sentence Sequencing — Speedread (Daco) — Speedread (Wida) — Spell — Storyboard II — Storyline — Tray — Varietext — Vocab — Wordhunt — Wordsequencing — Wordwright — H.K. POLY CALL Suite — Dave Coniam's CALL Suite

TYPE TWO
Adventure — Adventure Island — Adventurescape — Box of Treasures — Fast Food — Fishy — Flowers of Crystal — Granny's Garden — Kingdom — London Adventure — Talkback — Tree of Knowledge — Terrible Tales — Witch Way — Dave Coniam's CALL Suite

TYPE THREE
ABC — Beeline — Datastore — Phone — Telebook — Wordstore — View — Viewspell — Viewstore

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IMPLEMENTING COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING IN HONG KONG—THE IMPACT, THE PROBLEMS, AND THE FUTURE

Ronald Ho

Using micro-computers in English classes has one primary aim—to make the teaching and learning process more effective. The micro-computer is such an advanced technological product that some of its functions and facilities that have been harnessed to language teaching cannot be substituted by or compared to conventional teaching methods. This point alone should provide sufficient justification for investigating the implementation of Computer Assisted Language Learning in Hong Kong.

Installing micro-computers is expensive. But by the end of the 1987–1988 school year, the great majority of government and subsidized secondary schools in Hong Kong will have installed at least eleven computer stations. It is estimated that these computer stations are left idle for around forty to sixty percent of normal school hours. There is great potential for implementing CALL in Hong Kong because of this favourable situation and the remaining question to ask is whether the micro-computer is really a useful teaching aid in English classes.

The Institute of Language In Education of the Education Department of Hong Kong is currently conducting an inductive study to examine the feasibility of implementing CALL in secondary schools in Hong Kong. The Institute organises refresher courses and summer workshops for teachers of English on Computer Assisted Language Learning with the aims of eliciting feedback on CALL from teachers; noting down and attempting to resolve foreseeable difficulties that may be encountered in implementing CALL in real classroom situtations; exploring the applicability of commerically produced CALL course-ware in English classes and evaluating the pedagogical value of such course-ware.

About eighty percent of teachers of English who finished our courses said they would welcome students' use of word-processors in writing lessons.

With the ease of doing insertion, deletion and moving blocks of text, the word-processor encourages students to revise and edit their work. With the word-processor, and the advantages it offers, Such as the simplicity of formatting text, planning the layout, choosing printing fonts and even putting in graphic designs, the joy of writing is increased and studies have shown that students using word-processors demonstrate a greater desire to write to communicate.

The basic phases of the writing process have been identified as: prewriting, writing, responding, revising, editing, and evaluating the postwriting. The use of the word-processor helps a great deal to facilitate writing and editing. It encourages students to respond to their own mistakes and not to be afraid of correcting errors on screen. Students are spared from being frustrated by red marks and crossing-outs. The storage and display facilities also promote peer group evaluation and revision of original texts.

The printing procedure being delayed to the very last stage enables printed-page quality of the final product and this certainly encourages post-writing activities which may include reading aloud, circulation of articles in the form of news bulletins or publication in a class or school magazine, or display on a notice-board.

The micro-computer has also been found to be useful in promoting reading in English classes.

The most outstanding feature of computer-assisted reading activities is that with three to four students sitting in front of a computer station going through an adventure game or simulation program, the act of reading is no longer a solitary pursuit but a social event. Students have to read to communicate and satisfaction does not just spring from reading but sharing as well.

Task-oriented adventure games help students become sophisticated readers who do not read passively but who use available resources—text, prior knowledge, environmental clues and potential assistants—to make sense of the text, to solve problems and employ different strategies to accomplish tasks.

Computer adventure games are highly motivating because with the necessity of keying in decisions so that the adventure or story continues to unfold, and the outcomes very much depending on the decisions taken, students are not mere readers but virtually major characters in the adventures. This is more captivating than watching television programmes which provide action-packed but passive watching.

Provided with well-written adventure stories, computer-assisted reading programs and activities can help students to become good readers who use their imaginations, visualize characters and events; who anticipate the text, predicting the course of events; gather and interpret textual evidence; relish the good bits and tell others about them; and who are truly involved in reading.

Micro-computers can breathe new life into speaking classes, stimulating and maintaining small group discussions while freeing the teacher to manage the class or focus on the language produced by the students. Verbal exchanges can be promoted since students should feel the need to communicate in order to share information and to finish the tasks prompted by the computer.

The main difficulty in implementing CALL in Hong Kong concerns teacher training. Although the Communicative Approach has been advocated in Hong Kong for a number of years, it is doubtful whether it is extensively implemented in the classroom. This is understandable because of pressure that comes from an examination-oriented curriculum, parents and even the students themselves who may prefer drill and practice type exercises or tests which are usually written down, graded and easily taken home to be revised by students and checked by parents.

492

Although, as Christopher Jones pointed out, "the computer as tester is potentially an invaluable aid to teachers; it can relieve them of the burden of constant remedial work, and of the unenviable task of trying to make such work interesting and motivating, thus releasing them for more creative and enjoyable whole-class activities."—drills and practice types of course-ware do not exploit the truly innovative potential of micro-computers in language learning.

It has been pointed out by Martin Philips, John Higgins and Christopher Jones that effective Computer Assisted Language Learning does not depend so much on computer programs but on how the programs are used by creative teachers. The use of the computer to bring about genuine use of the target language for communicative purposes depends very much on the skill of the teacher in integrating CALL programs into English lessons. The role of the teacher in a CALL environment consequently changes into that of a software evaluator, a manager of computer equipment and also a supervisor of small group learning.

While micro-computers may reduce a teacher's burden of routine chores, teachers of English in fact are likely to have to take up a more demanding and challenging job: the price of making their teaching more effective, their students more motivated and the learning environment more meaningful.

Teachers may face difficulty in getting access to computers which were not initially intended to be used for language teaching. Negotiating with the authorities for financial support to buy necessary course-ware may prove to be an unenviable business. Managing a class of over forty students inside a crowded special room with just eleven computer stations is likely to prove to be an almost impossible task. The sensible provision of hardware may be a prerequisite for implementing CALL in Hong Kong schools.

Implementing CALL is a real test of the professional skills of a teacher of English. Sound reasons and substantial evidence to support the effectiveness of CALL are indispensable in order to convince teachers to implement CALL, especially in Hong Kong where students do lack the motivation to learn English, and communicative methods of teaching English are not yet well received.

The issue is further complicated by the fact that not too many well designed CALL packages are available. And when they are available, they are expensive. Guiding teachers to write their own computer programs for pedagogical use is one feasible way around this problem and research conducted by Shi Mei-chun, Education Technology Officer at Hong Kong Polytechnic, in 1985–86, concluded that Hong Kong teachers do have the potential to produce good quality CAL packages.

Enthusiasm and willingness to implement CALL are not wanting in teachers in Hong Kong judging from the feedback from participants who have attended ILE courses on CALL. But when they return to their own classroom, they encounter all sorts of challenges, difficulties and psychological barriers in getting started. Positive outcomes from research, indicating that the trouble of designing activities, managing the computers and the classes and evaluating software and computer facilities are worthwhile; and indicating that CALL programs can really lead to more effective learning and teaching as they are thought or claimed to, will prove to be the critical factor determining the success of implementing Computer Assisted Language Learning in Hong Kong.

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TRAINING TEACHERS FOR CALL—SOME OBSERVATIONS

David Ma

The Institute of Language in Education is running an in depth induction research project into the feasibility of implementing CALL in local secondary schools. We are investigating the roles computers can play in language learning/teaching and the environments favourable to the introduction of computer use in a language classroom.

The investigation breaks down into several stages. Phase one is the basic training of language teachers. This includes an introductory course on CALL, followed by a series of thematic workshops. Phase two is visits to schools which show interest in this project, to offer on-site technical service and consultation. The last phase will be actual classroom observations. Of course these are not strict sequential stages. Up to this moment, we have experienced all three stages though not on an extensive scale.

In this paper, I would like to present some of the observations that we made during an Introductory CALL Workshop held in summer 1987. The two-week workshop we offered was conducted to prepare the teachers with the necessary experience and skills that would enable them to experiment with computer use in their language classrooms.

The objectives were:

1. to provide computer literacy sessions for the language teachers;
2. to arouse teacher awareness of the potential of computer use in ELT;
3. to boost teachers' confidence in using the machines as a teaching aid, if not as a partner;
4. to explore the possibility of and ways of integrating available computer resources into the curriculum;
5. to build the teachers' confidence in their ability to operate the hardware;
6. to expose them to the different possibilities of computer use in language teaching.

The workshop was organised thus:

Word-processing	7	hrs
Software evaluation	8	hrs
Talks & Demonstrations	22	hrs
Workshops & Discussions	8	hrs

Apart from the word processing programme which was fundamental to the workshop and had to be run in the first two days in a very structured way, the rest of the component parts were interwoven. The time for software evaluation was honestly not enough. We selected some 45 pieces from our library of software for this, based on these criteria:

1. they would provide a full range of different language activities;
2. they were of varying quality and potential;

3. they could inspire creativity and imagination in classroom situations.

The participants felt that they did not have enough time to go through a reasonable number of items from the list.

Whether CALL can find its place in school depends very much on teachers' perceptions of and attitudes to using CALL programs. In other words, their methods of conducting a CALL lesson. That is why we asked our participants to design lesson plans. The main purpose was to encourage teachers to think creatively about what a program could be used for; therefore, our strategy was to stimulate the teachers' imagination and not to guide them with our own ideas.

By the end of the Workshop, we had 30 lesson-plans finished and were very much impressed by the effort and patience the participants demonstrated. I know it is unfair to analyse and comment on lesson-plans designed by teachers with no practical CALL experience. On the other hand, we understand that there is no accepted 'CALL methodology', so the whole exercise was beneficial to both parties concerned as an exploration.

The following are what I would consider misconceptions that teachers showed from the lesson-plans they devised:

On CALL software

Of the 45 pieces of software we prepared for them to explore and to view for their respective pedagogical potential, the participants tended to confine themselves to the handful which they as teachers felt attractive. They spent so much time concentrating on certain types of programs that it became quite embarassing constantly urging them to move onto some other pieces that we thought might give them a better perspective.

Only eight different programs were used in the lesson plans. All except one are what we know as dedicated language-learning programs. This suggests that the participants were too much bound by the belief that language-learning should be tied down to explicit practice of the language. So what they were looking for were the kinds of programs which would parallel the practice or test mode of their textbooks. They termed a program 'good' if they could identify the textbook image on the screen. This explains the enthusiasm for using the handful of programs we label the Hong Kong Polytechnic CALL Suite (11 out of 30) and Matchmaster (8 out of 30). Of course, there can be no objection to using any one type of program, but the danger is failing to look for what a program can do that a teacher cannot do, which I think is the real breakthrough that CALL can offer.

The outcome of this might be that teachers would become too software dependent and would link the feasibility of implementing CALL to the availability of 'good' programs. This I would argue is the passive side of this innovation.

On the humanistic nature of CALL

The teachers tended not to see the humanistic potential of CALL software. During the workshops and software evaluation sessions, few participants showed interest in experimenting with simulations and adventures, either out of their own interest or in connection with language teaching. In discussions with them, the impression I got was that simulations or adventures were seen as fun in their own right, but the teachers couldn't see the genuine language that such software can foster.

I strongly suspect that is because they are too much tied down by the school curriculum and so much 'inside' that environment that they fail to see that if students enjoy a certain language activity, chances are that they'll be doing a lot more learning 'on the side' than either party will be aware of. Perhaps a bit of the Summerhill spirit is what is needed—having confidence in the students as well as in oneself.

On hardware

Many teachers felt that they couldn't conduct a CALL lesson because there wouldn't be enough machines for a class. They had the impression that CALL could only be implemented if each student could have a machine to himself. The language laboratory pattern of one machine to a student is the one they have in mind when imagining the use of computers in a language class.

Another reason for this might be that they couldn't see the difference between computer use and the use of textbooks and/or pen and paper.

Quite a number of the teachers explicitly expressed concern that without the presence and assistance of the computer teacher, they would not dare to operate the machines in front of the students. This is perfectly understandable as all of them were language teachers with hardly any technical background.

On pedagogy

Many of the teachers seemed confused about just what computers can and cannot do. I tried to tackle this point from the lesson objectives and language content the teachers defined with relation to the development of the lessons themselves. It was rather difficult to look for a classifiable set of language aspects that the bulk of the participants wanted the computer to give a hand with, especially as the professional background of the group varied a great deal. A study in Canada showed that vocabulary, spelling and grammar contribute the major linguistic aspects addressed in CALL and they are mainly handled in the reading and writing mode. From the objectives and language contents of the lesson plans, I've drawn up a very much generalised table, (Figure 1) that shows agreement with these findings. But if one looks at the way the lessons are meant to be executed, there is a strong suggestion that participants were using the CALL software because they had been instructed to do so. Sometimes they failed to grasp the precise nature of what the program could do for them. For instance, a teacher suggested using a sample file in "Helter-Skelter" and defined the lesson objective as "at the end of the lesson, the students will be able to discriminate the 'e' sound in 'pepper', 'ay' in 'paper' and 'ee' in 'seat' ". That seemed perfectly all right until one found the teacher required the students to say the words as they appeared on the screen to each other, and the teacher himself walked around to listen for mistakes!

Such misconceptions arise if a teacher is not clear of his own role and that of the computer's. I remember an illustration Mr. John Higgins gave in a talk at Lancaster University. He compared the role of the computer to the ancient Greek slave called a pedagogue. A pedagogue then was an educated slave taking care of his master's children. He was the bodyguard, the playmate, the tutor. His role was to amuse, to help and even to teach his young master. But he was never to initiate. He came only if he was called. He retreated once his task was finished. That I think is the way one should consider computer use in a language class. No more than as a 'slave' to learning.

Program	*Language aspect/skill*	*Mode*	*Level (Form)*	*Activity*
H.K. Polytechnic CALL Suite:				
Sequencer	Vocabulary	Reading	1	Pair
Gapper	Vocabulary	Reading	4	Group
Sequencer	Discourse	Reading	6	Group
Scrambler	Coherence	Reading	1	Group
Gapper & Scrambler	Vocabulary	Reading	1	Group
Gapper	Vocabulary	Reading	1	Group
Gapper	Grammar	Reading	1	Individual
Scrambler	Coherence	Reading	4	Group
Prepositions	Grammar	Reading	5	Group
Articles & Auxil. & preps	Syntax	Reading	4	Group
Sequencer & Gapper	Grammar	Reading	1	Group
Matchmaster				
Matchit	Coherence	Reading	5	Pair
Matchit	Coherence	Reading	5	Group
Matchit	Comprehension	Reading	3	Pair
Matchit & Gapper	Grammar	Reading	4/5	Group
Matchit & View	Integrated	Reading/W	3	Pair
Matchit	Vocabulary	Reading	5	Group
Matchit	Grammar	Reading	4	Pair
Snap	Discourse	Reading	6	Pair
Helter-Skelter				
Odd Man Out & Cloze	Vocabulary	Reading	1	Individual
Odd Man Out	Vocabulary	Reading	1	Individual
Helter-Skelter	Vocabulary	Reading	1	Group
Odd Man Out	Pronunciation	Reading	1	Pair
Pinpoint				
Pinpoint	Comprehension	Reading	4/5	Group
Pinpoint	Comprehension	Reading	2/3	Individual
Best Four (Language)				
Face Maker	Grammar	Writing	3	Group
Face Maker	Grammar	Writing	1	Individual
Textplay				
Space Out	Dictation	Writing	2	Group
Sentence Sequencing	Grammar	Reading	2	Individual
ABC	Composition	Writing	3	Pair

Figure 1

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

On authoring facilities

Most of the software the participants suggested using comes with an authoring facility, which means teachers can type in their own text files to be used by the program. Of the 30 lesson plans, 28 contained text files keyed in by the participants. This I would suggest is a good sign. But indiscriminate use of the facility lays one open to the criticism the participants themselves made during the two weeks: what's the point of using this expensive equipment if the same job can be done with pen and paper?

I raise this point because there were quite a number of participants tempted by this facility who simply transferred a whole exercise or text from the textbook onto the computer screen. Such classroom activities tended to be designed in the strict "drill and practice" style, making one wonder if the lesson could have better been executed without the computer at all.

It was interesting that one teacher in his lesson plan argued that students would be motivated by this 'new' activity. I wonder how 'new' it is for a Form 3 student to fill in a passage with articles and prepositions by using a keyboard. Teachers themselves are fascinated by this new innovation. By the time they get more used to the machines, this phenomenon hopefully will disappear.

On preparation time

When being asked to anticipate difficulties in implementing CALL in their own classes, most teachers said that they could not afford the time to prepare the lesson. Comments like "It takes too long on preparation", "don't have time to prepare", and so on confused us until they explained in the discussions that it would take them a very long time before they could design a program for language teaching purposes. Some other teachers said that they could not afford the time to integrate the software into the school curriculum.

Obviously the first comments came from a misunderstanding of CALL, while the latter comment reminded us of the heavy workload every teacher takes up.

Examples of CALL Lessons

I would like to stress again the point that there can not be one single correct method of using computers in a language class. It is very much the teacher's way of manipulating the computer as a resource that is important. Despite the misconceptions that I have talked about, there were teachers who saw more of the potential of CALL almost intuitively. I would like to describe three lessons designed by the same group of teachers attending our Summer Workshop to show what a CALL lesson may look like.

The first lesson was designed for a Form 3 class, aimed at practising the description of facial features of people. The teacher starts by describing a crime situation to the class, then divides the class into small groups of policemen and witnesses. The witness groups are shown pictures of the suspects, while the police groups sit at the computers with the program

499

"Face Maker". The interview takes the form of questions from the police group and answers from the witnesses. The police groups type in the responses to 'draw' the face of the suspect on the computer screen. When satisfied, they compare these faces with the pictures held by the witnesses.

One merit of this lesson is that the teacher is able to design activities around a free-standing computer program, making the best use of it. He does not need to spend hours and hours on preparation. All he needs to do is to dump several pictures from the screen before the lesson starts. Students on the other hand, have got authentic materials to practice with. Communication is essential, and fits perfectly with the general philosophy of communicative language teaching, i.e. genuine language use to bridge an information gap.

Looking at the structure of the lesson, the teacher is to spend five minutes in briefing the class on the crime situation, another five in assigning groups and pictures. The students then would have 25 minutes on the main activity, leaving five minutes at the end to compare and talk about their pictures, if it is a 40 minute lesson.

Contrasting this lesson plan with the misconceptions I mentioned earlier, we should look at the program used, time to prepare for the lesson, the number of machines required, the learning environment created, and the language addressed. A summarising table like Figure 2 can then be drawn up for the purpose of the evaluation:

Program Used: *Face Maker*
    —screen: attractive, simple, colourful
    —graphics: simple and attractive
    —instructions: simple, very readable
    —overall: pedagogically flexible

Preparation Time: minimal

No. of Machines Required: 2 (as designated in the lesson plan)

Learning Environment:
    —group work
    —informal
    —motivating (immediate feedback, graded achievements, etc.)

Lauguage Addressed: grammar—adjectives

Figure 2

Of course there are weaknesses in such a lesson plan. The most obvious one is the limitation and restriction of the vocabulary, in this case adjectives. This is precisely the point where the teacher has to identify and assert himself, by designing follow-up activities to compensate for what the program has failed to do.

In this example the teacher designed a follow-up lesson in which the students were to write a short description on the suspect, based on what they had done. The language produced this time would be in the written mode, from the students' own hand, and would swing the learning process back to the conventional syllabus.

Another lesson was desgined for dictation purpose. We all know that dictation can be a rather boring exercise for students. The coventional way is that the teacher goes straight to the exercise, making the students doubt if their previous revision or preparation was enough. This teacher suggested using a simple program called 'Space Out' for revision and motivation. The program works like this. A text with no punctuation or spaces at all is presented on the screen. Users have to add in punctuation marks and spaces to reconstruct the passage into a meaningful text. Of course the computer activity in this case is done in small groups. When that is finished, the actual dictation exercise would start.

This has the merit of tackling all the syntactic and lexical knowledge previously learnt in a subtler than usual manner. The teacher manages to use the computer as an aid in his teaching in this sense; and of course, dictation can be fun.

The third lesson exploits the computer as a motivational device. The teacher keys in the first part of a suspense story and, by making use of the 'Sentence Sequencer' program designed by D. Foulds and A. Cheung at the Hong Kong Polytechnic, is able to jumble up the sentence order in a random way. The students are asked, in small groups, to rearrange the text and to finish the story by using the simple word-processing program VIEW on the same machine.

Conclusion

In these examples there is room for further investigation, such as identifying what type of language the students use, the style of exchanges, the style of learning, the peer learning/checking activities, and so on. These need to be done in actual classroom observations and are not within the scope of this paper. What we can state, however, at this point is the value to teachers in terms of stimulating their imaginations and encouraging rethinking of methods that CALL lesson planning fosters.

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USING COMMERCIALLY-AVAILABLE SOFTWARE TO PROVIDE A SELF-ACCESS COMPUTER-BASED LEARNING ENVIRONMENT FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF WRITING SKILLS

Jonathan J. Webster

Introduction

As the title suggests, the focus of my paper is on what software is immediately available on the market which makes the personal computer a resource for a writing skills development program. On-line dictionaries, word games, style checkers have a role to play alongside the word processing software in providing students in tertiary-level institutions with a self-access learning environment. Important writing skills can be taught and reinforced through their association with tools students are likely to keep using long after their participation in such a program. These tools, however, need to be fully integrated within a learning environment which addresses the real and the felt needs of students in tertiary-level institutions in a multilingual setting.

Addressing real and felt needs in a multilingual setting

In a multilingual setting, students may have difficulty becoming aware of and overcoming those cultural and linguistic habits of one language/dialect that interfere with and hinder effective communication in another. Students for whom English is a second or foreign language are usually most aware of their limited range of vocabulary, as well as their difficulties with spelling, punctuation and grammar. Such felt needs are perhaps the most amenable to a mechanical solution, and software developers have been quick to respond. The availability of word games, spelling checkers and style checkers certainly should help to alleviate that feeling of insecurity which often becomes a preoccupation when writing.

Beyond these more obvious needs are others which are no less real. Students in an ESL/EFL setting also need to pay attention to their organization of ideas, as well as the texture of their writing. In other words, there must be coherence and cohesion in the written text.

Robert E. Longacre, in a paper delivered at the Third LACUS Forum 1976 entitled, "Generating a Discourse from its Abstract," states what is essentially true of discourse in general: "The sentences of a discourse must not only be properly linked to each other; they must also *cohere* lexically. This coherence requirement is best met by assuming that every discourse has an underlying macro-structure or *abstract* which dictates the consistent choice of particular lexical items throughout the discourse" (1977:355). Further on in the same paper, Longacre compares the process of discourse development to the development of an animal from its embryo, and concludes, "The development from the germ to the viable infant must, of course, be according to the DNA specification. So here we assume that there is some kind of overall notion of the whole discourse which acts as a constraint on how it may be developed, fleshed out, and covered over in the end" (357). Coherence in a written text reflects a top-down writing strategy in which the writer's choice of words and arrangement of clauses depends on his/her awareness of the overall organization of the text.

Cohesion, on the other hand, provides what Halliday and Hasan call 'texture'. As they explain, "the concept of cohesion accounts for the essential semantic relations whereby any passage of speech or writing is enabled to function as a text" (1976:13). Cohesive devices such as cataphora, ellipses, and apposition are features found in mature writing. Discussing the features of mature and immature writing, Mark Sharples states the following (1985:32):

> The most common clause or sentence link of immature writers is "then", ususally a product of "what next" composing strategy, with the writer treating the generation of each sentence as a separate task and tacking one event onto another in a simple linear sequence. A mature writer will coordinate by expressing a relation between clauses and sentences by means of an adverbial phrase such as "Next morning", or will vary the links to include causality, inference or contrast. Cohesive devices such as ellipses, cataphora, and apposition demand the ability to abstract syntactic patterns and to delete or substitute repeated words or structures.

EFL/ESL students face additional difficulties arising out of differences in cultural expectations with respect to the presentation of arguments and structuring of information.

Ongoing research at Hong Kong Baptist College

Two research projects have recently been begun at the Hong Kong Baptist College which are intended to address these real and felt needs. The first, *Computer Assisted Composition* (CAC) has as its main objective the design of a self-access computer-based learning environment for developing the writing skills of students at the College. A unique emphasis of the project is the attempt to build a CBL environment for developing writing skills using features available with word-processing software already on the market and likely to be used by students long after their participation in such a program.

Lotus Symphony has been chosen for the project for the following reasons:

a. Symphony is integrated with spreadsheet, graphics, database, telecommunications, and windowing capabilities;
b. Symphony's own add-in programs which include a spelling checker and outline manager;
c. Symphony's Command Language (SCL) which permits the creation of sophisticated programs inside the Symphony worksheet.

The aim is to acquaint students with those features which support the components of the writing process, namely, pre-writing, writing/revising, formatting and polishing. SCL provides the means for creating a shell into which the software's capabilities may be explored and fully realized and the student's own writing thereby enhanced.

There are three stages in the project methodology:

(i) needs assessment,
(ii) program design, and
(iii) product implementation and assessment.

Following design of the program, we plan to incorporate it into existing courses to complement in-class work. Assessment of the usefulness of the program will be based on feedback from student and staff participating in the project.

The goal of the second project is to design a program for parsing text according to Halliday's Functional Grammar. Based on his *Introduction to Functional Grammar* (1985), I am constructing a parser to assist in the analysis of texts. The program will interface between the user and the text along lines of an expert system posing questions, presenting alternative analyses where necessary, leading to an analysis of the text in terms of clause complex, theme-rheme, information, cohesion, mood and modality, and transitivity.

As Halliday notes, "Among the particular tasks for which this grammar has been used are: analysis of children's written composition; analysis of teacher-pupil communication ('classroom discourse'); analysis of the language of textbooks including textbooks being translated into other languages, comparison of different registers or functional varieties of English; stylistic analysis of poems and short stories; analysis of foreign learners' perceptions of how their English could be improved . . ." (xv).

Halliday's Systemic-Functional Grammar has long attracted the attention of those working in computational linguistics, most notably Terry Winograd from Stanford University. While the systemic portion of Halliday's grammar is currently stored on computer (1985: xv), the text upon which the Functional Grammar Parser is based is Halliday's most recent work which he distinguishes from previous work in the following manner: "what is presented here is not the systemic portion of a description of English, with the grammar represented as networks of choices, but the structural portion in which we show how the options are realized" (1985:xv).

The parser and the interface will be written using Turbo Prolog and Turbo C, both products of Borland International. Work on the parser is beginning with the formulation of a Prolog database of facts about the structure and function of language which will serve as a basis for bracketing and labelling linguistic units. Besides the facts that Turbo C routines can be called by Turbo Prolog. Turbo Prolog also has the ability to access Symphony files. The Functional Grammar Parser can easily be used to analyze written work composed using Symphony's word processor.

I see the Functional Grammar Parser as being particularly useful in aiding analysis of written texts at the clause level. Not only will the parser quickly identify the cohesive markers in a text, but also may even help in discovering the rhetorical organization of a text. On this point, Halliday comments,

> "When we come to consider the rhetorical organization of a text, this too can be discovered from a reading of the clause patterns, in this case those having to do with functional sentence perspective; what are the elements that function predominantly as theme, and what are the elements that function predominantly as news."

The Functional Grammar Parser begins to address the need for including assessment of written texts at the clause level. As it is, however, the FGP remains a linguist's tool. To make it useful to the non-specialist user in a self-access computer-based learning environment, a linguistically sophisticated, user-friendly interface-plus-interpreter would be required. The Functional Grammar Parser is a first step toward filling a gap left by the failure of commercially-available software to address the need for clause-level assessment in a writing development program.

Designing a CBL environment for developing writing skills

One example of a CBL environment for developing writing skills is the Athena Writing Center Project which is part of an Institute-wide experiment at M.I.T. to integrate modern computer and communication capabilities into all phases of the educational process. Principal Investigator with the Project is Dr Janet Horowitz Murray. According to the project description, the Centre "will serve as a model of the pragmatic, efficient application of computer technology to the teaching of writing" (1985:65). Software being developed to be used at the Writing Center and Workshop includes:

(1) an editor/formatter;
(2) a windowing utility for use in commenting on and revising papers;
(3) outlining devices, including some specialized "template" outlines keyed to particular tasks, such as engineering theses;
(4) manipulable verbal models and word "games" to enhance student understanding of the richness of language, including (1) a model of English etymology and (2) a series of exercises to stimulate the creativity of poetry students, as well as to increase their understanding of the workings of poetic form;
(5) diagnostic routines for grammatical and stylistic problems;
(6) tutorials in common errors, including English as a second language;
(7) software to allow for in-class editing and collective composition;
(8) exercises for alleviating writer's block and for facing 3 a.m. panic.

A number of the features just listed are already available on the market. My point is this, why not incorporate these ready-made tools into our writing programs. I will cite only a few examples. It is not my intention to list all the software available, rather only to alert to the kinds of tools the reader already in use. These tools, morever, need to be integrated into a learning environment. The components of a self-access computer-based learning environment for developing writing skills include pre-writing, writing/revising, formatting and polishing. In the pre-writing component, one begins to formulate his/her ideas into a coherent whole with a view to how the text will impact upon the intended audience. In the next phase, recalling Longacre's analogy, this skeletal organisation is fleshed out through a recursive process of writing/revising. Once the writer is satisfied that the draft fulfills his/her objectives, it is then ready to be polished and set up in the appropriate format.

Using an outline manager

An outline manager encourages the writer to organize his/her ideas according to a conceptual framework conceived at the pre-writing stage. Lotus Symphony and Microsoft Word, the former a spreadsheet with word processing capability, the latter a dedicated word processor, both have outline managers. Both also allow windowing. The outline can be created in one window while the text appears in the second. The two windows can be viewed simultaneously.

Outlining helps to focus the writer's attention on the conceptual framework of his/her text. This perspective on the text should continue in the creation of text. While writing/revising the text, should the writer feel that a certain point belongs elsewhere in the text. The writer can call up the outline of his/her text on to the screen in a separate window viewed along side of the text and modify the outline. Simultaneously that part of the document corresponding to that point in the outline shifts accordingly. Or the writer can delete a subsection from the outline and the corresponding portion of the text is deleted from the document. Outlining promotes a perspective of the text as a structure of ideas.

On the one hand students can devise their own outlines from scratch. However if the object of instruction involves texts which in the words of Sharples (1985), "conform to general frameworks which prescribe an ordering of concepts to fit a convention of style or a common order of events" (p. 34), if may be useful to present learners with templates to model their work after. The detail of such templates will vary depending on the maturity of the learners and the type of text being written. For example in the book *Thesis Projects in Science and Engineering* (1980), Richard Davis suggests the following list of items to be included in a thesis proposal:

1. Background
2. Problem
3. Scope
4. Assumptions
5. Summary of Current Knowledge
6. Standards
7. Approach
8. Materials and Equipment
9. Other Support

The outline manager can also be used to provide a highly structured environment in which the student writer is prompted step by step through the creation of a text. To illustrate, I will cite an example from a seminar

I gave with Dr. Mohson Ghadessy earlier this year in Singapore for the Singapore Association of Applied Linguistics. (See Webster, Jonathan J. and Ghadessy, M. "Form and Function in English Business Letters: Implications for Computer-based Learning" in Ghadessy, M. (Ed.) *Registers of Written English*, London: Frances Pinter, 1988.) In the seminar we were discussing the form and function of business letters with attention to the pedagogical implications for CBL. The example which follows uses Microsoft Word's outline processing tool.

Suppose you are the learner and you have been asked to reply to a letter of enquiry regarding your products, where would you begin? Into Window 1 you load the MODEL document, and in Window 2 the PROMPT document (see Screen 1 in Appendix 1). Both documents are shown in outline view. Upper case "T" in the selection bar along the left hand side of the window indicates a line of text. Lower case "t" in the selection bar shows there is body text collapsed below the headings "Ackowledge and respond" and "Invite". To begin the session, the learner starts printing in Window 2. Without going into detail about the mechanics of the program that run behind the scenes, I will go through the steps that lead the learner through the writing process.

In Screen 1 there is a prompt at the bottom of the screen—"Dear WHO?—asking to whom the letter should be addressed. We enter "Sirs" above the prompt next to "VALUE:". The prompts continue as shown in successive Screens 2 through 4 taking the learner step by step through the construction of a reply.

Prompt	*Screen*	*Enter*
Dear WHO?	1	Sirs
First acknowledge the letter received	2	Thank you for your letter of 9 June 1986.
Any item enclosed?	3	Please see the enclosed . . .
Do you wish to invite further contact	4	Please feel free to contact me . . .

Once the prompt routine is completed the letter composed by the learner is printed out (see Document 1).

Note that in Window 1 of Screen 5 we have expanded the body text under the heading "Acknowledge and respond." This is done simply by moving the highlight to the heading, holding the shift key and pressing and plus key (+) on the numeric keypad. To hide the text below the heading one moves the highlight and presses the minus key (−) on the numeric keypad.

The MODEL texts are actual letters, While the models chosen should be grammatically correct, it should be pointed how the learner's own wording may be an improvement on the model text. In the example cited, the rather stilted "undersigned" might be better replaced by the object pronoun "me" in the sentence, "Please do not hesitate to contact me . . ."

The prompt sequence can be either kept brief with few in number, or expanded and their number increased, depending on the learner's need. The prompt sequence should in any case familiarize learners with the general outlines of various letter types. Prompts may be regarded as a kind of checklist of ideas as to how to develop and structure a business letter.

This example is highly simplistic. It illustrates only one potential application of an outline manager. The usefulness of such a structured approach depends on the maturity of the writer and the type of text being written. As the writer becomes more mature in his/her writing, of course the need for prompts would diminish. However, the oultine manager as a word processing tool, to be used in conjunction with the writing of the document, should hopefully become part of the writer's habit.

```
Dear sirs,

As indicated
[ ≠ Overstated or Pompous                SHOWED, SHOWN, SUGGESTED]
in the accompanying
[ ≠ Overstated or Pompous                ENCLOSED (for letters)]
press release, presently
[ ≠ Vague adverb                         NOW]
we are implementing
[ ≠ Overstated or Pompous                DEVELOPING, CARRYING OUT]
a new advertising campaign which will soon be completed.
[ ≠ Wording—PASSIVE VOICE                          ]
  Its effectiveness
[ ≠ Hackneyed, Cliche, or Trite          SUCCESS]
will be based
[ ≠ Wording—PASSIVE VOICE                          ]
on the fact that
[ ≠ Hackneyed, Cliche, or Trite: Weak. Omit and state the fact.]
we're making a study
[ ≠ Longwinded or Wordy                  STUDY]
of methods in a survey. Hopefully,
[ ≠ Hackneyed, Cliche, or Trite: I HOPE, or omit.]
by now you have received a xerox
[ ≠ Trademark                            PHOTOCOPY]
of our survey. We'd like to facilitate
[ ≠ Overstated or Pompous                HURRY, EASE, SIMPLIFY, HELP]
an early response from you. We want to present a report
[ ≠ Longwinded or Wordy                  REPORT]
to you of our findings ASAP.
[ ≠ Hackneyed, Cliche, or Trite: Be specific.]
  So far the consensus of opinion
[ ≠ Redundant                            CONSENSUS]
is approximately
[ ≠ Misused often                        ROUGHLY, unless ALMOST EXACTLY]
what we expected. of course, we can not
[ ≠ Spelling                             CANNOT]
prepare for the market to the fullest possible extent
[ ≠ Longwinded or Wordy                  COMPLETELY, FULLY, TOTALLY]
until we hear from you. And, since the criteria is
[ ≠ Usage in question                    CRITERION IS, CRITERIA ARE]
rather technical, it's absolutely essential
[ ≠ Redundant                            ESSENTIAL]
to receive your input.
Our marketing plan centers around
```

```
[ # Usage in question                          : CENTER ON]
the customers you want to contact. Actually,
[ # Vague adverb                               : This is weak. Consider omitting.]
we could care less
[ # informal or Illiterate                     : COULDN'T CARE LESS]
what the competition does. But, let's not wait on
[ # Informal or Illiterate                     : WAIT FOR]
them to make the first move.
```

Figure 1

```
SUMMARY FOR: EXAMPLE 2.TXT                              Suspect problems marked: 25

 GRADE SCHOOL      HIGH SCHOOL    COLLEGE GRADUATE   GRADUATE SCHOOL
 3  4  5  6  7  8   9  10  11  12     Fr  So  Jr  Sr     +1  +2  +3  +4  phd
                     *—Flesch Grade Level (Reading Ease: 70)

SENTENCE STATISTICS
    Number of Sentences:   11                 Short (< 14 words):   8 (73%)
    Average Length: 13.3 words                Long (> 30 words):    0 ( 0%)
    End with "?":        0   (0%)             Shortest (#     4)    9 words
    End with "!":        0   (0%)             Longest (#      1)   22words

WORD STATISTICS
    Number of Words: 147                      Average Length: 4.6 letters

SPECIAL STATISTICS (as estimated % of Sentences or Words)
    Passive voice: 2 (18%  S)                 Prepositions: 20 (14% W)
```

Figure 2

Using checkers for style and spelling

When it comes to polishing the text, there is no shortage of software tools available. I will discuss two examples, one is a style checker called Grammatik II from Wang Laboratories, the other a spelling checker called Turbo Lightning from Borland International.

The 'wonders' Grammatik II claims for itself include:

(i) finding typographical errors, eg. doubled punctuation and words;
(ii) finding unbalanced and omitted punctuation and capitalization errors;
(iii) identifying clumsy, hackneyed, trite, misused, pretentious, redundant and wordy phrases (see Figure 2 from GII's instruction manual);
(iv) generating a list of all the words in the document numerically and alphabetically.

In addition, GII generates a readability analysis and statistical Summary Report which also shows the count and percentage of passive voice patterns and prepositions (see Figure 2 from GII's instruction manual).

To use such a tool effectively, the user must be able to evaluate the validity of judgments made by the program. The problem I see with a tool such as this, espeically for ESL/EFL students, is that the user may be intimidated by the software and feel compelled to make changes to perfectly acceptable prose.

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Most are familiar with the on-line dictionaries that serve as spelling checkers. For any who are interested, a review of 31 spelling checkers available on the market appeared in PC Magazine (Vol 6 No. 17, Oct 13, 1987). Another review of thesaurus programs appeared in an earlier issue of PC Magazine (Vol. 6, No. 13, 21 July 1987).

One spelling checker plus thesaurus which has attracted considerable attention for its speed and unique design is Borland's Turbo Lightning. It comes with four versions of the Random House Dictionary ranging in size from 130,000 to 10,000 words. Lightning even maintains a small dictionary of common first-pair-inversions. If you type "fo" or "hte", Lightning calls your attention to the error and suggests "of" or "the" among the words you most likely intended.

The most interesting feature with Turbo Lightning is that the manufacturer has revealed the inner workings of the Lightning interface thereby providing access to and control over Lightning's data compression techniques and sound-alike algorithms. An example of the usefulness of this interface engine is a collection of word games and solvers called Lightning Word Wizard. Besides the fact that the games can access any of the four versions of the Random House Dictionary, the games display an attractive interface and machine response is fast. The games and solvers include:

Games	
Akerue!	Discover the hidden words concealed within the game board.
Mix up	Unscramble the word before the time runs out.
That's Rite	Detect the misspelled word. Or in the most difficult level of the game, determine the word that doesn't belong in the list of synonyms you're shown.
Word Hunter	Unravel the clues to discover which word the Wizard is 'thinking' of.
Solvers	
CrossSolver	Rapidly finds the word you need by using Turbo Lightning's dictionary.
FixUp	Quickly solves anagrams; for example, it can solve 5-letter anagrams in about 10 seconds.
Code Cracker	Multiple-replacement cipher that decodes messages coded using the telephone number pad.

Lighting is no ordinary spelling-checker: PC Magazine goes so far as to say:

> "Spreadsheets allowed number-oriented people to do things with personal computers that they could never do before. All the outliners, word processors, and other tools for word people never made the PC into the promised creativity machine it was supposed to be for word- and fact-oriented people.
>
> Lightning, in a stroke of originality, has forever changed all that."

Conclusion

Those of us familiar with some example of word processing software can probably testify to its impact on our own writing habits. Revision is no longer a chore. Drafts are all the more tentative. After all, one can always print another draft with some further alteration. There is no getting away from the fact that using a PC for word processing makes a difference. For some of our colleagues, however, the new technology is an imposition. They are set in their ways and resistant to change. However for the sake of our students who will most likely have to work with this new technology, let us begin to inculcate good work habits that fit the available technology. Our pedagogy cannot afford to ignore the tools that can improve the performance of our students as well as improve their competitiveness in a marketplace that looks more and more disapprovingly on the computer illiterate.

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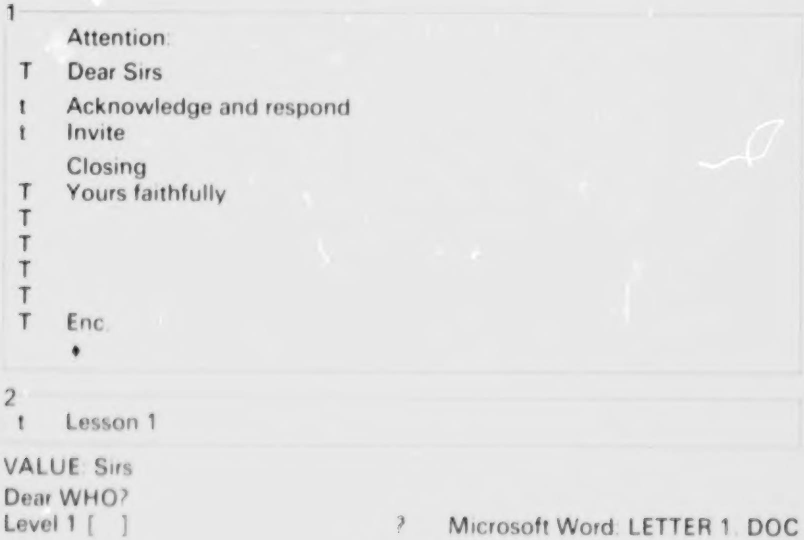
APPENDIX



1

Attention:

T Dear Sirs

t Acknowledge and respond

t Invite

Closing

T Yours faithfully

T

T

T

T

T Enc.

♦

2

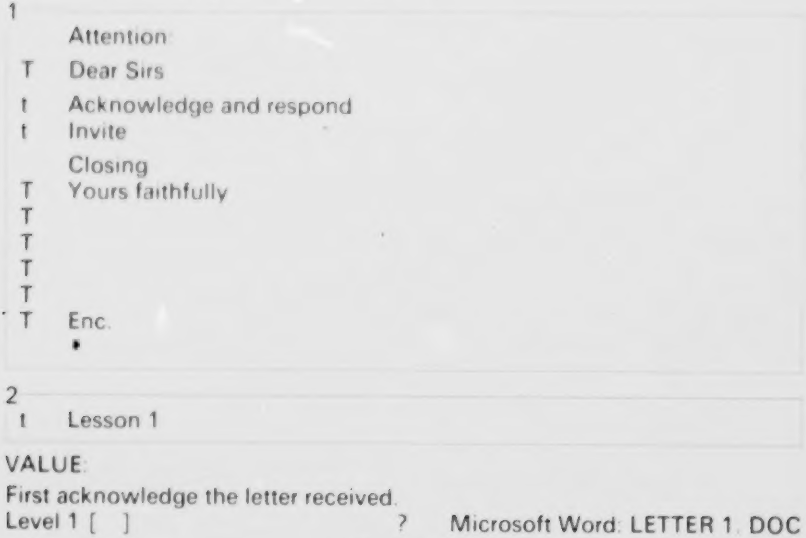
t Lesson 1

VALUE: Sirs

Dear WHO?

Level 1 [ ] ? Microsoft Word: LETTER 1. DOC

Screen 1



1

Attention:

T Dear Sirs

t Acknowledge and respond

t Invite

Closing

T Yours faithfully

T

T

T

T

T Enc.

♦

2

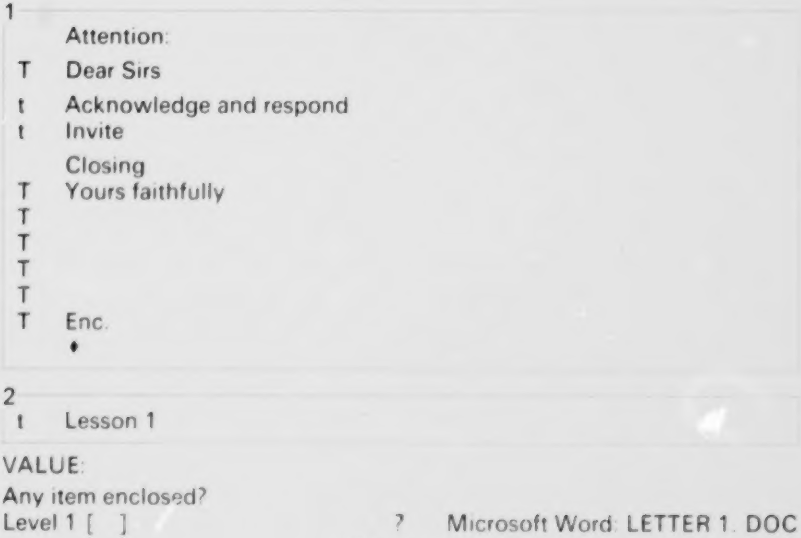
t Lesson 1

VALUE:

First acknowledge the letter received.

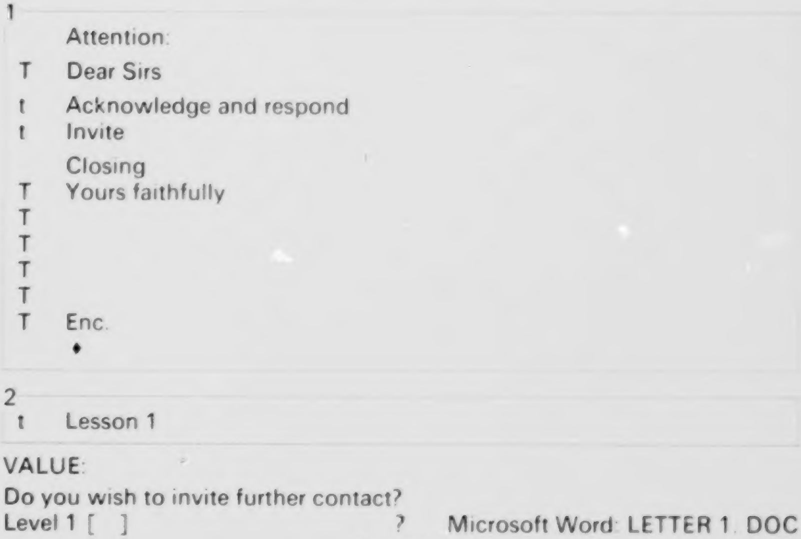
Level 1 [ ] ? Microsoft Word: LETTER 1. DOC

Screen 2



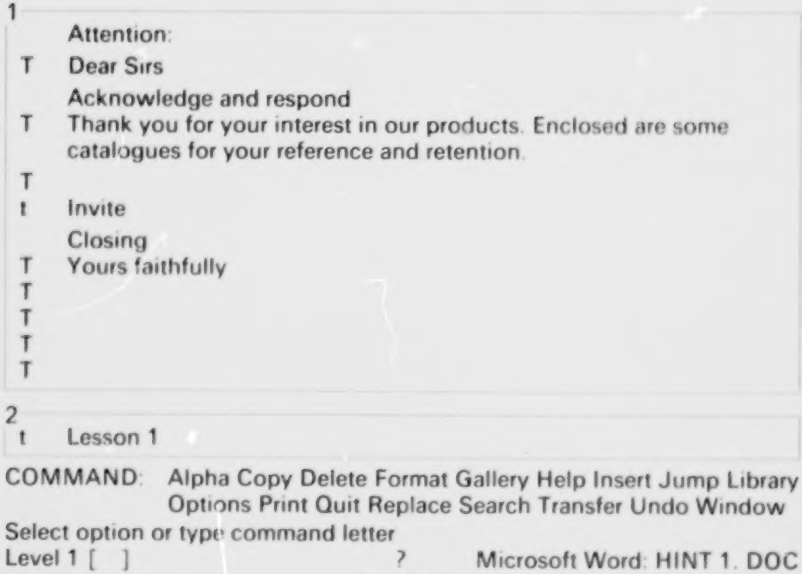
```
1
     Attention:
T    Dear Sirs
t    Acknowledge and respond
t    Invite
     Closing
T    Yours faithfully
T
T
T
T
T    Enc.
     ♦
2
t    Lesson 1
VALUE:
Any item enclosed?
Level 1 [   ]                     ?    Microsoft Word: LETTER 1. DOC
```

Screen 3



```
1
     Attention:
T    Dear Sirs
t    Acknowledge and respond
t    Invite
     Closing
T    Yours faithfully
T
T
T
T
T    Enc.
     ♦
2
t    Lesson 1
VALUE:
Do you wish to invite further contact?
Level 1 [   ]                     ?    Microsoft Word: LETTER 1. DOC
```

Screen 4

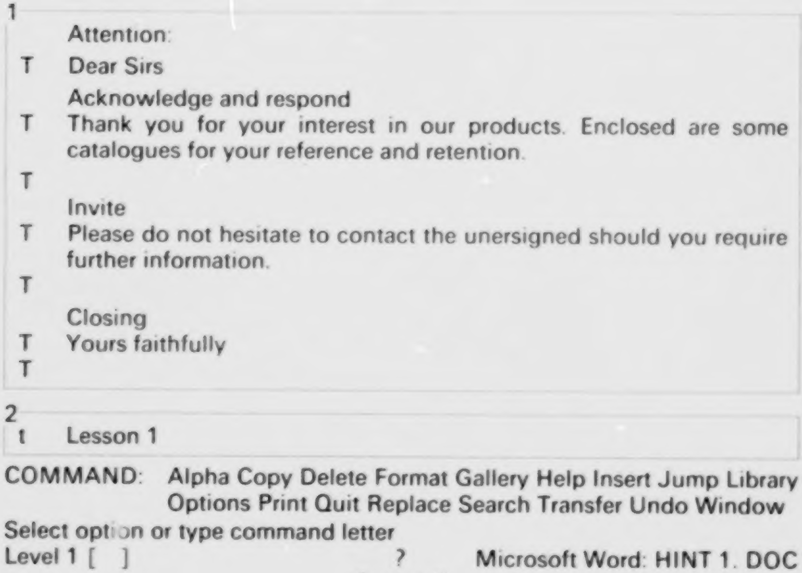


```
1
     Attention:
T    Dear Sirs
     Acknowledge and respond
T    Thank you for your interest in our products. Enclosed are some
     catalogues for your reference and retention.
T
t    Invite
     Closing
T    Yours faithfully
T
T
T
T

2
t    Lesson 1

COMMAND:  Alpha Copy Delete Format Gallery Help Insert Jump Library
          Options Print Quit Replace Search Transfer Undo Window
Select option or type command letter
Level 1 [   ]                     ?       Microsoft Word: HINT 1. DOC
```

Screen 5



```
1
     Attention:
T    Dear Sirs
     Acknowledge and respond
T    Thank you for your interest in our products. Enclosed are some
     catalogues for your reference and retention.
T
     Invite
T    Please do not hesitate to contact the unersigned should you require
     further information.
T
     Closing
T    Yours faithfully
T

2
t    Lesson 1

COMMAND:  Alpha Copy Delete Format Gallery Help Insert Jump Library
          Options Print Quit Replace Search Transfer Undo Window
Select option or type command letter
Level 1 [   ]                     ?       Microsoft Word: HINT 1. DOC
```

Screen 6

Attention:

Dear Sirs

Thank you for your letter of 9 June 1986. Please see the enclosed materials which should help to answer any questions you might have about the products we carry.

Please feel free to contact me again should you have any questions.

Your faithfully

Enc.

Document 1

CODE SWITCHING OF HONG KONG TERTIARY STUDENTS IN *COLOSSAL ADVENTURE*

Anthony C. M. Cheung and Betty S. N. Tse

I. INTRODUCTION

The employment of adventure games in TESL has been looked upon favourably by many authors including Papert (1980), Harrison (1983), Higgins and Johns (1984), Molloy (1986), Miller and Burnett (1986) and others. For example, Higgins and Johns have maintained that with such games, there is "usually even richer use of the [target] language" (p.64). Miller and Burnett point out that language educationists who hold a holistic view look upon adventure games as providing opportunities for "actively engaging the student using a language in a problem sloving context" (p.162).

A project involving two pairs of Hong Kong tertiary students working on *Colossal Adventure*, a microcomputer version of a text-only adventure games has recently been conducted at the Hong Kong Polytechinc. As will be reported in greater detail later, the subjects communicated predominantly in the second language. On the basis of the data collected, this paper investigates the code-switching phenomenon of Hong Kong tertiary students who worked on adventure games as English exercises. This paper has three objectives. First, it attempts to investigate the circumstances in which the subjects switched from English to Cantonese, that is from their second language to their first language. Second, it studies the circumstances in which the subjects switched from Cantonese to English, that is from their mother tongue to their second language. Third, it strives to identify instances of lexical substitution and attempts to provide explanations relating to the phenomenon.

Code-switching is a typical behaviour of bilinguals or multilinguals. This bilingual behaviour is characterised by alternative code choices or communicative strategies. Saville-Troike (1982) and Hudson (1980) define *code* as "a neutral term used to refer both to a language and to a variety of a language". According to sociolinguists such as Ervin-Tripp (1969), Gumperz (1971) and Hymes (1977), *code switching, code swaying, code mixing* and *interference* are terminologies for describing the phenomena of inserting a code/language into another. Gumperz and Hernández-Chavez (1971) have stated that "the greater part of the instances of true code switching consist of entire sentences inserted into the other language text" (p. 319), while Gibbons (1978) thinks that *code switching*, especially that of a rhetorical type, often takes place at sentence or phrase boundaries, but may involve clauses, phrases or words inserted into a base language.

However, it would appear that claiming that this claim is all too arbitrary. Therefore, in this paper, the working definition of *code switching* is inclusion in conversation both linguistic and paralinguistic elements which are characteristic of two or more codes.

This paper has four major sections. Following the Introduction, Section II describes the design of the experiment. Section III presents and discusses the key findings in relation to the switching of codes of the subjects. These include statistics for turns and VDU input; switches from English to Cantonese and vice versa, and instances of lexical substitution. Finally, conclusions drawn from the findings will be presented in Section IV.

II. DESIGN OF THE EXPERIMENT

In the experiment, two pairs of Hong Kong Polytechnic students who were adventure game novices were asked to work on *Colossal Adventure*. As reflected in their public examination grades, one pair was more proficient in English than the other. The 'strong' subjects had both scored Grade 'A's in English in both the HKCEE and the HKALE examinations. They are referred to as A and B in the subsequent analysis. The 'weak' subjects only had a pass in English in the HKCEE, the lower level examination. They are referred to as C and D. In a pre-work preparation session, the subjects were given a clue sheet which included all the verbs and directions that the program understood. Next, the objective of the game was made known to them, i.e., they were to locate and enter the cave where most of the treasures were hidden. The students were asked to look upon the game as an English exercise and that there was one rule that they had to follow: they had to speak to one another in English while working on the game. Finally, their consent to being video-recorded during the experiment was sought. Appendix A provides full details of the clue sheet.

The subjects then came in pairs and each worked on the game for eight hours in a two-week span. Their work at the first and eighth hours were video-recorded. During each of the recording sessions, the experimenter was only present at the studio at the beginning and final stages to attend to the switches. For most of the time, the subjects were left alone in the room. The absence of the experimenter and other personnel was to cause the least disturbance. Therefore, a rather relaxed environment was created. From the recording, one could tell that the subjects were not at all bothered by the presence of the hardware. They worked on the game seriously and communicated predominantly in English in quite a natural manner.

Two video cameras were used. One focused on the subjects and the other on the VDU screen. Both types of input were fed into a special effect generator and a split screen image was recorded. The subjects appeared on the top half of the screen while the VDU display appeared at the bottom. Audio tapes were duplicated to facilitate the transcription process. Subsequently, the transcripts of the four hours of recorded data were completed. These transcripts were labelled as S1, S8, W1 and W8. S1 is the transcript of the first hour's work of the strong pair. S8 is the eighth hour of the same pair. W1 is the first hour of the weak pair. W8 is the eighth hour of the latter pair. Moreover, in the subsequent discussions, the abbreviations

S1, S8, W1 and W8 are also employed to represent the various working sessions of the pairs as described above.

III. PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

In this section, the findings relating to code-switching are discussed. First of all, statistics for the turns uttered by the subjects and VDU input relating to the four video sessions are presented. This is summarised in Table 1.

	S1	S8	W1	W8	OVERALL
TURNS	A: 483 B: 477	A: 580 B: 635	C: 514 D: 440	C: 801 D: 851	
(single item turns)	158	271	184	712	1325
total	960	1215	954	1652	4781
VDU INPUT					
(with utterance preceding)	98	437	226	745	1506
(no utterance preceding)	0	117	14	90	221
total	98	554	240	835	1727

Table 1 *A Summary of Statistics for Turns and VDU Input*

From Table 1, one could see that the number of turns uttered by both pairs of subjects during the first hour were alike. However, the weak pair had a significant increase of turns at the eighth hour, from 954 in W1 to 1652 in W8. Almost half of the W8 turns were single item turns. Comparing the number of turns to the number of VDU inputs, at the first hour, both pairs executed relatively less VDU input and made lengthier utterances. At the eighth hour, on the other hand, the number of turns which consisted mainly of single items increased. This was coupled with a large increase of VDU input. It was evident that the subjects were aware that the eighth session was their final one at the game. they were speeding along attempting to make further progress.

L1 Sequence

Throughout the four hours' work, only two instances of the subjects speaking to one another in the mother tongue were recorded. These are provided in example [1.1] and [1.2] below.

[1.1] *W1/11-12*

D: Move west

VDU Input: WEST (D)

***C: Move west, go west, go to the heaven (5)
down the river, OK? (1)

"down" is stressed
"down" the river. OK" seems to be uttered in an impatient and urging tone
C doesn't want to move WEST. "go to heaven" is perhaps a realisation of the BOOH factor
This is the first occurrence of C's suggestion of going down the river but is ignored until he breaks into Cantonese some 60 turns afterwards

D We are, we are, in here (2)

"here" is stressed

D We are, we are, in here (2)

"here" is stressed

C Yes

"yes" seems to be uttered in an annoyed manner

D Building is here (3)

***C Down the river

The second occurrence is uttered in an annoyed manner

D We, we must enter the building first (1)

C And then /ŋɒ dei/, we, we out the building OK. (?) (1) agree?
(1) we stand outside the building

(we)

D We must get the lamp first (1)

C Take, take
D Get the lamp, get the lamp, get the lamp,
we must get the lamp first (5)

VDU Input GET THE LAMP (D)

D Then go, into the building, we [move
C [No (1)

"no" is stressed

D There's some [coins in the building
C [OK OK, OK OK (5)

VDU Input EAST (D)
They enter the building because the issue of going down the river is irrelevant for the time being

D [Get, we must get, get the, get the keys first
C [Down, down

C Get the key OK? (6)

VDU Input GET THE KEYS (D)

D Then move down

C Down

VDU Input DOWN (D)

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D: See any treasure there (2)

C: Then (1) no coins. [no coins here

D: [No coins.
no coins (12)

C: /ħau[faː n/

D: [We've, we have already get the,
get the, get the coins, move upward

(very annoyed)

C: Upward, [yes

D: [Up (1) U P, up again (2)

VDU Input UP (D)

C: OK (1)

D: We have keys, and [lamp

C: [No use, the keys (1)

D: On hand (4) we have the key and the lamp,
and the keys and the lamp
[on hand

***C: [(E) no use, down the river OK? (1)
E=click
"down the river OK" is uttered in an impatient and annoyed manner
The third occurrence of "down the river". C is getting impatient and wants to key in but D pushes his hand aside

D: (?) empty bottle here (2) the empty,
bottle must be, [useful

C: [No use

D: Get it, get it first (8)

VDU Input GET THE BOTTLE (D)

C: (E)

E=click

D: Then we move out the building

C: Yes (1) out the building

D: What (?) it's, it's better to go (1) east, better to go east

C: Go east

D: Better to go east (5)

VDU Input EAST (C)

D: This is this, the hill is here

D sketches

C: (E) (5) (E) (13) use the, empty bottle to collect the ash

E=click, sigh

D (gig) no use, it's no use (3)

VDU Input EAST (D)

D At the cliff edge

C Drop the bottle, drop the empty bottle (gig) (8)

C [Be more s- (1)
[
D [Please this no use (2)

VDU Input DROP THE BOTTLE (D)

D Please be more specific (E)

E=click

C Perfect (5)

D See, perhaps we've better go north (2)

VDU Input NORTH (D)

C Perhaps you're right (E) (?)

E=/jiː/

D You're surrounded by an ex-, expanse of jagged rocks

C (?)

D No way, there's no way, better go south

C South (8)

VDU Input SOUTH (D)

D [We then move west (E)
[
C [South west (2)

E=click
VDU Input WEST (D)

C (E) (12)

E=click

D This is the volcano (1)

C /hɑːŋ lɔɪ hɑːŋ huɪ dəʊ həɪ jiː dəʊ jiː gɑː/,
/mɪŋ m mɪŋ leɪ jiː gɑː/ [(?)
[
D [/ŋɒ mɪŋ ŋɑː, ŋɒ mɪŋ/

(now we are moving round and round in the same place,
do you understand now?)
(yes, I do, yes)

C /leɪ jɪŋ gɔɪ, tau siːn jɪŋ gɔɪ həɪ, kʌm fɑːn/
/jʌt bəʊ lɒk gɒ/ river /ɑː mɑː/

(you should, just now you should take a step down,
back to the)

D /jiː gɑː lɔk ɑː/, /lɒk ɑː, lɒk, lɒk ɑː/, (?) you mean we (2)

(now let's go down, down, down, down)

C Go

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D: Get back to our [original (?) position
[
C: [Go west yes, go west

D: (?) see, let's see

C: Go west (3)

VDU Input: WEST (D)

In example [1.1], C had to resort to his mother tongue to get his point across to D, i.e., to go down to the river. In the transcript, turns marked with *** are those which C attempted to make the suggestion. He did it three times in English but failed to get D to agree with him. Eventually, some 60 turns after his initial suggestion, C had to put his views across in Cantonese. In the first part of C's Cantonese utterance, he explained to his partner the current state of affairs, i.e., their current location. He then made an information request to solicit D's feedback as he uttered /mɪŋ m mɪŋ leɪ jiː gɑː/ meaning "do you understand now?" D responded by saying that he understood it. However, as the request was given in Cantonese, the reply was also echoed in the same code. C then went on to make a suggestion in Cantonese which D expressed agreement in the same code. Nevertheless, to get down to the river the subjects had to decide on and execute a specific command. After D had conveyed his agreement, there was a pause of seven seconds. Apparently, both subjects were searching for an appropriate command. After the pause, C switched back to English to make an information request as he uttered "you mean we". Eventually, C came up with a concrete suggestion: "go west" and subsequently the command was typed in and executed. In this example, C employed the mother tongue as a final resort to get his views across to his partner. As a result, D shared his views and both subjects subsequently worked in closer harmony.

[1.2] *W1/2*

C: Climb up (1)

D: Leading, leads down [leads down the well
[
C: [Leads down. OK

D: (?) we must, ah move (1) down

C: Down (2)

D types in DOWVN

C: (E) /tsɒ ge/ (1)

E=click; (it's wrong)

D: /gɔɪ ɑː/

(correct it)
D presses the COPY key by mistake

C: Hm (2)

VDU Input 19: DOWVN (D)

In example [1.2], after some discussions, the subjects decided to move "down". D then typed in the command on the keyboard. However, he got it wrong. He mistyped *DOWVN* instead. C spotted this and stated that there was an error. In his haste, he broke into Cantonese to utter this. D seemed to be influenced by this sudden burst into the mother tongue and responded with a suggestion in Cantonese as well. D suggested that they should correct the typing the error. Nonetheless, as the subjects were still not too familiar with the keyboard, after D had pressed the COPY key, he pressed the RETURN key. The command which had a wrong spelling was then executed.

Intra-turn L1 Occurrences

As stated previously, only limited occurrences of Cantonese utterances were recorded in the data. There were only twelve instances of intra-turn L1 utterances. Sometimes a subject may try to express an idea in haste which could cause him to accidentally switch to his mother tongue. As the prescribed rule of the exercise was that the subjects were to communicate with one another in English, the person who violated the rule usually realised this quickly and switched back to the second language. Examples [2.1] to [2.5] illustrate this.

[2.1] *S1/15*

A: Oh the grate, oh, the keys

B: Oh (1) [yes, the keys
[
A: [You have to use the keys (1) get, /**m həɪ, m həɪ, m**/,
no, not get the keys (2) use the keys now (1) hm, unlock (1)
unlock the grate

(no, no)

In example [2.1], *grate* reminded A of the keys. Both subjects then referred to the list of verbs provided in the clue sheet to look for a verb which was related to *keys* and accepted by the program. A first uttered "use". She next suggested "get". But she soon found out that these verbs did not exist in the clue sheet. In her haste, she uttered "/m həɪ, m həɪ, m/" to indicate that the verbs were inappropriate. As soon as she realised her switch of codes, she made an immediate attempt to comply with the prescribed rule of the experiment and switched back to English. She reiterated the item in the second language as she uttered "no".

[2.2] *W1/7-8*

D: The hill is on [(?) buildings, west (2)
[
C: [Go to east

C: Back to the east, OK?

C types in "EAST"

D: West, no, we, we can move west only (3)

D deletes "EAST"

C West end. a path oh yes. west west west

D West. we (3)

C types in "WEST"

C /haɪ m haɪ/? [Yes? (is it)

D [Yes

C presses the SHIFT key by mistake

C Return (4)

VDU Input WEST (C)

At the beginning of example [2.2], the subjects could not decide whether they should go east or west. C typed in "EAST" on the keyboard but D argued that they could "move west only". D deleted the command as he was uttering this. As C checked the information provided on the screen, he agreed with D and typed in "WEST" instead. However, C was still uncertain. After a three second pause, C apparently became a bit anxious and impatient. He seemed to have forgotten temporarily the exercise constraint and made a confirmation request in Cantonese with his partner as he uttered "/haɪ m haɪ/?" He quickly realised this and switched back to English and reiterated the item in the second language as he uttered "yes?" However, as C was reiterating his request in English, C was ready with a reply and he uttered "yes" to express his agreement simultaneously with C's reiterated request. Eventually, the command was executed.

[2.3] *W8/3*

C Hm hm. OK. oh. [we. we go to bridge or.
get oil?

D [Say P-L

D Bridge. we get the two treasure first

C OK **/tse haɪ/** (?) (1) go the bridge OK (2) oh. this. this (?) south. first?

(that is)

D South (1) [first

C [South yes

VDU Input S (D)

In example [2.3], C provided D with two choices, namely, "go to the bridge" and "get oil". D chose to go to the bridge as he intended to get two more treasures. C then uttered "OK" to acknowledge this. At the same time, he tried to figure out a specific command so as to get to the bridge. He uttered "/tse haɪ/" in Cantonese meaning "that is". But he soon realised his switch of codes and switched back to English after a one second pause. Subsequently, he suggested moving "south" and the command was typed in and executed.

[2.4] *W8/16*

C: Hm-hm (1) (?) (1)

D: What other treasure we should get? (1)

C: Oh no, /ŋɒ lʌm/ I, I think (?)

(I think)

D: (?) [(?)

C: [(?) (1) what?

D: Chain, northeast (4)

VDU Input: NE (D)

Similar to [2.3], in example [2.4], C appeared to be in a hurry when he uttered "/ŋɒ lʌm/" in Cantonese meaning "I think". Again, he very soon realised this and reiterated the item in English as he uttered "I think".

[2.5] *W1/11*

D: We, we must enter the building first (1)

C: And then /ŋɒ deɪ/, we, we out the building OK. (?) (1) agree?
(1) we stand outside the building

(we)

D: We must get the lamp first (1)

Similar to examples [2.3] and [2.4], in example [2.5], C in his haste uttered "/ŋɒ deɪ/" in Cantonese meaning "we". However, as soon as he realised this, he switched back to English and uttered "we, we" in the second language.

It appears that a common feature exists among examples [2.1] to [2.5]. All of the mother tongue utterances occurred when the subjects were trying to say something in haste. Prior to the actual articulation of these utterances, the subjects concerned appeared to have forgotten about the exercise constraint and broke into the mother tongue. Nevertheless, in all these examples, almost immediately after each of these short Cantonese string was uttered, the subject concerned realised this and switched back to English.

In conversation, speakers often use delay markers to signal to hearers of their intention to hold the floor. In English, such markers include items like *wait, hold on, let's see, wait a minute,* etc. In Cantonese, such markers include */dʌŋ dzʌn/, /dʌŋ dʌŋ/, /lʌm ha siː n/, /təɪ haː siː n/,* etc. In the experiment, */təɪ haː siː n/* was actually used by the weak subjects on three occasions. The contexts in which the string occurred are provided in examples [3.1] to [3.3] below.

[3.1] *W1/2*

D: The lamp, the lamp is on (E) (1)

E=click

C: /təɪ haː siːn/ (3) rust , a rusty ladder climb (1)

(let's see)

D We must move downward to the well, try again (6)

VDU Input DOWNWARD (D)

[3.2] *W1/5-6*

D Some sandwich here [what now?
[
C [Clean. clean the table

D [Clean?
[
C [No clean

D Clean, what's the use of clean?

C No /tɐɪ hɑː siːn/

(let's see)

D We're hunting for the s-, treasure

C Oh (3) (?) (8) take the litter (3)

D Take (8)

C T-T, double T (1) E-R

VDU Input TAKE THE LITTER (D)

[3.3] *W8/20*

D We should then go, /tɐɪ hɑː siːn/ northeast, southwest (2)

(let's see)
VDU Input SW (D)

D Let's see [(?)
[
C [South and east

D West (E)

E=click

In the above examples, */tɐɪ ha: si:n/* was uttered as the subjects concerned wanted to buy some more time in an attempt to figure out further details relating to their current location. The reason for their switching into the mother tongue was perhaps that they were then engaging themselves in deep thought and as a result, attention was diverted. They forgot about the exercise constraint and accidentally broke into the mother tongue. However, in all of these three occasions, after the Cantonese string was uttered, the subjects immediately switched back to English.

Sometimes a subject may utter a short Cantonese string to acknowledge reception of a preceding outcome which was unfavourable or to express disagreement with a preceding suggestion. Example [4.1] illustrates the former and example [3.2] the latter.

[4.1] *S1/16*

A: Unlock the [cage
B: [Cage (3)

VDU Input UNLOCK THE CAGE (A)
VDU Output Please be more specific
What now?

A: (E), /m dʌk/

E = sigh
(cannot be done)

B: Unlock the cage with the keys

A: (gig) (12)

VDU Input UNLOCK THE CAGE WITH THE KEYS (A)

In [4.1], the subjects executed a command to unlock the cage. However, the program responded with a statement: *Please be more specific* which meant that the command was not good enough. In response to this, A clicked and uttered in Cantonese "/m dʌk/" meaning "not possible" or "cannot be done" to express her annoyance over their unsuccessful attempt.

[4.2] *S1/17*

A: Perhaps we can go in ano-, another
direc- [tion [go fur-
B: [Go, go further [in, into
darkness (1)

A refers to the clue sheet

A: Go, inside /m dʌk wɒ/

(can't)

B: Hm (E)

E = click

In example [4.2], A first suggested that they should take "another direction". B then refined A's suggestion as she uttered "go further ... into darkness". At this point, A uttered "go inside" while she simultaneously consulted the clue sheet. However, she soon realised that "go inside" would not be accepted by the program. Apparently, in her haste, she uttered "/m dʌk wɒ/" in Cantonese meaning "not possible" or "can't" to inform B that it was not possible to issue the command "GO INSIDE".

In both of the above examples, it was A who accidentally broke into the mother tongue. From the video recording, it is evident that A switched to the mother tongue quite unintentionally, possibly as she was attempting to express her thoughts in haste. On each of these occasions after the Cantonese string was uttered, A actually covered her mouth with her hand which could arguably signify that she realised her violation of the prescribed rule of the exercise. Moreover, B appeared not to be affected by A's code switching as she responded in English on both of these occasions.

[5] *W1/16*

D You'll back, you'll back to the s-,
small hill again

VDU Input SOUTH (C & D)
VDU Output You are on a small hill. To the north an
active volcano throws a plume of ash into
the air. A path leads east and you can see a
small brick building surrounded by woodland
far away to the west. To the south, a spire
rises into the clouds.
What now?

C /**haɪ ɑ**ː/, yeah (3)

(yes)

In example [5], C uttered the Cantonese string /haɪ ɑː/ meaning "yes" to register that he was being right in predicting the location of their making a move to the south. However, as soon, as he realised that he had switched codes, he switched back to English and reiterated the item as he uttered "yeah".

In the experiment, when the subjects came across new program settings, it is possible for them to form visual images of the settings in their minds. Sometimes they may even 'think aloud'. Example [6.1] illustrates this.

[6.1] *S1/19*

VDU Input RUB THE WALL (A)

A (gig) **crazy** (gig)

B Oh, we can't do so I think, can't shake it, we can't get it, we
can't (3) erm (2) (?) we can't jump (2) what do you suggest?

A Hm (2) it's most likely then, that when magic word is said, the
wall can some sort of, move (gig)

B Hm-Hm

A I have some picture like this in my mind (gig)

B Hm-hm, hm

A Smash the wall (gig) (1) **crazy**

B We can't do so (?) probably

A (gig)

VDU Input SMASH THE WALL (A)

In example [6.1], the subjects came across a wall. They were figuring out all sorts of possibilities relating to it. A actually stated explicitly that she had in her mind "some picture" of the wall moving when a magic word was said. In this instance, A complied with the prescribed rule of the exercise and used the second language when she was describing her mental visual image. On the other hand, one instance of code switching was recorded when a subject broke into the mother tongue under similar circumstances. This is illustrated in example [6.2].

[6.2] *W8/18*

C You are inside the bear room
   [(?)
   [
D [A chained bear (1) /**həu yau s-**/

(very thin)

C (?)

D Chained

C Chained

D Being locked (1) [(E)
                    [
C   [Yes

E = click

In example [6.2], the subjects came to a location where they could see a bear tied to a chain. The program provided no description as to how the chain looked. Nevertheless, after reading this information, D paused for a second as he appeared to be visualising the setting. It seemed that he was imagining that the bear was tied to a thin chain as he uttered in Cantonese /həu yau s-/ which means "very thin". In this instance, the mother tongue was uttered subconsciously as the subject was engaged in deep thought and had temporarily forgotten about the exercise constraint.

Lexical Substitution

Lexical substitution is a phenomenon which Crystal (1980) defines as "the insertion of particular lexemes at particular places in grammatical structures". (p.209) An example of this can be identified from the data. The context is provided in example [7.1].

[7.1] *W1/10*

C Open (3) the door (2) bottle

VDU Input OPEN THE BOTTLE (D)
VDU Output Please be more specific
What now?

C Open bottle

D Please be more spec... what now? (E) (2) we have the keys on hand

E = click

C Blast the building

D Then we [(gig) **you're short.**
           [
C   [OK?   try, try it

D **Short, you're short.** please be more specific

the two occurrences of 'short' are mispronounced as /s t/

C (gig)

In example [7], the subjects were trying to open a bottle. They executed a command to do so. However, the program responded with a reply asking them to be more specific. The subjects had been attempting to figure out what to do with the bottle for some time and the opening of the bottle was only one of their latest attempts. As they were getting nowhere, C came up with a wild idea. He suggested that they should "blast the building". D responded by telling C off as he uttered "you're short". *Short* was used to mean "crazy". This utterance illustrates a typical example of lexical substitution which can be found in the speech of many contemporary Hong Kong teenagers.

Observations of day-to-day conversations of these teenagers indicate that the item has crept into the lexicon and is used quite frequently. The item could have been derived from the term *short-circuit* which in colloquial Cantonese means "a faulty connection of wires" and extends metaphorically to mean "an unhealthy association of nerve fibres".

Hong Kong students who have weaker proficiency in English usually utter the item as /sɒt, with the inital palatal fricative /ʃ/ fronted as the dental alveolar fricative /s/ while the final consonant /t/ is largely unreleased. The reason being that /ʃ/ does not exist in the Cantonese phonological system. Further, Cantonese items which comprise final consonants are normally uttered in an unreleased manner. On the other hand, students who have better mastery of English usually utter the item as /ʃɒt/.

In a context where the basic code of communication is the mother tongue, to convey the message that "you are crazy", a speaker could utter, "/neɪ duː tsiː ge/", in which /tsiː/ represents an abbreviated form of /tsiː siːn/, i.e., "crazy". Alternatively, the speaker could substitute /tsiː/ with short. The utterance would then become "/neɪ duː/ short /ge/". The fact that /tsiː/ and short can occur in free variation in similar contexts reveal that they are both surface forms of the same underlying lexeme: *CRAZY*.

In the experiment, the strong subjects never uttered "short". Instead they uttered "crazy" on five occasions. Three times in S1 and two times in S8. The contexts in which the item occurred are provided in examples [7.2] to [7.6].

[7.2] *S1/19*

A Hm, we [can't rub it
B [Rub the wall, and see what happens.
[(gig)
A [(gig)
VDU Input RUB THE WALL (A)
A (gig) **crazy** (gig)

[7.3] *S1/19*

A Smash the wall (gig) (1) **crazy**
B We can't do so (?) probably
A (gig)
VDU Input SMASH THE WALL (A)

[7.4] *S1/19-20*

A: Hit the wall

B: Hit the wall (3)

VDU Input: HIT THE WALL (A)

A: (?) (2)

A: (gig) [(gig)

B: [You should only attack enemies (2)

A: What should we do now?

B: (E) (E) (gig) (2)

E = click, sigh

A: [Can we enter?

B: [(?)

B: OK enter (1)

VDU Input: ENTER (A)

A: (gig) **crazy** [(?) direction

B: [Can't move

[7.5] *S8/17*

A: Roll the carpet and get the moss (gig)

B: (gig)

A: **Crazy**

VDU Input: NE (B)

B: Hm-Hm

[7.6] *S8/23*

A: (gig) (?) **crazy** (gig)

B: You keep killing dwarfs today

IV. CONCLUSIONS

From the above discussion, it can be seen that the subjects largely complied with the prescribed rule of the exercise, i.e., they communicated with one another in English for most of the time. The occasional switches to the mother tongue came about mainly in a subconscious fashion in circumstances when the subjects had to utter something in haste; when they were engaged in deep thought; when they acknowledged reception of an unfavourable outcome; or when they correctly predicted the outcome of a certain move. During such circumstances, it was likely for them to temporarily forget about the exercise constraint and switch to the mother tongue.

However, there was one instance that the shift to the mother tongue appeared to be deliberate. D, a weak subject, employed the mother tongue as a problem solving strategy. This seemed to be his final resort to get his views across to his partner. As a result, his partner not only received his message, but also agreed with what he had suggested. Subsequently, the pair worked in closer harmony.

On the other hand, in instances when the subjects realised that they had switched to the mother tongue, they would usually make a conscious shift back to the second language to proceed with the exercise.

In the data, only one instance of lexical substitution was identified. This was *short*. An attempt was made to explain how the item was derived. Its phonological realisations and its syntactic environments in Cantonese were briefly examined. It was also found that although the strong subjects never used the item, they used its English equivalent five times. This implies that the more proficient one's English is, the less likely will one employ lexical substitution of the kind similar to *short* while one is talking to another person in English.

The data collected in this study have been derived from an experimental setting where the subjects had to communicate largely in the second language. One wonders what the outcome might have been if no prior instructions relating to the use of codes had been provided. A reasonable guess would be that the base language would have been Cantonese and there would be occasional switches to the second language as the subjects had to read the information provided on the VDU screen and type in the commands in English. Further work adopting this approach could perhaps shed more light on the issue.

On the other hand, the way that this experiment was conducted has revealed that it is possible to use adventure games in similar settings to induce second language interaction among Hong Kong students. Hence, such games could be regarded as having a vital role to play in ESL research. The data derived from the study open up a number of possibilities for further investigation. For example, it is possible to approach such data from the psychological level to investigate the cognitive processes involved in human problem solving. It is possible to analyse the data at the discourse level to study the features in problem solving discourse. It is also possible to examine the data at the lexical level relating to the subjects' use of lexis in such discourse including their choice of audio paralinguistic elements.

Work relating to the areas outlined in the preceding paragraph is currently in progress and the findings will be presented in subsequent papers.

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Appendix A

COLOSSAL ADVENTURE CLUES

Objectives:

1. Try to find and get into the cave where the treasures are.
2. Try not to get yourself killed.

Directions:

ABOVE
ACROSS
CROSS
DOWN
EXIT
INSIDE
INTO
OUTSIDE
OVER
UPWARDS
NORTH
SOUTH
EAST
WEST
NORTHEAST
NORTHWEST
SOUTHEAST
SOUTHWEST

Verbs:

ATTACK
BLAST
BREAK
CARRY
CATCH
CHUCK
CLIMB
CLOSE
CROSS
DETONATE
DISCARD
DRINK
DROP
EAT
EMPTY
ENTER
EXIT
FEED
FIGHT
FILL
FREE
GET
GIVE
HIT
JUMP
KEEP
KILL
LEAP
LEAVE
LIGHT
LOB
LOCK
OFF
ON
OPEN
POUR
READ
RELEASE
RUB
SAY
SHAKE
SHUT
SMASH
TAKE
THROW
UNLOCK
WAVE

Special instructions:

CATALOGUE
LOOK

Examples of instructions that the computer understands:

GET THE LAMP
DROP THE KEYS
GO EAST
MOVE UPWARDS

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語文教育學院學報

一九八九年

第六期

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FOREWORD

The sixth issue of the ILEJ contains fourteen articles, seven written in English and seven in Chinese and departs slightly from earlier practice with the addition of a new section. The academic articles are now followed by a section containing reports on recent and ongoing activities in and around the Institute itself. (There are four reports and summaries included in this issue) Our aim is to make the journal as a whole more accessible and relevant to teachers in schools, while retaining the academic and professional standards of contributions in earlier issues. In future issues, we hope to expand the reports section, to include summaries of projects by participants on our courses, reports on staff seminars and research studies, and news of recent developments in language teaching in Hong Kong and elsewhere.

The articles in the English section have been chosen with particular attention to their readability and relevance to Hong Kong teachers. The topics addressed range from developing reading, writing and listening skills, to using drama techniques in language teaching, to issues in teaching methods and techniques as well as teacher development. **Cheng**'s contribution focusses mainly on classroom procedures for teaching ESL reading; he considers a range of teaching strategies, a number of which are derived from the teaching of reading in L1; he presents a substantial amount of material based on these principles for teaching reading comprehension at secondary level. **Brown** also takes native speaker reading as his starting point. He reviews the skills and strategies developed by native speakers in their reading and suggests the explicit teaching of these skills to ESL readers. **Stewart** and **Cheung** describe their own experience in implementing a process approach to teaching writing within a traditional school framework. **Tauroza**'s research-study challenges the view that teachers of listening comprehension should concentrate on meanings and largely ignore sounds. He suggests instead that explicit attention to acoustic signals still has an important role to play. **Dan** argues strongly for the incorporation of drama techniques into the basic skills employed by the proficient language teacher. **Allison**'s article asks how far current ideas about the nature of personal involvement in teacher development groups are appropriate to Hong Kong situations and suggests that valuable growth is still achievable in more formally structured settings. **Chan** and **Lau** describe the attitude of language teachers in Hong Kong primary schools towards a 'communicative approach' and suggest alternative forms of teacher education for the Hong Kong context.

The Chinese section contains seven articles which are arranged alphabetically by author. The articles examine a range of issues that collectively form two themes: language research and language teaching. **LEE Kar-shui's** contribution draws attention to the use of parts of speech in the Chinese language. **LEE Hok-ming's** analysis of the formation of Chinese characters provides valuable insights into life in Ancient China. **HO**

Kwok-cheung reports on how to teach the four tones in Putonghua. **KEUNG Pui-ling** describes an exploratory study of primary pupils' ability in the use of Chinese vocabulary. **LO Hong-lit** reviews the teaching of Classical Poems in secondary schools. **WANG Bing-ren** and **WANG Jian-min** provide an overview of different language teaching modules. **YU Ying-yuan**, working from a 'scientific' approach, explores methods of language teaching in foreign countries and proposes to maintain the 'uniqueness' of the mother tongue and suggests ways to 'absorb the strengths' of language teaching in foreign countries at the same time.

We are privileged to be able to publish articles by experienced teachers and educators. Their views are both stimulating and valuable for future reference. By their contributions they are expressing their support for the goals of the Institute of Language in Education and we thank them.

前言

第六期語文教育學院學報共有十四篇論文，分為英文、中文兩輯。這期學報與過往各期有少許分別，就是除了學術論文外，還增加「匯報」這一新部分，內容是有關語文教學設計和學院近期活動的報告，目的在使學報既能與學校教師較為接近與相關，同時又能繼續保持一貫以來的學術水準。在未來各期，本刊希望擴大報告部分，包括：學員的教學設計撮要，教職員研討、研究報告及報導有關本港及世界各地的語文教學新趨勢。

本期英文稿件共七篇，選刊稿件特別關注到本港教師的需要，篇章內容包括：閱讀、寫作、聆聽能力的發展，語文教學中戲劇技巧的運用，還有關於語文教學及語文教師問題的探討。

鄭旭寧的論文，集中討論ESL閱讀教學的步驟，提供了一系列教學策略，其中有部分是從第一語言學習的閱讀教學中脫胎出來的，他發表了相當數量基於上項原則設計而適合中學生程度的閱讀理解材料。布朗(Brown)同樣以母語閱讀工作為他的研究起點，他檢討母語閱讀教學中的技巧與策略，並向ESL讀者建議了明確的教學技巧。史貂玉(Stewart)與張燕美詳述了他們在傳統學習環境進行程序方式寫作教學的經驗。唐毅成(Tauroza)的研究，在探討教師對聆聽理解的意見。教師認為聆聽理解應專注內容而語音大多可以忽略，他則強調聽覺訊號的重要性。覃伯樂(Dans)在論文中所討論的，是有關語文教師把戲劇技巧融合在語文技能的問題。艾理宗在論文中探討近期有關教師介入教師培訓工作以適應香港環境的問題。他並認為，較具形式的組織，仍有發展的價值。

本期中文論文共有七篇，排列次序，原則上按照作者的英文姓氏字母作先後排列。七篇論文內容各不相同，但約略歸納，也可分為兩類。一類屬語言研究，如李家樹的《漢語詞性不可隨意混同》、李學銘的《從漢字

看中國古代社會生活》；另一類屬語文教學，如何國祥的《讀普通話科的四聲教學》、姜貝玲的《談小學生中文遺詞能力的研究》、羅忼烈的《略論中學古典詩歌教學》、王炳仁和王健敏的《關於語文教學模式的研究》、余應源的《立足母語特點，吸取外文化語文教學的長處——語文教學科學化的思考之一》。上述各篇論文所提供的論點和論據，讀者不一定完全同意，但論文中不乏啟發的意見和參考的資料，是可以肯定的。

「匯報」四文，是有關語文教學設計的介紹。我們期望這類性質的篇章，會得到讀者的歡迎。

CONTENTS 目錄

		Page
William Cheng	Do you Read Me?	9
Ronald L. Brown	Direct Instruction of Comprehension Strategies in ESL Reading	29
Mary Stewart & Marie Cheung	Introducing a Process Approach in the Teaching of Writing in Hong Kong	41
Steve Tauroza	Second Language Listening Comprehension and Segmental Contrasts in Different Degrees of Context	49
Petroc Dan	Drama in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language	60
Desmond Allison	'Can we have an Agenda?' Teacher Development in a Hong Kong Setting	69
Adelaide Chan & Madeleine Lau	Primary English Language Teaching, Language Teacher Education—A Hong Kong Perspective	72
何國祥	談普通話科的四聲教學	83
姜貝玲	談小學生中文遣詞能力的研究	97
羅忼烈	略論中學古典詩歌教學	105
李家樹	漢語詞性不可隨意混同	110
李學銘	從漢字看中國古代社會生活	115
王炳仁 王健敏	關於語文教學模式的研究	125
余應源	立足母語特點，吸取外文化語文教學的長處——語文教學科學化的思考之一	134

BRIEF REPORTS AND SUMMARIES 匯報

The ILE Exchange Bank (Swapshop) of teacher-produced materials for English in Secondary 1 to 3 143

A Seven-session Theme-based Scheme of work for P. 6 Pupils 150

A Seminar on Teacher Development 155

跟電腦學拼音——教學設計 157

GENERAL INFORMATION 通訊

ILE International Conference 187

ILE Publications Available from the Government Publications Sales Centre 189

Information for Contributors 190

DO YOU READ ME?

William Cheng
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Introduction

This paper focuses on the teaching of reading in English as a second language, particularly at the secondary level. While I shall be giving a brief survey of recent literature in the teaching of reading in ESL, the focus will be on classroom procedures, especially those that my students have found useful in their classroom teaching. Mention will also be made of teaching strategies that have proved successful in teaching reading in L1 or in multicultural contexts, most of them gleaned from papers presented at the recent annual convention of the International Reading Association held at Toronto and the 12th World Congress on Reading held in Australia in July, 1988. I shall discuss the subject under the following heads:

1. ESL students and their reading problems
2. Some significant advances in teaching reading in ESL
3. Recent literature on approaches to second language reading, with special reference to the interactive mode
4. Interactive reading
5. Some techniques in teaching reading in L1 which could be used in ESL
6. Interactive approaches to second language reading—classroom applications

ESL Students and Their Reading Problems

In a questionnaire administrated to a selected group of local teachers of English in secondary schools, I asked them to identify the main difficulties their students had in comprehending reading texts. The following table summarizes some of the problems mentioned.

(i) The text is overloaded with unfamiliar lexical items
(ii) The text is simplified but the combination of simple words poses another type of difficulty
(iii) Structural difficulty—too many sentences with embedded clauses
(iv) Structural difficulty—too many elliptical sentences
(v) Failure to make use of cohesion devices to help in understanding text
(vi) Failure to make use of context clues to deduce the meaning of unfamiliar words
(vii) Failure to make use of one's knowledge of the world to help in understanding of text
(vii) Inability to read flexibly and selectively
(ix) Failure to use skimming and scanning

(x) Reading without first establishing a purpose for reading
(xi) Inability to interpret text functions
(xii) Failure to judge relative importance of each section

Because of the importance of the reading skill for secondary students who aim to proceed to tertiary institutions where reference books are mainly in English, it is imperative that they should be helped to overcome the difficulties and master the skill of effective reading.

Some Significant Advances in Teaching Reading in ESL

It is interesting to reflect that most of the really significant advances in teaching reading in ESL were made in the last ten years or so. A survey article entitled 'The Teaching of Advanced Reading Skills in Foreign Languages, with Special Reference to English as a Second Language' by C. J. Brumfit (1978) contains this remark: 'It will be apparent from this account that discussion of teaching method is conducted at a low theoretical level if it is conducted at all. This is unavoidable, for teaching is not research, and classes will not wait until clarity has been achieved. Nevertheless it is to be hoped that within the next decade the teaching of advanced reading skills will have been placed on a much more systematic basis than it has been in the past.'

The following is a personal view of some of the significant developments in reading in ESL. Other teachers and reading specialists may have different views.

(*a*) Goodman's seminal article on the reading process—'Reading—a Psycholinquistic Guessing Game'.
It must be admitted that the original model related to L1 readers. However, attempts were made by others to adapt this to teaching reading in ESL.
It is worth mentioning that a paper 'The Psycholinguistic Guessing Game Updated' was presented at the Congress held in Australia. Certainly his model has withstood the test of time.

(*b*) The switch from viewing comprehension teaching as text + comprehension questions to the teaching of reading strategies/enabling skills.

(*c*) A more refined description of the various enabling skills. See for example Munby. (1980)

(*d*) Separating TALO (Text as a Linguistic Object) from TAVI (Text as a Vehicle for Information). See T. Johns & E. Davies (1982).

(*e*) *Application of Schema—Theoretical Research to ESL Reading Pedagogy.*

(*f*) Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading.

Recent Literature on Approaches to Second Language Reading with Special Reference to the Interactive Model

I should like to begin by referring the reader to an article on reading in ESL in English Teaching Forum Vol. xxv No. 4 October 1987. In the article entitled

'Let's Take Another Look at Reading: Twenty-five Years of Reading Instructions', the writer, Sandra Silberstein traces the development of reading instruction over the last few decades and states that interactive reading is the characteristic feature of the '80s. Before coming to the recent flood of books and articles on interactive reading, I feel I must mention a few books and articles in the U.K. which have a positive and valuable impact on teaching reading in ESL. They are:

Author	*Title*	*Publish*
Christine Nuttall (1983)	Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language	Heinemann
Francoise Grellet (1981)	Developing Reading Skills—a practical guide to reading comprehension exercises	Cambridge
C. Alderson & A. G. Urquhart	Reading in a Foreign Language	Longman
Davies & N. Whitney	Reasons for Reading Strategies for Reading Study Skills for Reading	Heinemann
J. Moore et al	Reading and Thinking in English	Oxford

Interactive Approaches

It is within the last few years that books emphasizing interactive approaches have appeared. Among these are *Strategic Interaction* by Robert J. D. Pietro (1987), *Interactive Reading* by Suzanne Salimbere (1986) and *Interactive Language Teaching* with Wilga M. Rivers as editor (1987). The last book is especially useful from the pedagogical point of view as it contains a chapter 'Interaction of reader and text' by Anthony Papalia which deserves careful reading.

The following three books contain perhaps the most up-to-date collections of articles on interactive approaches to second language reading and should be read by all practitioners in the field of TESL.

Author	*Title*	*Publisher*
J. Devine, P. L. Carrell and D. E. Eskey (1987)	Research in Reading in English as a Second Language	Teachers of English to Speakers of Other languages
P. Carrell, J. Devine & D. Eskey (1988)	Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading	Cambridge

The Modern Language
Journal Vol. 72 No. 2
Summer 1988 (Reading in
the Foreign Language)

National Federation of
Modern Language
Teachers
Association

Interactive Reading

For detailed discussions on the nature of the interactive reading process, the reader is referred to the books mentioned above. Patricia Carrell gives a succinct but lucid overview of the subject in the introduction to *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. The most up-to-date article on the subject is 'Readers, Texts, and Second Languages: The Interactive Processes' by Janet R. Swaffar in *The Modern Language Journal* 72:2 (1988). It is, however, interesting to note how as early as 1983, Neville Britten in an article in *Practical English Teaching* Mar 1983 made this remark: 'If you think about what goes on in your head when you read naturally in your mother tongue, it's obvious that you're not just a passive spectator of the printed page.

'On the contrary, all the time you are actively responding to the text and asking yourself all sorts of questions—albeit silently—about what's going on: 'What a fool! I can't believe anyone would really behave like that', or, 'What an unfortunate turn of phase—it really jars', or, 'Who do I know who talks like that?—Oh, yes, its Peter who's always using that expression.'

'This sort of internal reaction to the text enables you to establish the meaning and anchor it to your previous knowledge and experience. It's like a plane charting its progress by bouncing radar beams off the ground. What's more, if you don't react to the passage in this way, you just don't take it in; your eyes simply glide along on automatic pilot.' To the teacher who is not used to the language of academic journals, this is perhaps a clearer and simpler introduction to the concept.

Rivers (1987) says that interaction is the key to teaching language for communication and points out that 'there should be interaction of reader and text, interpretation, expansion, discussing alternative possibilities and conclusions.' I should like to mention also a pertinent remark made by Professor Widdowson (1986) in which he distinguishes between deciphering and interpretation. He says, 'Deciphering is a matter of understanding what linguistic signs mean in themselves in graphic guise. Interpretation is a matter of establishing what writers might mean by the use of such signs. Reading like all after communicative activities, presupposes interactivity between participants mediated by the linguistic form of text.'

From the above it is apparent that successful readers are those who know how to interact with texts using their background knowledge or schemata and applying appropriate reading strategies to different texts. We could say that such readers interact with text in the following ways:

1. They are not passive readers.
2. They actively ask questions and interact with text to get at the author's meaning.
3. Just as a good driver changes gears according to the nature of the road, they adopt different strategies to cope with different texts or according to the purposes for which they are reading. (i.e. for pleasure or study or searching for information).
4. They tolerate a high degree of incomprehension while they are actively searching out the meaning of the text.
5. They make use of context clues to guess the meaning of unknown words or skate over words which do not hinder global understanding.
6. They use their knowledge of the world to help them understand what they are reading.
7. They predict and anticipate when they are reading.
8. They use their knowledge of text structure and genre to read effectively.

Some techniques Used in L1 Instruction Which Could Be Adapted for Teaching ESL Students

Reading instruction has been the subject of numerous researches and not surprisingly there is a proliferation of methods offered by reading specialists over the years. Some of the methods can be adapted for ESL classes. I have attached a practical list of methods which are linked with the use of readers' background knowledge.

Interactive Reading—Classroom Applications

For the benefit of ESL reading teachers, I shall give first a list of some articles on teaching procedures I have found useful gleaned from various ESL Journals. I shall also list some activities for the pre-reading, while reading, and after-reading stages. I shall conclude with two examples of reading lessons I have used with my students.

ELT Journal

Author	*Title*	
Jennifer Jarvis	Integrating methods and developing trainee's reading skills	vol 41:3 pp 179–184
Nicold Soule-Susbielles (1988)	Improving students' competence in foreign language reading	vol 41:3 pp 198–203
Ray Williams	Top Ten Principles for Reading	vol 40:1 pp 42–5

Practical English Teaching

Neville Britten	Reactive Reading	Mar 1983 pp 34–35
Nick McIver	The Receptive Skills 2—reading	Mar 1983 pp 32–33
Catherine Walker	Effective Reading	Mar 1984 pp 33–34
Richard Sloane	Predicting what's missing	Mar 1984 pp 35–36

Modern English Teacher

Jorge Suarez	Reading Comprehension	vol 6:3 pp 5–10
Stephen Dunbar	Helping pupils read actively	vol 13:2 pp 26–29
Richard Young	Predictive Reading	vol 7:3 pp 4–7

Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading

Patricia L Carrell	interactive Text Processing	pp 239–259

Research in Reading in English as a Second Language

Mark D. James	ESL Reading Pedagogy: Implications of Schema-Theoretical Research	pp 177–188

Interactive Language Teaching

Anthony Papila	Interaction of Reader and Text	pp 60–82

Pre-Reading Activities

1. Give the class the title of the text and ask them to predict what the text will be about. Bransford & Johnson (1972) reported that 'something as simple as a title, creates a significant difference in students' comprehension.
2. If there are illustrations, use them to ask the class to predict what the text is about.
3. Set one or two pre-questions and get the students to locate the answers. Pre-passage questions give students a purpose for reading and by their very nature induce a selective attention strategy.

4. Ask students to skim to find out the theme or gist of the text.
5. Used directed-reading, thinking activity. This consists of three steps—prediction, reading and confirmation. Students look at the title of the story and brainstorm about topics and related ideas.
6. A slightly different procedure is the Directed-Inquiry Activity which utilizes a frame-work of six key questions, what? who? when? where? why? how? The initial step is a survey of the title, subheadings and accompanying pictures or diagrams. The class is then asked to predict responses to the questions.
7. Ask students to offer their views on a topic and then read the text to see if the writer holds similar or different views and why.
8. Put key vocabulary items from the text on the board or use a transparency and expose them several words at a time and ask the class to predict the general context. This is different from the use of pre-reading vocabulary exercises which according to a number of reading specialists and researchers (e.g. Hudson, 1982, Johnson, 1982) do not improve overall comprehension.
9. Use semantic webbing (Freedman & Reynolds, 1980). When using this approach, the teacher gives the various concepts and keywords surrounding the topic and graphically connects them on the blackboard so that the students see the possible relationship between the ideas being discussed.
10. Set a problem. Ask students how they would solve it and then read the text and find out.
11. Use an anticipation guide (Heber, 1978). Write a few statements which support or challenge preconceived notions students may have about key concepts in the text. The guide prepares students to read with specific purposes since a mismatch is created between the students' background knowledge and experience and text information.
12. Tell students they can get the opinions of an expert on a certain topic (naturally the text, which is not yet given to the students is on the topic.) Ask them to write down questions they would like the expert to answer. Give them the text and ask them to find out how many of their questions are suitably answered. Then ask them where they think they can find out answers to their other questions.

It can be seen that the activities help the students to read with a purpose and therefore with greater interest. Two other points are also worth mentioning. Many of them make use of the readers' prior knowledge. The use of prediction and anticipation is also very much in evidence.

While-Reading Activities

This is probably the most important part of the reading lesson. The teacher should encourage the students to interact with the text. Grellet (1981) has given probably the most complete taxonomy of reading exercises or activities and teachers should consult it for ideas. I include an appendix

on exercises for teaching different reading strategies which, I hope, will help the busy teacher locate at short notice the exercise type he needs.
MET vol. 15 no. 1. focuses on text. A useful article entitled *A Quest for Clues* by Lenmy Bouman gives very valuable suggestions on helping a global understanding of the text followed by a detailed comprehension. Under the former he mentions the following strategies—(*a*) surveying organisation and structure of the text; (*b*) skimming, (*c*) understanding paragraph organisation of the text. Under the latter he lists different activities which help in (*a*) analysing and understanding the vocabulary, (*b*) the tone and attitude of the author and (*c*) the meaning of the text. I recommend the article to the reading teacher. Let me now give a short list of practical activities.

1. Answer questions (true or false, multiple-choice, open-ended). Interspersing questions during the reading process helps to focus the students' minds on what has just been read. The questions should not be merely on what is directly stated in the text. They should also challenge students to infer and read between the lines. Students should also be helped to reflect on how they extract information from text.
2. Sequence pictures or cut-up texts.
3. Make lists.
4. Fill in forms, questionnaires, charts, diagrams.
5. Match pictures to what is said in text.
6. Do cloze exercises.
7. Find out what is missing. If the text consists of letters asking for advice followed by replies, the teacher can do either of the following. (*a*) Show the 1st letter and ask them to give their own advice to the writer. Then expose the 'official' reply on OHP and ask them to compare this with their answers. (*b*) A more challenging task is to reverse this and show the reply and ask the class to work out what the 1st letter contains based on clues given in the reply. This is a much more interesting task and helps students to use their inferencing ability.
8. Predict what follows in chopped up texts.
9. Identify functions of different parts of text (e.g. persuasion, repeating an argument, etc.)
10. Note organisation of text.
11. Identify attitudes.
12. Respond to text on controversial issues (agree, strongly agree, x disagree, xx strongly disagree).
13. Make notes or design semantic map.

After-Reading Activities

Some post-reading activities are the following:

1. Pairwork to complete and compare answers, charts, tables, diagrams, etc.
2. Answering questions, multiple-choice, true/false and open-ended.

3. Letter writing
4. Solving a problem based on information in the text.
5. Summarizing
6. Roleplay
7. Writing different endings to a narrative text.
8. Writing a parallel description.

Tackling a Long Expository Text

As an exercise in lesson planning in respect of a long expository text, I ask my Dip. Ed. students to discuss how they would teach a newspaper article in the S.C.M.P. The text is very long and covers a whole page. The title is 'Life Heats up under the Global Hothouse'. On top of the title is a statement: 'Glaciers are melting and sea levels rising in a 20th century crisis of gargantuan proportions.' Underneath the title is a short introduction: 'Fertile agricultural plains will turn into parched deserts and nations will disappear if the greenhouse effect does what scientists predict it will. VICKY WONG reports.' There is a cartoon of men barely floating on the ocean and a diagram entitled 'The Greenhouse Effect' which illustrates the cause of this phenomenon. At the end of the article there is a summary of the predictions made by scientists.

The following steps are one way of helping students to interact with the text and practise strategies of dealing with expository texts.

1. Read the title, the introduction and the headline. Predict what the text will be about.
2. Discuss what they know about the green-house effect and what they would like to know about the phenomenon.
3. Use the DIA method. What questions would they like to ask about the topic? e.g.
   What is this greenhouse effect?
   What places will be affected?
   How will Hong Kong fare?
   What do the scientists say?
   What are the causes of this phenomenon?
   Who are the scientists and how great is their credibility?
   How could this effect be minimized? etc.
4. Examine the diagram to get a better understanding of the effect.
5. Read the predictions at the end.
6. Using their idea of the organisation of such texts, predict how the ideas will be developed.
7. Read the text quickly and note the answers to the questions.
8. Reread for detailed comprehension. A post reading activity could be a roleplay of an interview between Vicky Wong and Dr So of Hong Kong University on the topic.

Teaching Reading Comprehension

A practical exercise to make you think of the reading process and how to interact with texts.

Work in groups of 4.

The other handout contains a number of letters to the Editor of the SCMP. Two of them support the communicative approach and two of them do not.

Do the following tasks in the order given:

1. By reading only the headlines, decide which articles support the new approach and which do not.
   Each of you choose one article and without looking at it, predict what the writer says. Write down what you think in note form, e.g. in phrases only. Now share the information with the other members of your group. Do not spend more than 3–4 minutes on this.
2. Now read all the articles quickly and then complete the following grid:

	Old Methods: Weak Points	The Communicative Approach: Good Points	The Communicative Approach: Weak Points
Nancy Kroonenberg			
Crystal Lam			
Jonathan Chamberlain			
K. Y. Lee			

Discuss your answers.

When you have finished, discuss the following:

(*a*) In what way is this approach to reading different from what is normally done in a so-called reading lesson?

(*b*) What do you think was the purpose of asking you to look at the headlines and predict the contents?

(*c*) Think of the reading process you went through. At what stage did you react to the text and mentally agree or disagree with the statements made?

(*d*) How did your knowledge of the world (or the topic) enable you to read the texts with understanding?

(*e*) How did peer interaction help comprehension?

(*f*) What is the advantage of having several texts on the same general topic?

(*g*) What follow-up activities could be used?

(*h*) What have you learnt about the teaching of reading from this exercise?

Old ways are not always superior

A FEW days ago the editor defended his use of 'program' as opposed to the English word 'programme' on the basis that this was the way the word was originally spelt before it got started up a century or so ago.

Mr. K. C. Lam seems to be afflicted with a similar way of looking at things in his letter bewailing the new 'so-called communicative approach' (*South China Morning Post*, September 23).

The editor's argument that we should go back to the way things used to be in the matter of spellings would locally support a going back to old ways of saying things—the older the better.

Unfortunately, there never was an original version of English to which we in Hongkong can revert and so defend ourselves from change in the outside world.

Mr. Lam also believes that Hongkong is such a strange place that what happens elsewhere is of little relevance. I am afraid, Mr. Lam, that this is not an acceptable proposition.

The communicative approach was developed not for native speaking students, as Mr. Lam suggests, but for foreign or second language contexts such as Hongkong where the previous methodologies were perceived as having failed.

Now it is obvious that people can learn other languages by any number of means. Any new approach must justify itself on the basis that, by using it, more students can learn more of the target language more quickly, more efficiently and more pleasurably than by using any other method.

This is what proponents, such as myself, claim for communicative approaches as opposed to grammar explanation approaches.

This is not to say that there is no place for explanation. Only a most extremist view could argue against any structural presentation/explanation—and extremist views such as these are, I am certain, more often put up as bogymen to be shot down than put forward as serious arguments.

Mr. Lam seems to think that drills 'based on realistic situations' are classical examples of dreaded communicative methodology. A drill, by being a drill, is a classic example of an uncommunicative act. Drills may or may not be useful activities in the classroom, but they are not exponents of a communicative approach.

The teaching of grammar that Mr. Lam pines for sounds a reasonable plea at first sight, but the poverty of this approach should be exposed for what it is.

First of all, the 'grammar' that it taught was (and is) often wrong or debatable. Second, grammar teaching involves talking around a subject, as opposed to quick explanation followed rapidly by controlled practice (eg. drills) leading quickly to more open practice of the structural or functional item being taught (communicative activities).

Third, the so-called grammar approach simply fails to deal with all aspects of the language beyond the confines of the simple written sentence. Communicative approaches stress the importance of skills which need to be acquired before a learner can begin to use a new language for the purposes a language is normally used for.

Examples of such skills are: skim-reading, scanning, selective listening, notetaking, writing organised and appropriately constructed letters, messages, memos etc, speaking in a manner appropriate to a situation, recognising degrees of formality and informality, understanding implications, and so on.

Any major change of methodology must cause teachers a degree of unease as they experiment with it. The so-called communicative approach is not a religion from which every deviation is blasphemous.

Teachers must be allowed to arrive at their own personal equation between new and old methodologies. What they cannot be allowed to do (for the sake of their students) is to throw away every advance of the last 15 years in our understanding of the English language and of how students best learn languages.

The funny thing is that if we credited the original way we did things as being also the best, we would look back to the 18th century in England, where it was regarded as necessary for the sons of the well-to-do to learn foreign languages. The teaching methods generally used were a hotchpotch of what could quite comfortably be called communicative approaches.

But we need better reasons than that these were the ways things used to be done/were originally done/were done when I was young to justify what we choose to do today.

JONATHAN CHAMBERLAIN

New approach is not working

I AM writing in reaction to Mr. Jonathan Chamberlain's letter (*South China Morning Post*, September 29).

Mr. Chamberlain said that the communicative approach was developed for places like Hongkong, 'where the previous methodologies were perceived as having failed.'

But as a student learning through the traditional method and as a language teacher for more than 10 years. I just cannot, judging by the results, see how the previous methodologies failed or how the communicative approach is superior to the traditional one.

I entirely agree with Mr. Chamberlain's idea that any new approach must justify itself by enabling students to learn the language 'more quickly, more efficiently and more pleasurably.'

But it is a well-known hard fact that the English standard of Hongkong students is falling at a terrifying rate.

This deterioration in the standard of English may be due to the general fall of students' educational standards, and we should not put all the blame on the new approach.

However, if the new communicative approach is as efficient as it is believed to be, it should be able to offset, or at least decelerate, this miserable fall in English standards.

Since the communicative approach has so far failed to justify itself in this way, no wonder many of our fellow teachers begin to perceive the failure of the prevailing methodology.

They are feeling the frustration of failure rather than unease caused by experimenting with a new approach, as Mr. Chamberlain suggests.

I must make haste to stress that I do not mean to propose the restoration of the traditional grammar approach. I am fully aware of the boredom in the learning of grammar—though I do not believe that the grammar taught 'was (and is) often wrong,' as Mr. Chamberlain does.

Unfortunately, the drills in the communicative approach are, on the other hand, too mechanical to arouse students' interest in learning the English language.

What I would like to see is a way of teaching in which students can more enjoyably learn some basic structures in English.

In the past two years I have been trying to make English lessons more enjoyable by introducing some activities in the classroom.

The students are briefed with some fundamental rules in grammar. They are then encouraged to get familiar with these rules through their participation in controlled activities such as language games and contests.

The results are very encouraging. Students begin to make feedback and show improvement.

But I must admit this way is not without its defects. First, the design and preparation of a successful game are rather time-consuming. Second, as the teaching schedule in school is very tight, it is not easy to spare sufficient time for classroom activities.

But I still believe that this is an interesting method worthy of effort and experimentation.

K. Y. LEE

Communication first, grammar will follow

I WAS somewhat take aback by K. C. Lam's solution . . . to return to teaching grammar (*South China Morning Post*, September 23).

Grammar has its time and place in language study, but in the long run students will best remember what they have learned inductively, not what they have learned through formal rules of grammar.

What the communicative approach tries to do is to get students to speak in as realistic a situation as is possible within the confines of the classroom. From the first day, students can communicate in simple, meaningful phrases, and this limited skill is constantly built upon.

At such time as students need to learn the structure they will often be able to deduce it for themselves, as my students did this morning, entirely in the target language.

I wonder why K. C. Lam finds that this communicative approach is 'not suitable for the students of Hongkong.' Students here are learning English as a second language much as Britons or Americans might be learning French, Spanish, German at home.

But the main difference and advantage which local people have here is that they can hear English on the radio, on T.V. and in movie theatres. They can approach the numerous English-speaking foreigners in the streets of Central and Tsim Sha Tsui.

Whenever I am in Japan or China, I am surrounded by secondary and university students clamouring to speak and to hear English. They want to communicate.

A final point of confusion arising from the original letter. K. C. Lam mentions that 'we simply cannot afford so much time to do our drills properly (considering the heavy workload of an average student).'

Extensive drills belong in the classroom, and if anyone will have to do extensive preparation it will be the teacher and not the student. Drills, group work, Tactics (Through Active Conversation to Individual Communication Skills) and the Rassias (Dartmouth College, US) method all give students a maximum opportunity to talk.

Tactics can give each student up to 50 opportunities to communicate in five minutes. Non-communicative methods let each student talk as little as two hours per school year.

When grammar explanations are needed, give them. But let the students figure out explanations by inductive reasoning whenever possible. Hear, hear for the communicative approach! Let the students do the talking!

NANCY KROONENBERG

Ten years wasted

I AGREE with K. C. Lam's ideas and suggestions (*South China Morning Post*, September 23).

I am a Chinese girl and have studied in Anglo-Chinese schools ever since primary school. I am a form 6 student now, so I have been studying English for more than 10 years.

After such a long period of intensive study—given the status of English in Hongkong, in the education system and in such schools—one would expect my English to be really proficient.

The facts are quite the reverse. I still become confused with the tenses and grammar, and feel ashamed of my limited vocabulary in writing. I still know nothing about pronunciation rules in English, and am completely ignorant when faced with pronunciation symbols in the dictionary.

I still cannot carry on a conversation in English as fluently as I can in Cantonese, and the 'baby' English I use sometimes limits my ability to express my thoughts.

It is a ridiculous situation. The cause of the problems that I, and many others, face was well explainted in Mr. Lam's letter.

I will not repeat his suggestions here. I just want to say that I support them completely.

CRYSTAL LAM

(I) Developing Reading Skills

Reading Strategies	(1) Developing Reading Skills (Page No.)	(2) Effective Reading (*Unit No.*)	(3) Advanced Reading Skills P.Ban et. al. Longman 1981 (Page No.)	(4) Penguin Advanced Reading Skills (Page No.)	(5) Making Sense of Reading Susan Maingay, Nelson-Herran 1983 (Unit No.)
1. Extracting Main Ideas	149–150	1–4, 6–9, 11–13, 15–20, 22, 24, 26, 31–34, 40, 42, 44–5	84–7(Picking out key words) 20, 27, 27(Picking out topic sentence) 38–40		Locating topic sentence, Unit 8 Use of key words, Unit 5
2. Reading for Specific Information		1, 6, 7, 10, 17, 18, 21, 24, 36, 41	1–3		Unit 5 Unit 6
3. Understanding text organisation	93–125	2–3, 5–10, 13–4, 22, 23, 25, 28, 34, 35, 39		64, 67, 69–71	Unit 5 Unit 6 Unit 7
4. Predicting	56–8, 71–82, 179–185	8, 13, 16, 20, 24, 26, 27, 29, 31, 36, 37, 40, 42	8, 18, 44–5, 68–9, 72–3, 95–8, 173–6	30–31, 35, 38, 46, 70, 86, 96, 99 Preview 23–9	Unit 1
5. Anticipation	61–7, 74–82, 179–188, 216		14, 19	32–4, 36–37, 45, 49, 58–9, 64, 68, 73, 78, 82, 89, 94, 99	
6. Inferring	228	3–5, 10, 14, 15, 17, 19, 21, 24–5, 27, 28, 30, 32, 33, 35, 37, 40, 42–4		37, 39, 43, 56, 59, 62, 72, 77, 80, 84	
7. Dealing with Unfamiliar Words	28–42	1–3, 5, 6, 9, 11, 14, 16, 18, 19, 20, 22–3, 24–29, 30, 32, 34–39, 41–2	10–3, 16, 21–2, 146, 160, 161–4	37, 39–41, 43, 46, 62, 77, 80, 84	Use of Context Clues Unit 2
8. Using information in the text	178–9, 179–185				

(II) Developing Reading Skills

Reading Strategies	(1) Developing Reading Skills (Page No.)	(2) Effective Reading (*Unit No.*)	(3) Advanced Reading Skills (Page No.)	(4) Penguin Advanced Reading Skills (Page No.)	(5) Making Sense of Reading (*Unit No.*)
9. Linking Ideas		5, 10-13, 19, 20, 24, 30, 31	53-5, 63		
10. Understanding Complex Sentences		8, 9, 25, 28, 33	72-3	Cohesion 47-8, 52, 65, 95	
11. Recognising Indicators of Discourse	121-3			59	Unit 6
12. Evaluating the text	239-250	10, 12, 14, 15, 29, 32, 34, 38, 41	103-4, 117-8, 121-42	36, 44, 57, 63, 67, 72, 85, 96, 100, 102	
13. Reacting to the text		15, 17, 39, 43	22-3, 29, 64-7, 69-70, 103-5, 105-9		
14. Matching text to documents	151-6, 186-8, 195-7		13, 19, 21, 81	81, 83, 87-8, 90-3	
15. Writing Summaries	233-6	1, 4, 8, 11-4, 17-9, 21-4, 28-36, 40, 42, 43, 45	13, 19, 21, 81	67	
16. Understanding the Communicative Value of Sentences	90-92			56	

(III) Developing Reading Skills

Reading Strategies	(1) Developing Reading Skills (Page No.)	(2) Effective Reading (*Unit No.*)	(3) Advanced Reading Skills (Page No.)	(4) Penguin Advanced Reading Skills (Page No.)	(5) Making Sense of Reading (*Unit No.*)
17. Understanding relation within sentences and between parts of text	42–53, 94–98, 104–124, 127–9	Refer to units on text organisation	7–73		
18. Interpreting text by going outside it			156–7		
19. Relating text to experience	176–7				
20. Distinguishing the main idea from supporting details	98–102				Unit 8
21. Selective extraction of relevant points from a text	101, 130–3, 135				
22. Reference skills	58–61				
23. Skimming	67, 81–2		(skimming) 34–5, 36–7, 41, 83	12–17, 18–22, 37, 42–3, 49, 45, 60, 64, 68, 86, 89	Unit 4
24. Scanning	58, 83, 89, 171–5		4, 7, 8–9, 58–9, 165–9	17, 38, 46, 50, 60, 69, 76, 82, 97	Unit 3

(IV) Developing Reading Skills

Reading Strategies	(1) Developing Reading Skills (Page No.)	(2) Effective Reading (*Unit No.*)	(3) Advanced Reading Skills (Page No.)	(4) Penguin Advanced Reading Skills (Page No.)	(5) Making Sense of Reading (*Unit No.*)
Transforming information to diagrammatic display	93–4, 101–2, 109–116, 123–6, 127–8, 137–9, 158–60, 168–9, 171–3, 186–188, 190–7, 195–9, 198–201, 202–7, 209–212	(page no. in brackets) 7(37), 9(42), 10(144), 16(74), 17(79), 18(83), 22(98), 25(108), 26(119), 29(134), 37(170), 40(186)	144, 147, 152, 164	34, 36–7, 38, 46, 51, 66–7, 70–1, 72, 76, 81, 82, 86, 87–8, 90–3, 99, 101	
Evaluating style			147–151	56, 60	

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DIRECT INSTRUCTION OF COMPREHENSION STRATEGIES IN ESL READING

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Introduction

Research investigating the effects of strategies on the reading comprehension of native English speaking students has shown that effective readers consistently use strategies and that these students show significant gains in reading comprehension after direct instruction of reading strategies (Dewitz, Carr, and Patberg, 1987). This paper discusses the nature of strategic reading, the role of reading strategies in the reading process, and the explicit teaching of reading strategies in ESL reading comprehension courses.

Native Language Comprehension and Strategic Reading

An important theoretical position in reading instruction is derived from the interactive model (Rumelhart, 1977; Samuels and Kamil, 1984). This model asserts that a reader, through active mental processes, uses the form and structure of a text to interact with metacognitive processes in order to generate meaning. Therefore, reading is neither a precise application of skills centered on a sequence of words, spelling patterns, or sentence structure, nor is it solely the application of schema to text. Information from a text is processed through the reader's knowledge of vocabulary and language along with schemata to arrive at comprehension. Reading comprehension results from interactive information processing in which the reader refers to knowledge and experience in order to make predictions which are then either confirmed or rejected (Carroll, 1970; Goodman, 1970, 1973; Adams and Collins, 1979; Freebody and Anderson, 1983; Anderson and Pearson, 1984; Mason, 1984).

To accomplish this, efficient reading depends on the appropriate use of strategies that permit the reader to sort out, evaluate, and organize the information in a text (Duffy and Roehler, 1986). This means that, while reading is a process of seeking meaning, the reader does not merely DISCOVER meaning in text: text is INTERPRETED to arrive at meaning. Successful reading comprehension depends on the ability of the reader to apply reading experience, schemata, as well as linguistic structures to the reading task in order to interpret a text. The application of these factors is called *strategic reading*.

Strategic reading behavior is a thoughtful activity in which readers apply what they know about reading during certain situations. For example, at the simplest level, a reader recognizes that a chemistry textbook is written differently than *Time* magazine and modifies reading behavior according to the content and purpose of each. This behavior often appears to be automatic and unconscious until a problem arises that alerts the reader that meaning has been disrupted. Effective readers then consciously identify the problem and devise methods to eliminate the disruption.

The Role of Strategies in Reading

Reading strategies are frequently discussed in the context of 'metacognition' and 'comprehension monitoring'. Although both comprehension monitoring and strategic reading may be included as aspects of metacognition, researchers disagree on whether strategies are subsets of comprehension monitoring (Paris and Myers, 1981; Pitts, 1983), or stand by themselves as skills that complement comprehension monitoring (Paris, Lipson, and Wixson, 1983; Nist, Simpson and Hogrebe, 1985). Nevertheless, there is agreement that strategic reading is a metacognitive skill that is characterized by (1) a recognition of a comprehension problem, (2) selection of a strategy to resolve the problem, and (3) application of this strategy to the problem.

For this paper, 'strategies' is used to indicate the specific activities that can be used to resolve a problem in reading or learning; for example, looking back to discover missed information. 'Strategic reading' will be used to indicate the process of using these strategies; for example, the conscious act of turning back to a section and *rereading*.

Duffy and Roehler (1986) define strategic reading as the flexible, adaptable, and conscious use of knowledge about reading to remove a blockage to meaning. It is noteworthy that Duffy and Roehler, as well as Paris and Myers (1981), describe the use of strategies as a conscious activity which involves an overt procedure on the part of the reader. As a prerequisite to strategic reading, the reader must be conscious of a problem and aware of strategies that can be used to resolve it. Spontaneous or unconscious actions by the reader are excluded, so the automatic corrections made while reading would not be considered to be strategies.

An implication of this view is that, since strategies are conscious and observable, it is possible to teach these behaviors to readers. Furthermore, if it can be shown that systematic use of strategies aids reading comprehension, then effective teaching of strategies would be a means of improving comprehension.

Reading strategies have sometimes been divided into two categories: (1) study strategies and (2) repair strategies, which are also called fix-up strategies (Armbruster, Echols, and Brown, 1982; Duffy and Roehler, in preparation). Study strategies are used by students to facilitate text processing and memory. Examples of these include previewing, highlighting, notetaking, or summarization. These are broad and general strategies that are used primarily to anticipate and avoid possible blockages to meaning before and during the reading activity. A study by Rinehart, Stahl, and Erickson (1986), for example, has shown that summarization training at the sixth grade level is an effective means of improving reading and study skills.

Care must be taken, however, to be certain that these activities are strategies for the purpose of improving comprehension, and are not merely techniques that have slight relevance to successful reading. The university student who highlights as a strategy must be conscious of the reason and propriety of high-lighting: the student highlights an item after consciously assessing the importance of the item to the overall reading task. Randomly highlighting sections of a text because they may 'look important' would be considered a 'technique' rather than a 'strategy'.

The repair strategies are used when comprehension fails during reading. The reader then consciously makes decisions beginning with whether or not strategic action should be taken and followed by consideration of available options. These options may include a quick rereading of relevant sections of the text, storing the problem as a potential question to be answered later in the text, using available information to infer meaning, or consulting another source.

Simpson (1984) has suggested that students lack independent reading strategies because they either have not been taught these strategies or, if they are aware of them, they do not know how to apply them. Thus, students are unable to self-regulate their reading. Yet, ample evidence exists that direct instruction of both study and repair strategies has a positive effect on the use of these strategies to facilitate native English speakers' reading comprehension (Baumann, 1984; Hansen and Hubbard, 1984; Hare and Borchardt, 1984; Holmes 1983, 1985; McCormick and Hill, 1984 Roehler and Duffy, 1984; Smith and Dauer, 1984; Armbruster, Anderson, and Ostertag, 1987; Dewitz, Carr, and Patberg, 1987). These studies recommend building adequate background knowledge of types of strategies, teaching the learner to relate strategies to a text while reading, and instructing the student to self-monitor while reading.

In general, native English speaking students at all academic levels, from elementary through university, have shown improved comprehension after instruction in the use of reading strategies. Paris, Cross, and Lipson (1984) have shown that metacognitive awareness can be promoted through direct instruction, and that this increased awareness leads to better use of strategies. Similarly, Short and Ryan (1984) in a program designed to remediate metacognitive skills of poor readers showed that strategies training produced dramatic gains in reading comprehension. At the university level, a study by Smith (1985) concluded that competent college level readers, when approaching difficult and unfamiliar reading material, employ strategies that they have accumulated over years of successful study.

To show that strategic reading is not acquired intuitively by students, but depends much on the teacher's active intervention, Duffy et al. (1986) have shown that when teachers have been trained to be explicit while teaching the use of reading skills to low reading groups at the elementary level, the result has been significantly greater student awareness of what they were being taught. Moreover, in a follow-up study designed to investigate the effects of directly explaining the mental acts associated with strategic reading in classroom situations, Duffy et al. (1987) found that teachers who had been taught how to make decisions about when and how to explain the mental processing connected with the use of reading strategies produced students who were more aware of content and the need of strategies and who scored better in reading achievement in a variety of measures.

A problem with teaching strategies is the transfer of skills to independent reading. While instruction of reading strategies has been shown to improve comprehension, little research has been performed to discover if the strategies are retained and used in independent reading. If strategic reading is to be effective, the use of a strategy must transfer to new learning situations.

In summary, research has shown that effective comprehension is helped by the recognition of reading problems and the conscious use of strategies to resolve these problems. Furthermore, studies have shown that reading strategies can be taught to students at all levels and that instruction in strategies usually results in improved comprehension. The extent to which the strategies that have been taught to student are used by students independently remains uncertain.

The Role of Reading Strategies in English as a Second Language

While the use of strategies by native English speakers has been shown to improve their reading comprehension, it is uncertain the degree to which strategic reading processes may be used in second language reading. A study of elementary students in the United States suggested that monolingual English speakers use twice as many strategies while reading English as bilingual Spanish speakers (Knight, Padron, and Waxman, 1985). However, no attempt to preteach strategies was used with this study. The two strategies cited by the bilingual students as being most important to them in reading were attempting to determine what the teacher wanted to know, and using correct decoding techniques.

O'Malley et al. (1986) conducted a two-phase study on the effects of teaching learning strategies associated with vocabulary, listening, and speaking tasks to secondary ESL students. In the first phase of the study, teachers and students were surveyed about the strategies they used in ESL classes. The authors found that students used a variety of strategies, but applied them mostly to discrete point tasks such as pronunication or vocabulary recognition rather than to integrative tasks such as listening or making an oral presentation. In phase two, ESL students who received learning strategies training were evaluated on their use of these strategies in integrative tasks. The results were mixed. Students derived little help from strategy use in comprehending difficult listening tasks, but much improvement in speaking tasks were observed when students applied learning strategies. The authors conclude that the positive results of learning strategies could be easily applied to reading comprehension, thinking skills, and problem solving.

Block (1986) conducted a study in which 'think-aloud' protocols, in which readers state aloud their thoughts and behaviors while reading, were used to examine comprehension strategies of both native and non-native English speaking college students who were enrolled in a university remedial reading class. She discovered that language background did not seem to account for different patterns of strategic reading: non-native speakers used, or did not use, strategies for reading an English text just as native English speakers did. The differences among individuals were a reflection of a knowledge of reading strategies rather than language background. Block concluded that, just as second language readers apply a knowledge of language in general to a task, they also utilize their knowledge of reading processes and approaches when reading a text in English. This study indicates that use of reading strategies is effective with second language reading and that ESL students who have been instructed in the use of these strategies have the potential for improved reading comprehension in English.

Classroom Instruction in English as a Second Language

Although research has suggested that use of reading strategies is effective in improving ESL reading comprehension, it is uncertain the extent to which ESL reading instructors teach their students these methods. Extensive study has been devoted to discovering the means by which students learn a second language as well as how ESL should be taught in schools, but not on what is actually occurring in ESL classrooms. For example, Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) have suggested that showing university ESL students how to preview is effective in improving their comprehension, particularly for less proficient students who tend to be word-bound. They also recommend that students produce oral or written summaries.

In addition, Carrell (1984) discovered that texts with highly structured formats were, in general, more facilitative of recall for ESL students. Carrell (1985) also conducted a controlled training study to determine if ESL reading instruction at the university level could be facilitated by explicit teaching of text structure. She reports that training sessions in text structure significantly improved both the students' reading comprehension and their retention of information three weeks after instruction.

Recently, Carrell (1987) conducted a study comparing the effects on ESL reading comprehension of both culture-specific schema and formal schema. She reports that familiar format and content yielded better comprehension than unfamiliar format and content, and in mixed conditions the content schemata of culturally familiar materials had greater effect on reading comprehension than that of familiar format. Carrell emphasizes that her conclusions do not imply that familiarity of rhetorical format is unimportant in ESL reading and suggests that teachers should teach students to recognize and use text organization to facilitate comprehension.

However, the above research, while indicating how ESL reading comprehension may be facilitated, does not deal with strategy instruction. In strategic reading, the student controls strategy use, but in each of these studies student control has been reduced by assigning materials which have been specifically designed to aid comprehension. The students have not been taught how to use strategies when faced with materials that have been written with few built-in comprehension aids, which is the type of reading they will be expected to comprehend in academic programs.

Surprisingly little research been done on what actually happens in ESL classrooms, particularly at the university level. Research suggests that teachers at all levels focus their instruction on the product rather than the process, that they frequently evaluate students on their ability to replicate structure, and that they give limited opportunities for students to produce or elaborate language (Schinke-Llano, 1983; Long and Sato, 1983; Brown, 1986).

For example, Schinke-Llano (1983) found that elementary classroom teachers in the United States who had classes made up of English native speakers and ESL students avoided linguistic interaction with their ESL students. When these teachers did interact with ESL students, the interaction was generally brief and managerial in nature. In total, teacher interactions with ESL students occurred half as much as with native speakers, all of the interactions were briefer, and only a third of the interactions were instructional.

In an observational study, Brown (1986) discovered that the reading instruction in the ESL classes of a large university in the United States was devoted mainly to requiring students to memorize vocabulary items and complete in-class exercises in the required textbooks. Little formal instruction was observed, and no attention was given to strategic reading. Students interviewed in the study commented that they saw little importance in what they were learning and studied only to pass a series of tests necessary to be released from ESL.

Although research has shown that teaching reading strategies facilitates comprehension in native language reading, it is not certain if the use of reading strategies is effective with students who reading in English as their second language. However, although ESL students do face additional problems in reading, such as vocabulary or a lack of background knowledge, that may have less effect on native speakers, every student sometime during schooling deals with specialized reading in which vocabulary and background knowledge is limited. It is just with this type of material that the efficient reader actively uses strategic reading to facilitate comprehension.

If ESL reading instruction emphasizes evaluating students on their facility to recognize structure rather than with their grasp of meaning, and if the students are not provided with opportunities to learn or practice strategic reading techniques, these students are deprived of important options in comprehension. Effective reading in both native and second language calls for the student to be aware of the processes involved, such as reviewing what one knows about a topic before reading or anticipating what types of information might be important, and to independently apply these processes. Furthermore, if the ESL student has been given no opportunity to integrate effective reading strategies into independent reading nor has been instructed on the importance of these strategies, it is unlikely that strategic reading will occur outside of the reading classroom.

Teaching Strategic Reading in ESL

As described above, the interactive theory of reading contends that reading is a process in which the reader is actively engaged in systematic analysis, prediction, and evaluation. The reader comprehends by relating what is known by the reader to the text being read. This knowledge ranges from the basic fundamentals of vocabulary and language structure, to previous knowledge of a topic, to the metacognitive application of strategies to the reading task. Therefore, instruction that focuses primarily on one area, such as vocabulary and language structure, limits the reader's potential for comprehension. Instruction that is restricted to exercises and discrete item testing as evidence of comprehension instruction is also insufficient.

Since reading comprehension results from an active process, the effective ESL reading program emphasizes reading activities that facilitate this process. The instructor consciously provides explicit instruction of reading skills and strategies, and gives students opportunity for practice. Furthermore, recognizing that reading is not independent of other courses in the ESL curriculum, reading instruction is integrated with writing and other ESL courses, such as English for academic purposes.

Research supports the view that students can be taught comprehension skills and strategies by showing them the nature of reading comprehension, the structure of texts, and the means of organizing and restructuring information. In addition, effective reading instruction shows students how language works, how to recognize reading problems, and how to apply strategies to the reading process.

An ESL reading program should therefore focus on the explicit instruction of the reading process. Process is a way to acquire understanding of content when engaged in reading; for example, conscious application of reading strategies. Students are taught how language works in reading and how to apply this knowledge when attempting to make sense out of a written text. Furthermore, an ESL reading program uses materials that are relevant to learning and practice of reading as an active process.

Effective instructors do not expect students to operate either below or beyond their comprehension potential. This refers to the level wherein the student is able to apply previously acquired skills to the task of developing new skills under the guidance of the instructor and/or the collaboration with more proficient peers. Moreover, students are encouraged to recognize reading problems as they occur and apply appropriate strategies to resolve these problems. At the broadest level, students are encouraged to approach reading as a method of learning and not as a means of completing assignments and passing quizzes, and finally progress to self-regulated reading activities.

The ESL instructor accepts the responsibility of identifying the students' comprehension potential and focuses instruction within that area. While working with specific materials, the instructor identifies the purpose of reading a given selection and determines that students have also identified and understood the purpose. This is a vital step since it is at this point in the process that a reader decides how to read the text (e.g. rapidly and selectively, slowly and carefully, etc.). The learning procedures are presented so that the students can progress in logical stages, and the instructor monitors student reading activities and informs students of both success and errors.

Within the ESL reading classroom, a variety of practices are available to help the students become strategic readers. To begin with, students can be questioned before a reading assignment to determine the extent of their knowledge of the topic. The instructor can also direct the students to determine the purpose of reading a selection and to plan strategies for meeting the purpose. Moreover, basic ideas within the text are introduced and discussed before a reading assignment.

Before reading, students are given the opportunity to preview reading material, anticipate types of problems, and plan strategies to resolve the problems. While reading, students implement the plan they have devised and consciously make appropriate strategic adjustments (change reading rate, look back, ask another student or the instructor for help, etc.) whenever unanticipated problems arise. Finally, upon completion of a reading activity, the instructor helps the students review and evaluate what they have read.

Some specific skills that ESL students can effectively use as strategies include skimming, scanning, and previewing. For example, they can shown how to apply skimming techniques to discover the type of information in a selection and to get a sense of the level of difficulty. They may be taught that scanning techniques are used to locate answers to specific questions or discover specific information. In addition, students can be taught to preview a selection before reading in order to predict the audience, purpose, and content of a text.

At the more advanced level, students can be taught how to apply context clues to a text. ESL students particularly need to recognize differences between literal and figurative meanings, determine the meaning of unfamiliar expressions and idioms such as 'beat around the bush', and to recognize situations in which context is inadequate to discover meaning. An important aspect of strategic reading is recognizing when the strategy is not working.

Recognizing the differences between main ideas and supporting details is another important skill, although not necessarily the most important.

Certainly, students should recall the main idea of a selection and be able to restate a main idea in a paraphrase. In this area, writing summaries has been shown to be effective in discovering if the reader can distinguish between main ideas and supporting details.

More important, however, is the ability to infer information that is not explicitly stated in a text. To begin with, students practice distinguishing between explicit facts and inferences, which frequently are not obvious to students. In addition, they are taught to recognize logical fallacies in reasoning that may be found within a text and to discriminate between opinions and facts. Students frequently accept information at face value merely because it is written in a textbook. However, reading comprehension includes not only recall of content, but active evaluation of the information. To improve the students' ability to evaluate what they are reading, the instructor can have students point out relationships such as causes, results, and comparisons or contrasts. In addition, students may practice predicting probable outcomes and describing ideas, assumptions, or events that are implied in a selection.

Finally, students should learn to identify an author's purpose. The instructor can show students how the use of style, tone, and choice of vocabulary indicates purpose, and then have students detect attitudes toward various topics in their assigned reading. In addition, students can practice identifying over-generalizations or sweeping statements as well as cause and effect relations in texts, learn to distinguish between facts and opinions, formulate appropriate conclusions based on what they have read, and specify content to support their conclusions.

Effective teachers make decisions and control their instruction. They evaluate what they are doing and modify their methods as they discover more efficient ways of teaching and learning. They realize that reading instruction requires more than asking for correct answers and completing assignments. The purpose for teaching ESL students reading strategies is to help them understand what reading is and how it works. This includes showing students how to discover answers and how to control their own cognitive processes as they are reading. The focus in strategic reading is on active thinking and evaluation, on conscious awareness, and on realistic application to academic materials. The goal is that by understanding reading and applying strategies, the student becomes an independent and efficient reader.

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INTRODUCING A PROCESS APPROACH IN THE TEACHING OF WRITING IN HONG KONG

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What is a process approach?

Process approaches see writing as a thinking process of discovery and communication. These approaches aim at developing learners' overall writing ability by having them write as 'real writers' moving through a recursive process with a clear communicative purpose and intended reader in mind. Process approaches are soundly based on the communicative approach to learning languages, and on recent linguistic, psychological and educational theory and research.

Using this method, step-by-step writing instructions are developed to guide learners to employ the mental processes of skilled writers who consciously move through a recursive process of generating, organizing, drafting, revising, editing, proof-reading and presenting. Sufficient time and reader feedback are two crucial elements in this process allowing learners to discover how to progressively arrive at what they want to say in writing *through the act of writing itself*.

Is a process approach suitable for Hong Kong learners?

Good writing does not just flow out. It is not a transcription or a recording process. Writing is a thinking process. It is complicated and demanding, especially for EFL inexperienced writers. There are four types of demands made on learners: cognitive demands, linguistic demands, demands made by the communicative context, and the demands of the composing process itself (see Appendix 1).

Research on how skilled writers actually handle these demands while they are writing (both native and non-native writers of English), has shown us this recursive process in action. Further pedagogical research has now shown us that this composing process can be described, taught and learned in the classroom. Learners draft and redraft with conscious attention to the process, and thus learn to write in the same way as skilled writers.

Process approaches also serve the main aim of teaching writing in Hong Kong. As stated in the Hong Kong Syllabus for English (1983:31):

> The ultimate aim in the teaching of writing is to enable the students to communicate, to express ideas and opinions, and to record important facts or to convey their thoughts to an intended reader.

What are some common problems in implementing a process approach in a traditional framework?

Below are four of the major difficulties:

(1) Writing is complicated. It takes time and effort to arrive at a competent product.

(2) Learners, by definition, are inexperienced writers with limited knowledge of specific language features and different genres. They also lack sufficient practice in taking a critical attitude towards reading and writing. Consequently, they have difficulty in locating and correcting their errors when revising and editing.

(3) Writing teachers at secondary level have to teach large classes and have a heavy marking load.

(4) Current textbooks, rigid school directives and timetables reinforce a product-oriented testing approach in the composition lesson.

How can a process approach be implemented smoothly in a traditional framework?

Process approaches can be implemented gradually and successfully if modifications and adaptations are made in addressing the above problems as follows:

(1) Build up a shared understanding. It is essential to describe, explain and exemplify the concept of the writing process for learners so that they know what they are expected to do, how to set about it, and why they are doing it.

(2) Integrate the four language skills to fit into the stages of writing without unduly upsetting the timetable and the scheme of work (see Appendix 2).

(3) Design purpose-specific and reader-specific tasks so that learners can draft and redraft with the communicative context in mind (see Appendix 3).

(4) Simplify writing tasks by removing limitations on the number of words and the required language forms, and ensure the familiarity of the subject matter. e.g. 'You are a class librarian. Write five rules for your class library.'

(5) Carry forward each stage in the process and focus on a different aspect of the writing process each lesson. It is very important to focus on meaning before accuracy.

(6) Allow sufficient time for learners to draft and redraft in order to discover and express their meaning appropriately and accurately. Some writing and peer-reading tasks must be done for homework outside the classroom so that learners are ready to move into the next stage.

(7) Provide reader feedback at each stage, e.g. on content after the first draft. Supply peer-reading and rewriting guidelines (see Appendix 3) to show learners how to develop critical reading and revising skills.

(8) Change the teacher's role from an evaluator or a judge of language accuracy to that of a facilitator, assistant, consultant and reader. Find a good aspect of the writing first, and praise it.

(9) Grade the product or final draft according to how much progress learners have made from first ideas in planning to final accuracy in the product. Encourage learners to value and keep every page they write during this process.

What strategies and techniques are used in a process approach?

The strategies and techniques used to implement this approach are based on the stages of the composing process. They include reading, talking and writing about written language, the process of composing, and the learning process itself. Activities include the following:

—class, group and paired discussion
—drawing
—fast/free writing
—brain-storming
—listing
—reading well-formed prose
—peer-reading (reading, critiquing, and commenting on each other's writing)
—reading one's own writing aloud
—doing rewriting exercises (e.g. sentence combining)
—doing editing exercises (common error detection and correction)
—one-to-one conferences with the teacher
—presenting the whole series of drafts (see Appendix 2)

Such activities can be used flexibly to suit both teaching styles and learner needs.

What research has been done in Hong Kong?

Research on the effectiveness of a process approach has been carried out in Hong Kong by a native speaker with a small class at tertiary level (Stewart, 1986), and also by a non-native speaker with a large class at junior secondary level (Cheung, 1989). In both cases, these approaches were superimposed onto a traditional framework (timetable, syllabus, coursebook, class size, etc.). The above suggested adaptations were employed flexibly in response to the unique characteristics of their own classes.

The first study was carried out in a small class at tertiary level with a parallel class using a more traditional approach as a comparison. Differences in text and discourse structure, and in learner attitudes towards writing, were measured over a period of 15 weeks.

In the Experimental class, there was a significant increase in the information load of their content, and improvements in both language structures and discourse concerns (e.g. awareness of purpose and audience). Such gains were not present in the writing of the Comparison class. In contrast also were learner self-perceptions and attitudes towards writing. By the end of the course, those in the Experimental class were able to conceptualise changes in their writing procedures, and relate these to both improved performance and greater self-confidence in their ability to successfully carry out a writing task.

The two classes' final examination papers were also studied to discover whether writing done under timed examination conditions (without peer or teacher feedback) was also superior. This was shown to be the case with the writing of the Experimental class having a higher level of discourse appropriacy and text accuracy.

In summary, the Experimental learners made measurable gains in their written products, and changed their attitudes towards writing from negative reluctance and fear, to positive self-perceptions about their progress towards competence.

The result of the second study also showed that a process approach was both meaningful and rewarding. From a EFL class of 40 Form 1 learners, 3 subjects with different language abilities were selected for detailed study. This action research was carried out in 13 weeks. All 3 subjects improved the quality of their writing across drafts with a higher level of reader considerations and a stronger sense of writing purpose. To achieve this, the subjects independently employed all types of rewriting (deletions, substitutions, additions, rearrangements and spelling) at content and surface level to rewrite with confidence. They finally arrived at a final product which satisfied themselves.

All subjects considered that a process approach helped them to rewrite better. It was also found that rewriting instruction (rewriting guidelines, peer reading, reader comments) between drafts was necessary for unskilled EFL writers to become involved in and to benefit from a process approach. Rewriting instruction was also a time-saving method for a teacher of a large class to give specific feedback to every learners. On the whole, the EFL class progressively adjusted to the process and followed it smoothly. The class enjoyed writing in English more and the teacher enjoyed reading learners' drafts more than before. They expected and wanted this process approach to continue in learning how to write.

Conclusion

Making changes in classroom methodology and attitudes towards writing takes time and effort. It is important for interested teachers to be both patient and quietly persistent in demonstrating and explaining what is meant by 'drafting'. Teachers need to become more aware of their learners' needs, and to trust their own professional judgement in incorporating the principles and the methodology of a process approach. Above all, teachers need to become familiar with the writing process themselves. Through writing, they gain valuable insights into what they are trying to teach.

Process approaches do not provide a magic formula—writing is revealed as a very complex process indeed—but classroom research indicates that they are more soundly based, more motivating, and more rewarding for both teachers and learners than traditional one-shot 'assign-assess' routines.

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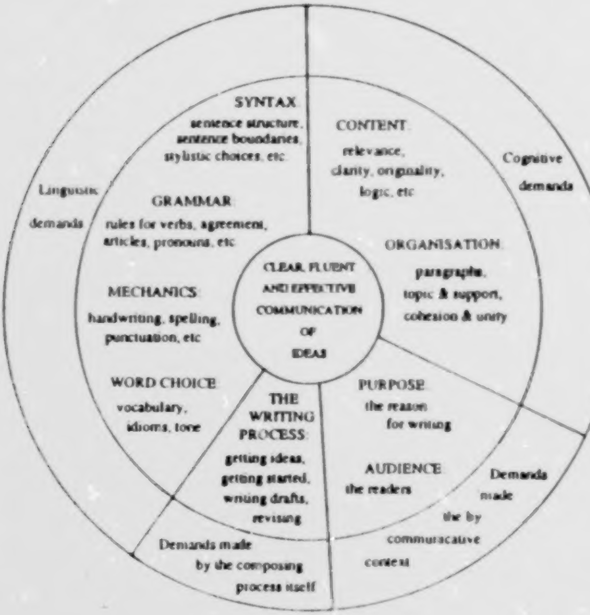
581

Appendix 1 The demands made on EFL learners in producing a piece of writing


SYNTAX
sentence structure,
sentence boundaries,
stylistic choices, etc
CONTENT
relevance,
clarity, originality,
logic, etc
Cognitive
demands
Linguistic
demands
GRAMMAR
rules for verbs, agreement,
articles, pronouns, etc
ORGANISATION
paragraphs,
topic & support,
cohesion & unity
CLEAR, FLUENT
AND EFFECTIVE
COMMUNICATION
OF
IDEAS
MECHANICS
handwriting, spelling,
punctuation, etc
WORD CHOICE
vocabulary,
idioms, tone
THE
WRITING
PROCESS
getting ideas,
getting started,
writing drafts,
revising
PURPOSE
the reason
for writing
AUDIENCE
the readers
Demands
made
the by
communicative
context
Demands made
by the composing
process itself

(Adapted and modified from Raimes, 1983)

Appendix 2 Suggested adaptations for carrying out a process approach in the traditional framework of secondary schools

Time allocation	Writing Stages	Strategies & techniques
listening/ETV/ comprehension (2 to 3 lessons)	Pre-writing (ideas writing purpose audience development organization)	brain-storming listing drawing mapping fast-writing reading passages discussing
composition/oral (1 to 2 lessons)	Drafting	discussing fast-writing peer-reading *start drafting at school & finish at home
oral/correction (1 to 2 lessons)	Revising	one-to-one conferences rewriting guidelines rewriting exercises peer-reading *start revising at school & finish at home
G.E. (1 lesson)	Editing & Proof-reading	editing exercises grammar exercises
(0 to 1 lesson)	Presenting	the entire series of drafts peer-reading

Appendix 3 Writing task and rewriting guidelines

Title: A letter about your perfect routines to Dr. Crazy
Readers: Dr. Crazy and newspaper readers
Purpose: Use your humour and imagination to describe your perfect routine to Dr. Cr. Crazy for his psychology corner to make people laugh.
Organization: In time of day

Rewriting guidelines

Your classmate's draft is different from yours! In what way? Use the following guidelines to compare your draft with the other's draft. Which one do you like more?

1. Do you smile or laugh when you are reading it?
2. Do the first one or two sentences arouse your interest in reading it?
3. Underline the adjectives and adverbs. Can these words help you to 'see' his/her routine?
4. Circle the time markers. Do you know the order of the routine clearly?
5. Do you know why s/he likes such a routine? Ask him/her if you do not know.

SECOND LANGUAGE LISTENING COMPREHENSION AND SEGMENTAL CONTRASTS IN DIFFERENT DEGREES OF CONTEXT

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Introduction

In the last decade, the view that teachers should try to get their students to focus less on acoustic/phonetic information during listening comprehension exercises has become more and more widespread. Gillian Brown's works on listening comprehension, 'Listening to Spoken English' (1977) and 'Listening Comprehension' (1978), have played a leading role in spreading this view. Although Brown (1978:63) acknowledges the necessity of exercises involving the discrimination of minimal pairs, her message regarding the teaching of EFL has been interpreted to the effect that work on segmental information is useful but getting your students 'to identify stressed syllables and make intelligent guesses about the content of this information, is absolutely essential' (Brown, 1977:52). One sees this interpretation very clearly in a major state-of-the-art article on listening comprehension by Dirven and Oakeshott-Taylor when they comment after discussing Brown's approach:

> In view of the fact that segmental information in the acoustic signal may well be of limited scope and reliability, it is of the greatest importance that the learner's attention is directed to non-segmental information.
>
> (Dirven and Oakeshott-Taylor, 1984:333)

In her works, Brown emphasised the points which she felt were lacking in the teaching of listening comprehension. This is only natural; after all, there is little value in bringing out a publication in order to urge people to do things they are already doing. However, the manner in which she made her points predisposed readers to the interpretation of her message described in the preceding paragraph. For example, the following assertion clearly implies that phonemic contrasts between vowels are relatively unimportant in L2 listening comprehension:

> 'The student who is exposed to a sentence in context does not have to worry too much about "what vowel" he hears. He has to recognize a *word* and a word that is possible in that context. It is very rare in real life to be in doubt whether *the sheriff was shot through the heart* or whether *he was shot through the hat*, whether *John bit the dog* or *John beat the dog*. Clearly an ability to distinguish these vowels will help in the selection of the suitable word but the context will usually make this selection reasonably straightforward.'
>
> (Brown, 1977:161)

This claim by Brown that contextual clues would enable L2 learners to resolve difficulties at a segmental level was the stimulus for the experiment which I shall describe in the rest of this paper. Brown's position has already been attacked by Abbott (1986:302), with regard to pronunciation, as falling foul of the 'single error' fallacy. That is to say, the assumption that there is only a single error in each utterance or else one error continually repeated.[1] However, little evidence has been produced concerning the appropriateness of her remarks regarding L2 speech comprehension. The experiment described below was set up to check whether English phonemes which have been identified through contrastive analysis as being difficult for the learners to perceive lead to problems with the recognition of words containing those phonemes in varying degrees of *linguistic context*.[2] As I was in Italy at the time, I decided to test the following hypotheses:

1. The learners would recognise English words containing vowels that have near equivalents in Italian more easily than words containing vowels which have no near equivalent.
2. The differences mentioned in (1) would be greater when the degree of context was reduced and would be reduced when the context was increased.

Methods and procedure

Subjects

The subjects were 42 Italian University students studying for a degree in Modern Languages and Literature. As regards proficiency in English, they were of late elementary and early intermediate level. All the subjects were between the ages of 19 and 23. 38 of the subjects were females and 4 were males. All the subjects came from the south of Tuscany and spoke a regional variation of Italian which was close to standard Italian.

The phonological segments and the words containing them

/ɛ/ and /iː/ were chosen to represent shared vowels which have near equivalents in Italian.

/ɪ/ and /ɜː/ were chosen to represent new vowels as neither of them play a contrastive role in Italian phonology.

These categories are consistent with recent contrastive descriptions of the phonological systems of RP and Italian (Fiorentino colto) by Canepari (1979), D'Eugenio (1984) and Payne (1984).

All the target vowels were in stressed syllables and in the first syllable of words of more than one syllable. The words containing the target vowels were controlled as to the frequency with which they appeared in the subjects' courses, their similarity to Italian words, their grammatical class and the number of syllables. The controls were made by matching pairs of words. One half of the pair was a word containing a shared vowel and the other half was a word containing a new vowel. These matched pairs will be referred to as 'paired target words' in the following description of the factors involved in establishing the different degrees of context.

Degrees of context

Two degrees of context, low and high, were established. In the low context condition, there were strong syntactic cues as to the word class of the target words but only minimal semantic clues to the identity of the target. For example, in 2 of the tests there was the following item:

He went to the shop to buy some ....

The extralinguistic context provided by the test format, that is the blank space of two inches in which to write a response, acts as a constraint against the possibility that the sentence will continue with 'of' + an adjectival or noun phrase + relative clause. For example, a continuation such as '... of the beautiful red and gold socks he had seen in the window that morning' would be unlikely, given the size of the space in which to write the response. From the linguistic context the subjects could expect either a noun or an adjective. However, the noun could be any one of a vast class of things which can be bought in shops. It is hardly any easier to predict from the context which adjective, if any, is likely to appear. In all of the low context items, there were strong syntactic constraints as to the type of word but only weak semantic clues as to the lexical set to which the word belonged. With regard to the example cited above, the subjects heard 'sheets' and 'shirts' in 2 different tests.

In the high context condition, the listener had strong syntactic and semantic clues to the target word's identity. The linguistic context indicated both the grammatical word class of the target and primed the subjects as to the lexical set to which it belonged. The following item provides an example of the manner in which high context constrains the subjects' predictions regarding the type of words which were likely to be missing from the text:

The thieves only seemed interested in her jewellery. They took her .... and went out as silently as they had come in.

The syntactic clues indicate that the first missing word is going to be either an adjective or a noun. The initial sentence raises the possibility that the missing word/s will be associated with jewellery. An investigation of contextual contributions to word-recognition processes by Blank and Foss (1978) indicated that *the this* type of prior context would facilitate the recognition of the words which could be associated with *jewellery*. In the above instance, *necklace* was presented to the subjects.

The paired target words were controlled as to the context they appeared in. With regard to the low context items, they both appeared in exactly the same linguistic context. In the high context condition, the bilateral context was controlled taking into account the findings of research by Aborn et al (1959) and Porter (1983) concerning the effect of quantity of context on the ability to make linguistic predictions.

From the above, it can be seen that the items belonged to one of the following categories:

(1) NEW LOW (new vowels—low context)
(2) NEW HIGH (new vowels—high context)
(3) SHARED LOW (shared vowels—low context)
(4) SHARED HIGH (shared vowels—high context)

There were ten test items in each category.

The recordings

The passages were recorded on cassette tapes by a male RP speaker using a Prinz STR 8080 stereo radio cassette recorder with an external microphone.

Administration of the tests

The 42 subjects who took the test were divided into 4 different groups which corresponded to their class groups throughout the year. The items I have described comprised a sub-test in a series of 9 tests. The items were dispersed among items dealing with the effects of assimilation and glottalisation and strong and weak forms in 4 different tests. In addition, there were a number of 'filler' items. Half of the subjects heard the items in one order and the other half heard them in reverse sequence.

In all 9 tests, the subjects received the test papers and the supervisor read through the instructions at the top of each test paper. Then, the subjects were told to read the entire test paper carefully and ask about anything that was unclear in either the instructions or the English vocabulary. For each test, the supervisor had a list of the words which might have been problematic for the subjects. If the subjects did not ask for clarification of any of the words on the list, the supervisor checked that the words were known by asking the subjects for an Italian equivalent to the word. The supervisors emphasised the importance of noting in the appropriate place on the answer sheet whatever was understood even if it was only one letter.

The passages were played back to the groups in an open classroom using a Prinz STR 8080 stereo radio cassette recorder with a 2-way 4 speaker system. The sound signal was distinct in all parts of the classroom. The supervisors paused the tape after each item and waited until all the subjects had finished writing before playing the next item.

Results

In order to avoid having to repeat the rather unwieldy expression 'the target words containing the new/shared vowels' throughout the following, I will use 'new/shared vowels' as a short form for the entire phrase.

The results of the tests indicated that segmental problems, as predicted by contrastive analysis, caused word recognition problems even when context strongly constrained the number of possible word candidates. This can be seen from the mean scores for the four different categories in Table 1.

Table 1

Mean scores of the 42 subjects for the 4 categories

	VOWEL	
	NEW	SHARED
CONTEXT		
LOW	6.0	7.0
HIGH	6.4	8.0

If Brown's claims were true about context being used to resolve problems on the segmental level, we would expect the categories to be ranked in the following manner in terms of mean number of successful responses:

SHARED HIGH/NEW HIGH > SHARED LOW/NEW LOW

Instead, we find the following rank order:

SHARED HIGH > SHARED LOW > NEW HIGH > NEW LOW

The scores were analysed within a 2 (low × high context) × 2 (new × shared vowels) ANOVA (see Table 2). The context × vowel interaction was not found to be significant but the F values for both factors were found to be significant: context ($F = 3.864$; $p < 0.05$); vowel ($F = 14.129$; $p < .0005$).

Table 2

2 (low × high context) × 2 (new × shared vowels) ANOVA

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Signif of F
Main Effects	90.060	2	45.030	8.996	.0005
CONTEXT	19.339	1	19.339	3.864	.051
VOWEL	70.720	1	70.720	14.129	.0005
2-way Interactions	4.339	1	4.339	.867	.353
CONTEXT VOWEL	4.339	1	4.339	.867	.353
Explained	94.399	3	31.466	6.287	.0005
Residual	820.881	164	5.005		
Total	915.280	167	5.481		

Post-hoc t-tests showed that the scores for the shared vowels were significantly higher than those for the new vowels ($t = 4.53$; $p < .0005$). From comparing the overall means (see Table 3) it also appears that the difference is substantial, the advantage for the shared vowels being in the order of 13%. The high context scores were also significantly better than the low context scores ($t = 3.39$; $p < .002$). However, the difference between the mean scores for high and low context items, being slightly less than 7%, is not so great as that between the new and shared vowels.

Table 3
Overall means for all items, the 2 degrees of context and the 2 categories of vowel

ALL ITEMS	CONTEXT		VOWEL	
	LOW	HIGH	NEW	SHARED
6.85	6.51	7.19	6.20	7.50

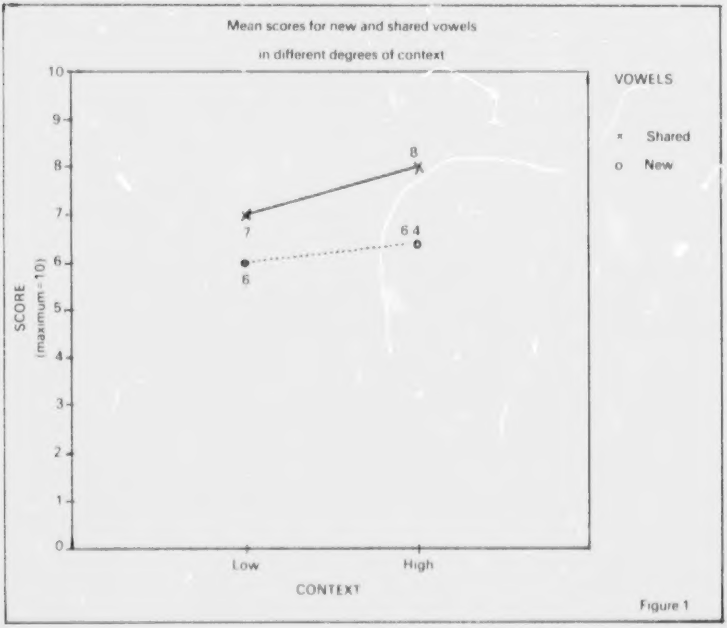

Figure 1

This indicates that the type of vowel is a more powerful influence upon the responses than degree of context. This impression is reinforced by the data in Table 1 which shows how the subjects responded to the different types of vowel in the different degrees of context.

Figure 1 displays the information from Table 1 in graph form. It can be seen that the scores for the new vowels are lower than those for the shared vowels. These results support hypothesis (1). However, the difference between the scores of the items containing new and shared vowels increases as the context increases. This is in complete contrast with what was predicted by hypothesis (2). These findings indicate that difficulties associated with an unfamiliar segmental feature, that is, a new phoneme, diminished the amount of benefit the subjects were able to derive from the additional contextual clues as to the identity of the words in question.

Further analysis of the data provided more support for the hypothesis that, at this level of language learning, difficulties caused by unfamiliar segmental features outweigh the assistance which learners can derive from enriched linguistic contexts. For example, it can be seen that the mean score for the shared vowels in the low context condition (7.0) is in fact higher than the score for the new vowels in the high context condition (6.4). This difference was tested *a posteriori* using the paired-samples t-test procedure and found to be highly significant ($t = 2.47$; $p < .009$). Clearly the difference is not as substantial as that between the high context shared vowels (8.0) and the high context new vowels (6.4). However, it is slightly larger than the difference between the mean scores for the low context new vowels (6.0) and the high context new vowels.

Discussion

Before considering the implications of the above findings, some of the limitations of the experimental procedure will be discussed. Firstly, the size of the sample, 42 subjects, would make one hesitant about making strong claims on the basis of this experiment alone. In addition, the fact that the subjects had only linguistic context, with hardly any extralinguistic clues as to what was being said, emphasises the need for caution in interpreting these results. Furthermore, the type of task used to assess the subjects' listening comprehension, transcription, may well require a mode of listening which is particularly dependent on bottom-up sources of information. This would lead to a distortion of the results if it were the case. However, given that none of these qualifications have been substantiated, they do not invalidate the evidence derived from the experiment although they do serve to put it in its proper perspective. If one regards L2 speech comprehension as an extremely vast dark limbo, the above findings are like having a pocket torch to shed some light on one particular zone of darkness.

With such a small amount of light in such a vast area, the following discussion is, of necessity, speculative in the extreme. However, it is now apparent that Brown's claim that

> 'The student who is exposed to a sentence in context does not have to worry too much about "what vowel' he hears."

is not true in the case of the subjects in this study.

As noted above, this study focused on the subjects' ability to make use of linguistic context and that this is the type of context which is most accessible to the majority of EFL learners during their listening comprehension exercises. In view of this, and as a counterbalance to the preceding qualifications concerning the design of this study, it is worth bearing in mind that the linguistic context the subjects had accessible to them in the experiment was far more transparent than it would ever be in real life. For example, in the high context condition, the subjects were fully aware of the bilateral context before they heard the target words. In addition, the time pressure on the subjects was considerably less in the experiment than it would be in most normal circumstances.

Given these optimal conditions for accessing the information provided by the enriched contexts, the subjects showed that they could use this top-down source of information only with the shared vowels. With the new vowels, the difference in the degrees of context made only a minor difference to the subjects' identification of the target words. In contrast to Brown's claim that EFL learners can use context to resolve problems which may arise from the misidentification of vowel phonemes, the results indicated that unfamiliar vowel phonemes can prevent such learners from utilising contextual clues to a word's identity. Although, as noted above, the evidence provided by this experiment needs to be treated with caution so too do recommendations given to teachers of EFL by other researchers in the area of L2 listening comprehension. For instance, Voss (1984:122) concludes an excellent research study with the following words

> '... the advice [to EFL learners] would have to be not "to listen more carefully", i.e. to identify, but to make a greater effort to understand, i.e. to hypothesise.'

It is worth considering why Voss should come to a conclusion which contrasts so strongly with the implications of my findings especially as his study was so well conducted. I would suggest that the conflict is due to the differences in the levels of proficiency in English of Voss's subjects and my subjects. My subjects had less exposure to English than Voss's subjects. His subjects were apparently around Cambridge Proficiency level whereas my subjects were below Cambridge First Certificate level. Clearly, segmental differences between L1 and L2 phonological systems will be less of a problem for advanced learners for the simple reason that 'new' phonemes will not be that new to them as they will have been exposed to them to a far greater extent than intermediate level learners. The conflict between Voss's conclusions and those derived from my experiment can be resolved by positing the existence of a threshold level in language acquisition. Below this level, attending to the sound form of speech pays dividends as a learning strategy but above it the same focus of attention hinders the operation of potentially successful top-down comprehension strategies.

My findings also raise some interesting points concerning the view that teachers should encourage their learners to predict/hypothesise about the likely message they will hear and sample the stream of speech to check their hypothesis. Such an approach is not going to be very useful for less advanced learners of English as, when they sample the speech signal, they will hear signals that they have no expectation of, i.e. new phonemes.[3] This conflict between expectations and the nature of the L2 sound signal will push the learners to listen far more intently to the acoustic signal as they quite literally will not be able to believe their ears. The probability of such a conflict occurring appears to have been overlooked by proponents of the 'hypothesise-and-sample-the-stream-of-speech' approach to developing listening comprehension. Such an approach operates on the assumption that a listener's expectations of message content are paramount in the comprehension process whilst expectations of the message form are inconsequential. My date clearly suggests that this assumption requires thorough scrutiny and, until it has been substantiated with L2 listeners, teachers should be wary of its efficacy.

Learners' expectations concerning the sounds they will sample are based on their previous experience of meaningful sounds in the stream of speech. New phonemes will not be meaningful for the learners until they have become familiar with the multitudinous realisations of the new phoneme in different contexts in the L2 stream of speech and have developed a gestalt for it.[4] On these grounds, it can be argued that rather than try and prevent less advanced learners of English listening intently to the acoustic signal, teachers should work with the learners' tendency to do this. In this way, the learners would probably become familiar with the realisations of the new phonemes more rapidly than if the teacher were making them feel guilty about listening intensely. Furthermore, I would suggest that most learners are quite normally lazy and intelligent and that they begin accessing top-down sources of information as soon as they find it pays dividends in the comprehension process. Attempting to make learners activate top-down sources of information when the bottom-up sources of information are dense with unrecognisable segments probably only pays dividends in the confusion process.

By way of conclusion, I would like to summarise the points I have raised whilst speculating on the implications of my findings. The notion that focusing on the acoustic signal is a bad thing in itself, as it prevents L2 learners from utilising more successful top-down sources of information, needs to be tempered somewhat. Whilst it may be a bad thing for relatively proficient L2 learners to attend to closely to the acoustic signal, it could well be a useful learning strategy for students of English who have had relatively little exposure to the language. There may well be a threshold level beyond which close attention to the acoustic realisation of the speech signal is a hindrance but prior to which it is a necessity if speech comprehension is too be more than marginally successful.

Beginners through to early intermediate FLE learners may well benefit from being allowed to attend closely to the speech signal when they are doing exercises which require them to comprehend the meaning of what is being said.[5] Such exercises would help the learners become familiar with the pecularities of the signals associated with English segmental features in natural speech. This in turn would enable the learners, at a later stage in the L2 acquisition process, to check the degree of fit between the incoming signal and the hypotheses they formulate on the basis of contextual information, their knowledge of the world and the prior linguistic context.

NOTES

[1] In fact, Brown's ideas with regard to the role of phonetics in pronunciation teaching have been rigorously criticised by Roach (1987). In his paper, Roach details the 'prejudices and folk-myths put about by trendy methodologists of the 1980s' which have contributed to the demise of phonetics-based pronunciation teaching in the EFL classroom in recent years. His comments are indicative of the heat generated by the issue.

[2] Brown herself (1977:156 ff.) is aware that, unfortunately, aside from 'well-equipped establishments' this is the main type of context which most L2 listeners have accessible during listening comprehension exercises.

[3] The nature of the operational units in speech perception has yet to be satisfactorily established (see Cutler and Norris, 1979:118–119 and Cutler, 1986). It seems likely that the size of the operative units varies in inverse relationship to the predictability of the message as well as the ease with which the units can be recognised (see Leontiev, 1975; Healy and Cutting, 1976). That is to say, if the message is highly predictable and the sound signal unambiguous, listeners will be able to use larger operational units than would otherwise be the case. Conversely, when the message is less predictable and the signal more ambiguous, listeners will be more dependent on bottom-up sources of information in their search for a reasonable interpretation of the message.

[4] Leontiev (1981:36–37) asserts that the formation of a 'phonetic word-type', i.e. a gestalt for a spoken word, in an L2 is based upon a 'probing' procedure carried out by the articulatory organs. This leads him to claim that 'In order to hear correctly in the future, we must start by uttering the sound of the phonetic word.' This is, of course, an archetypical chicken-and-egg argument and has generated a great deal of discussion amongst researchers involved in L1 speech perception (see Studdert-Kennedy, 1976:254–255; Lieberman and Blumstein, 1988:147ff.) with no conclusive evidence being produced to settle the argument. Besides which, it is by no means certain that words are invariably the operative units of speech perception (see note (2) above. Although the outcome of this debate is of tremendous importance to teachers of EFL, it is of only tangential significance to the issues investigated in this paper.

[5] Pimsleur et al (1977) and Tauroza (1984) show how the stream of speech can segmented into units which would allow less advanced learners to use authentic materials without being overwhelmed.

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DRAMA IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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Introduction

With the exception of teachers of Literature and Drama teachers themselves the teacher of language is probably more aware of Drama as a useful teaching vehicle than any other. Whether these language teachers use drama in their teaching or not, they will all have more than a mere 'threshold awareness' of drama techniques and ways in which they may be utilised. Classroom role play and simulation exercises have featured as stock language teaching tools for some time and will figure in the repertoires of the majority of language teachers. Active open space drama however is not such a popular teaching device. Although frequently viewed as having the same potential as Role Play and Simulation in promoting the use of language in something approaching an authentic context, 'Open Space Drama' remains a Cinderella subject, a specialist teaching method apparently requiring a specialist teacher *per se*. Consequently, the majority of language teachers stay shy of utilising the particular, and peculiar, benefits of Open Space Drama as a means of teaching and practising language. This paper will offer, first of all, the rationale behind a specific approach to the use of Drama in the teaching of language and, secondly, suggest a working pattern through which cultural resistance to learning and practice may be avoided or reduced.

It would be arrogant to presume that such a paper will immediately convert every one of its readers or listeners into a dual purpose tutor capable of wearing two hats; that of a Language teacher and that of a Drama teacher. Although it is my belief that a person capable of taching language communicatively can readily adapt to incorporating drama techniques as part of their pedagogic weaponry, they do require a different kind of confidence or 'presence' in themselves and the acceptance of a markedly different kind of role.

What this Paper does hope to do is to convince teachers of language that Drama techniques should already be an integral part of the methodology that we use in our daily work, thereby requiring consideration by teacher-trainers as an integral part of a modern language teacher's range of basic skills, a consideration that is seriously overdue.

Definition of terms

The term **'Drama'** itself can conjure all sorts of evocative images. If one were to distribute paper and pencils and ask a group of teachers to write down half a dozen words which they might associate with the term it is probable that words such as Actor, Play, and Stage would feature highly. In such a group odd words like 'entertainment' or 'script' or even a phrase such as 'serious television play' might be listed. Unless the teachers had experienced a Drama course that was not orientated towards the production of a play, or had taken part in a Drama workshop session, they would not be expected to produce words such as 'movement', 'experience', 'mimic' or even 'argument'. The distinction being made here is actually between two quite separate things; 'Theatre' and 'Drama'. In Theatre actors learn the words of authors, which are often difficult to understand or interpret, and then regurgitate them at the insistence of a director who moulds the actions and delivery of lines to suit his overall perception of the play. **Drama**, on the other hand, as used here, is physical involvement in a learning activity, one which is rarely scripted and always dependent on the authentic reactions of the individual or group to the task or stimulus that is offered. Drama involves thought, planning, participation and review. But, most importantly, it will require at some stage that the individual, using his experience of the world and his knowledge of language, improvises both action and speech in co-operation and communication with others.

Another phrase that I frequently link with Drama is **'open space'**. This is self-explanatory but, for the purposes of this Paper distinguishes a practical Drama workshop taking place in a classroom cleared of furniture or a school hall or gymnasium from the type of classroom practice that we have mentioned before, more specifically Role Play and Simulation exercises.

Modern Uses

In schools in the United Kingdom over the last decade or so there has been a resurgence of interest in the employment of drama techniques in the teaching of subjects other than Literature. Traditionally, drama had always previously been orientated towards production; the school play, 'O' and 'A' level set books and so on. Very occasionally, a drama workshop was used as a means of exploring character and role through improvisation and free expression but there were few teachers who had been properly trained and drama in secondary education was often left to enthusiastic English teachers. Curriculum design frequently ignored drama as being a worthwhile component and, in the face of competition for a school's available open spaces, the drama workshop became an extra-curricular activity offered to committed students outside regular school hours.

Recently there has been a much more positive attitude to the subject across the educational spectrum rather than only in those schools with an educational philosophy that biases them toward the arts. Drama is an examinable subject at all levels and, as a consequence, attracts subject-specific finance and resourcing at primary, junior and secondary levels. No longer is Drama viewed as being umbilically linked to English Literature. Its own particular attributes and benefits have been re-discovered and are now being used in the context of student self-discovery and expression. In schools where special learning difficulties and environmental problems have been diagnosed, so-called inner-city schools in 'Educational Priority Areas' for instance, and in classrooms where the traditional pedagogic methods have failed to answer the peculiar needs of the young, there is an increasing employment of drama techniques in countering the effects of a general decline in student discipline and morale. In these instances drama is used on a variety of levels; as a channel for the expression of aggressive or abnormal feelings, as a vehicle for the student's greater comprehension of his own self-concept and, thereby, place in society, as a means of contemplating inherent strengths and weaknesses and as perhaps the only way in which it might be possible for students to understand and extend the mental barriers that restrict the reception and absorbtion of new and potentially useful information.

Apart from the educational cooperation between drama and theatre, there has also been a deeper awareness in many schools of the interface between drama and the other traditional curriculum arts subjects. The unique way in which drama, within a single discipline, combines music, dance, language and even elements of physical activity, group dynamics, body signalling and so on, is only now being recognised and valued in the United Kingdom.

The education system is not the only sphere in which the power of drama has achieved a greater prominence. In the health service, there has been a growth in the use of drama techniques as treatment for mental and physical illnesses and the rehabilitation of patients. With the changing trends in state policy regarding the institutionalisation of the mentally ill moves have been made to re-integrate patients with society. In the majority of cases personnel, nurses for the most part, trained in specially developed techniques, use role-play and experiential drama to enable patients to be able to cope in a non-institutional environment. This is the method known by the term PSYCHODRAMA. Its use is not restricted to those patients who may be 'cured' however. In the cases of the mentally ill, where there is no alternative to the institutional cocoon, drama is used as a means of communicating with people who may have completely rejected what we perceive as the world, life and normality. Geriatric nursing and the rehabilitation of long term prisoners are other fields in which drama forms a part of the treatment rather than functioning merely as a diverting entertainment.

The elements of basic dramatic technique that Psychodrama has exploited are among the most interesting for the purposes of those who would like to employ drama methods but are wary of the apparent freedoms and lack of formal lesson structure that drama workshops sometimes seem to involve. Drama may not only be classified as a discipline but needs discipline itself in order to function. In fact, in many ways the agoraphobia that grips so many teachers when they are confronted by a teaching area that contains no desks or chairs to keep between them and the students is unfounded. The properly structured drama workshop creates a working environment in which the need for physical barriers is replaced by the invisible disciplines of motivation and the need for task involvement. In other words, the students will discipline themselves once the structured nature of the working relationship within the workshop environment is made clear. With increasing pattern familiarity the need for overt teacher-centred discipline is reduced and will often become completely unnecessary. However, before we get too deeply involved in these arguments at this stage let us first consider drama as a language teaching tool in more general terms.

I will not dwell long on the classroom techniques that have already been mentioned and will be familiar to every one of you. To some extent, role-play and simulation both utilise specific drama techniques although they do so in isolation, failing to retain the integrated nature of true drama activity. Role-play for example, though frequently effective, often requires students to act rather than adopt a characterisation that draws on their own personality and experience. The character often lacks authenticity because the students have no way of identifying with it. In this situation the language may also lack originality because the students are operating on their concept of the speech that the character would produce in the given situation, rather than the language that they, themselves, would use. If the teacher is functioning as director then the reality of the role-play is further compromised and the exercise has all the originality of a plastic flower.

Simulation, like role-play, can also be effective in classroom teaching but, likewise, divorces language from movement. For the language teacher it is important to remember that movement—body posture, signalling, gesture and so on—certainly preceeded any form of spoken discourse. To teach one and ignore the other is to tell only half the story.

How then to tell the full story? It would seem to be ridiculous perhaps to encourage classroom language teachers to teach the facial expressions and body language that accompany an utterance. The image of a classroom full of students from different countries all busily engaged in pulling faces at the teacher's request is farcical, yet there is often a real gap in the fluency of students that gesture and non-verbal language should fill. The involvement of students in a practical activity or task that requires interaction in order that it may be accomplished allows for the practise and exchange of spoken and non-verbal language. But there are classroom activities that offer these possibilities. What then does open-space drama offer that classroom based activities cannot?

The answer, for me anyway, is that drama allows many valuable things to happen that can occur nowhere else, things that are important to the language learning process and vital in communication at the cultural interface. I am going to discuss two of them very briefly; one involved in the practical effect of drama teaching and one that I can only describe as a phenomenon—something in the mental process that takes place when students are brought into interaction with each other (Maley and Duff, 1984) and encouraged to work together in exploring situations that require imagination and creative thought. Drama, more than any other teaching tool, offers students space in which they can experiment with the language that they possess. It can produce situations in which students need to communicate with each other because, though the tasks might seem improvised or even contrived and unreal from the viewpoint of the non-involved, the requirement for the language itself is very real. Drama also allows students to adopt roles. Not the roles that use dialogues from the pages of workbooks and leave the student sitting at his desk but roles that require interaction between the personalities involved rather than the characterisations that the book or the teacher might have imposed; roles that encourage competence and breed confidence.

Approaching the cultural interface

Participants in drama workshops, whether they are male or female, Moslem of Hindu, old or young, can be pushed into experiencing a strange sense of personal freedom. We will consider the sort of workshop structure that can promote this condition and, perhaps, I can indicate the ways in which this freedom may be encouraged and why it exists.

To begin with, a Drama workshop should always start with a Warm-up period during which the bodies of the participants are physically stretched and loosened before the programmed activities that will incorporate the language practice and learning are introduced (Refer to Lesson Plan, Appendix 1.).

This is also the time during which the mental awareness of the students is focussed and attuned to the mood required for the language based tasks to be successfully completed. In cases where these activities are going to involve boisterous movement and improvised dialogue then the exercises providing this mental focus should be chosen to encourage rapidity and spontaneity of thought and utterance. On the other hand, where the language practice is going to require much more careful planning and long discussion phases, then the exercises should orientate the participants toward calm concentration with reduced emphasis on movement.

Warm-ups should always combine straightforward physical activity with exercises designed to start participants working together in pairs, small groups or as a complete group unit. It is a good idea to work towards the optimum group size that will be needed at the 'Task' stage of the workshop. If one is going to work with the whole group then it is best to initiate solo exercises and work up through pairs and small groups. If the task activities are going to be pair-based for the most part, then the pattern is reversed.

Whatever the type and format of warm-up session one begins with, it will rapidly become obvious, particularly when working with new groups, if individuals are uncomfortable with, or resistant to, drama techniques as part of their learning process. The participant may feel anxiety at the change in environment, at being placed in a teaching room with none of the familiar fixtures and fittings and with nothing to sit on but the floor. He may be unhappy at the close proximity of others, at the prospect of working with members of the opposite sex, or even uncomfortable with the potential for physical contact. To ignore this discomfort in a participant and hope that they will somehow get involved at a later stage is to run the obvious risk that they will not get involved at all. If this happens the student may well feel separated from his colleagues and unsettled, even embarrassed, by his own lack of committment. The student who resists cooperating with has fellows may well distract them and reduce their involvement. Trying to deal with the situation by communicating with the quasi-participant, however low-key that effort might be, will only serve to draw attention to their discomfort and add pressure to their anxieties.

Some years ago, as a new and relatively inexperienced E.F.L. teacher working in a large International Education department, I was allowed to introduce open-space drama as a vehicle for language practice to the groups that I was teaching. In the very first workshop session that I led, I encountered cultural resistance to the activities almost immediately. I was working with a group of Malaysian students who were improving their English prior to starting a four year degree course. There were sixteen of them, males and females, with five of the latter wearing the 'Hidjabi', the headcovering worn by some Islamic women. It was rapidly apparent that that the group were uncomfortable about sitting on the polished floor and the five wearing scarves were particularly resistant to the idea of lying down in any way that brought their heads near it. Cleanliness is very important to a Muslim, especially in a religious context, and I had, in ignorance, asked them to relax on a potentially unclean surface. In a mental turmoil concerning ways in which I might proceed I aborted the physical warm-up sequence and moved into a group game activity to give myself some time to think. I started the students on a game called 'Simon Says' and explained the rules (Basically; one must react to the spoken command only when it is prefaced by the phrase Simon says ... < 'Simon says raise your left leg' >. Reacting to an unprefaced command < 'Put it down again' > puts one out of the game.) As the game progressed it occurred to me that the students might perform an action dictated by 'Simon' that they might not complete for me. Sure enough, when Simon said '... sit on the floor' they sat, and when Simon said '... lie down' they lay—and refused to move unless Simon told them that they could.

In subsequent sessions, careful use of activities that absorbed the group and concentrated them on adhering to rigidly structured game patterns, to the exclusion of anxieties about touch or male/female pairings or lying on the floor, it was possible to overcome all these restrictions. Over a number of sessions, one after the other the individuals accepted the concept that it was alright to do things under the working conditions of a drama session that would not be acceptable, or enjoyable, in any other context.

This concept, that 'strange things can happen in this place but I don't mind anymore' runs much deeper than merely sidestepping resistance at the cultural interface. It also affects the roles that participants create for themselves during improvised language tasks in a quite distinct way. Once the student realises that the drama workshop is a very special place, a place in which many of the restrictive factors that are present in the classroom or in the outside world are suspended, then roles become frameworks into which the conciousness can expand. Students of all cultures, once they are involved in the experience of a workshop environment and committed to it, seem to adopt an alternate persona, a metaphorical transparent mask that allows them to come to terms with culturally unfamiliar and otherwise difficult situations naturally and instinctively, yet preserve the integrity and sanctity of the self intact beneath. This alternate persona separates the conciousness into two layers; the one which is activated for the duration of the improvised task/language elements, and the one which is inactive during the drama workshop—the ostensibly REAL one which reasserts itself as soon as the student leaves the open space or the workshop is signalled as over.

By using the term 'mask' I am not saying that any of the roles that are experimented with are only loosely adopted; the false stereotypical characterisations that might be assumed in a classroom roleplay. I am sure that the student asked to assume the role of, shall we say, a Policeman for the purposes of an improvisation, takes on the role as an extension of his own character and personality. In operating from his assumed and less restrictive level of conciousness, his 'alternate persona', he creates his own role rather than acts one from the stereotypes that his memory provides.

The benefits of this level of role experience are clear. In a workshop that is designed to practice language, the more authentic that task can be made then the more spontaneous and realistic is the language that is produced. There is space for concious and unconcious learning to take place and, in an open ended situation, the possibilities for the exchange of language become vastly increased. So do the opportunities for correction techniques to be employed and new language items, vocabulary and so on to be introduced.

Appendix L

Drama in TEFL

A Suggested Lesson Plan Format.

Phase:	Activity Type:	% of session time:
Warm-up.	Slow-build physical exercises, boisterous drama games, yoga exercises. *Leading to:* Physical readiness, loosened limbs. *Plus:* The creation of an appropriate mental attitude.	In early stages, as much as 30 to 60%. Reducing to 15 to 20%.
Introducing and contextualising the proposed type of activity.	Students sitting in space or lying comfortably. *Leading to:* (a). Pupil/student awareness of task-type/stimulus. (b). An internal recognition of the relevance of the activity to the learning scheme.	5 to 15%.
Stimulus. Tasks. Improvisations. Language games.	Students involved in solo or group activities designed to practise: (1). Structure. (2). Vocabulary. (3). Fluency. (4). Appropriacy. (5). Etc, Etc.	50 to 60%.
Discussion.	Related experiences, comparison of language used/needed. Exchange of ideas and language.	10 to 20%.
Cool-down.	Relaxing exercises, tension reducing speech. Easing out the physical and mental stresses. Soothing music. Students in comfortable poses; sitting, lying, etc.	10 to 20%, related to stressful nature of activity/session.

Suggested session length: 60 to 90 minutes.

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'CAN WE HAVE AN AGENDA?' TEACHER DEVELOPMENT IN A HONG KONG SETTING.

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Editors' Note:
This article originally appeared in the newsletter of the Teacher Development group C (TD group') of the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language C 'IATEFL'), in 1987 issue number 7 pp. 3-4.

Teacher development is a 'current issue' in language teaching. The TD group in IATEFL has done much to promote the idea and to stimulate initiatives, not least through the TD newsletter. The needs of teachers for greater self-knowledge and personal growth have been expressed and exemplified, as important issues in their own right and as conditions for professional enrichment. Such recognition suggests a way forward for all teachers.

Or does it? Another recurrent IATEFL theme is the need for greater international exchange of ideas and experiences in the profession and in the Association itself. Despite welcome movement in this direction, however, IATEFL contacts with teachers far from Western Europe remain comparatively few. Why is this still the case?

There are clearly many reasons. One part of the answer, though, has to lie in a lack—either actual or perceived—of relevance, to teachers in non-Western contexts, of many ideas and enthusiasms being shared among teachers in Britain and other Western nations. In English language teaching generally, increasing efforts are being made to encourage teachers throughout the world to express their own concerns and priorities internationally, at conferences and in publications. This should surely be happening more in TD, which raises questions for teachers to contextualise and explore in their own environments.

Teacher development and 'TD'.

Teacher development must be of concern throughout the profession. However, 'TD' has become an 'issue' in a particular, mainly British, cultural context. Discussion and initiatives have naturally reflected the priorities and values of people living and working in that context (or, like myself, having close ties with it). Two questions then are: how far will a deliberate approach to 'TD' help teachers in other settings to further their personal and professional growth? And how far will assumptions made in a 'received' picture of TD need to be modified in other local initiatives?

Meaningful answers to these questions will need to be worked out locally, in particular settings. In the context where I work, in Hong Kong, and I suspect in many other situations, there seem (to me) to be two main difficulties for overt TD initiatives. Both problems relate to values that are prominent in the received view. My central question is: how far are these values essential

605

to teacher development, and how far are they merely contingent upon certain ('Western'?) cultural expectations?

1. Who is responsible for TD?

In what I am calling the 'received view' (with which I remain in sympathy), firm emphasis has been placed on 'bottom up' initiatives, arising from needs that teachers themselves have perceived. According to this view, TD cannot be mandated from above. While discussion may initially be stimulated among interested colleagues through guiding questions, the responsibility for determining what issues to address, and how to proceed, is shared among all participants in a TD group.

However, in a strongly hierarchical social and educational system, 'bottom-up' initiatives are associated with high risk and are seldom taken, even where needs have been identified. To initiate discussion is to raise procedural issues that reflect on normal working expectations. What are the terms of reference? Who will provide an agenda? How can we be sure in advance that time will be well spent? Fair questions, but who will accept a share of responsibility for answering them? Effective initiatives in the institute where I work have addressed practical issues, such as needs for teaching materials, or guidelines for an end-of-course exhibition. Such activity is soon subsumed in the overall concerns of the English Department, and TD is increasingly conflated with the managerial notion of 'staff development', guided from above. I believe such an approach can still provide for growth, by encouraging on-the-job learning. But is it still 'TD'?

2. Does TD require 'whole-person' involvement?

Some writers apply 'humanistic' notions, which have considerable currency in language teaching, to TD also. They emphasise the need for lowering of interpersonal barriers and easing of constraints, to allow people to explore and share private thoughts and emotions and to involve their whole personalities in exchanges with others. These ideas are likely of course to be alien to people who place greater store on acceptable public behaviour than on openness throughout their relations with others. Such attitudes are not culture-specific, but their prevalence among individuals does vary across cultures. Descriptions of humanistic approaches from Western contexts are often elsewhere, rightly or wrongly, as (perhaps) interesting, but not as models for emulation or adaptation.

The means by which 'personal growth' can be achieved, and the criteria individuals will use to assess their own 'growth', differ from person to person and from culture to culture. In some contexts, direct involvement of the private individual in collective exploration of self and others will be inconceivable. (Or does this judgement only reflect 'inhibitions', from which I and others 'ought' to seek release?). In such contexts, cooperation over professional issues can still help individuals develop, for example as materials writers or as classroom researchers. This can foster renewal of professional interest and of personal self-confidence: important aspects of growth. But again, as they say, 'Is it Art?'.

Proper answers to such questions will need to be established in different local contexts. For what it is worth, my guess is that the 'humanistic' trend in TD reflects important values and expectations of a particular culture, but that worthwhile 'development' can still take place in contexts where social behaviour remains more carefully mediated and restrained. I believe that 'involvement' is essential to TD, and that this has implications in any context for personal assumption of responsibility, but not necessarily for sources of initiative, or for relations with (or 'freedom' from) formal structures for decision-making.

Finally and more importantly, I am convinced that discussion of these matters is needed by many people, in many contexts, and will be worth reporting in suitable publications if TD is to be explored in a truly international perspective.

PRIMARY ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LANGUAGE TEACHER EUCATION—A HONG KONG PERSPECTIVE

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In this paper, we shall explore the attitudes of language teachers in Hong Kong primary schools towards teaching methods which emphasize a 'Communicative Approach'. After presenting and discussing findings obtained from questionnaires and interviews; we will attempt to suggest alternative forms of teacher education relevant to the Hong Kong context.

Background

The English syllabus for primary schools currently used in Hong Kong, was prepared by the English Subject Committee (Primary) of the Curriculum Development Committee of the Education Department in 1981, as a revised version of the 1976 syllabus. The reason for revising the syllabus was to keep abreast with more recent approaches to language teaching and learning, which put more emphasis on the purposes of language learning. The principles behind the syllabus actually reflect what is broadly called a communicative approach to language teaching. The syllabus was implemented in 1982. To re-orientate practising language teachers towards a more communicative approach to language teaching, full-time refresher courses,[1] seminars and workshops were offered by the Education Department.

The Study

To examine views of primary language teachers towards communicative language teaching and language education in Hong Kong, the authors conducted a pilot study at the Institute of Language in Education (ILE). The findings referred to in this paper were obtained from questionnaires and interviews with the subjects, who were participants of two full-time refresher courses for primary English teachers held in 1988–89 at the ILE.

Issues

The questions addressed in the questionnaire concerned:

1. the attitudes and reactions of teachers towards the use of communicative activities in the classroom
2. the attitudes and reactions of teachers towards the use of Cantonese (the pupils' mother tongue) in the English language classroom

3. teachers' opinions towards:
   - —various interactive patterns in the classroom
   - —the importance of the four language skills
   - —the language needs of their pupils.

The objectives of the interview were:

1. getting feedback from teachers on teaching methods which they find effective.
2. obtaining their evaluation of the various communicative activities they have tried out.
3. checking and expanding on the information obtained from the questionnaire.
4. soliciting opinions towards in-service education and support which the educational system in Hong Kong can provide.

Methods

A questionnaire was designed and distributed to the subjects, for details of the questionnaire, please refer to the appendix. Having collated the completed questionnaires, 20 subjects were selected randomly for interviews.

Subjects

209 teachers completed the questionnaire in the September (1988) and February (1989) ILE English primary courses. Twenty teachers were selected randomly to be interviewed. The population covers a rather wide age range, with the majority of them falling between the range of 36–45: 93.8% of the population are under 45 years old. As for their years of teaching experience, approximately 90% of them have got more than 5 years' teaching experience and there is an evenly distributed percentage of respondents teaching the six primary classes. As a whole, our subjects are experienced teachers coming from different primary schools in Hong Kong and we believe that the views we solicit from these teachers should be fairly representative of those of Hong Kong primary language teachers.

Results

Summary of findings from questionnaire:

Use of communicative tasks/activities in teaching:
The majority (85.9%) of the respondents said that they frequently used language games in their English lessons.
45.6% of the respondents has used songs and verses in their teaching.
64.4% and 73.9% of the respondents used group work and pair work activities respectively in their classroom.

Use of mother tongue in the English language classroom:
79.9% of the teachers thought that using Cantonese in an English lesson

would not make the lesson 'not communicative'. However, most of them (61.4%) used more than 50% of English in their teaching.

Interactive patterns in the classroom:
The teacher-pupils interactive pattern was undoubtedly most frequently used in the classroom; 92% of the respondents indicated that they sometimes interacted with individual pupils; 83.2% of them said that they sometimes organised activities that allowed pupil-pupil interaction; 53.1% of them also sometimes provided chances for group-group interaction in the classroom.

The importance of the four language skills:
The speaking skill was rated as the most important (65.7%) among the four skills, with listening coming second (51.2%).

Language needs of the pupils:
52% of the teachers considered the ability of pupils to converse in simple English with speakers of English and with a group of people with one or more than one non-Chinese speaking persons as the most important. 56% of them thought that pupils should be able to use in speech or writing all the structural and grammatical items that they have learned up to primary six as important.
43% of these teachers suggested that being able to follow (and later give) simple instructions, especially those appropriate to the classroom and the learning activities was important for primary pupils.

Teachers' opinions towards seminars/workships:
Teachers responded positively towards seminars/workshops related to English language teaching. 96.9% of them thought that it would be helpful if the Education Department could run seminars/workshops for language teachers from time to time.
96.1% of them expressed interest in attending courses organised by the Education Department if they were offered.
Over 60% of them, however, had never attended any of the courses/workshops run by the Education Department. It is worth noting that only 16.8% of these responents had read the whole of the 1981 revised syllabus for Primary School (English); and 16.4% of them had not read it at all.

Opinions obtained from the interview:
Ideas/practices teachers have found useful in the classroom:
- —games, miming, role-play
- —providing pupils chances to read and speak more English
- —encouraging pupils to work in groups/to involve them in project work
- —using simple blackboard drawings/pictures, flash cards etc. to motivate pupils
- —using authentic materials to learn English
- —listening to taped stories, using more task-based listening exercises

610

—memorizing a few sentences/a passage
—copying words/sentences
—pattern drills, more exercises on grammar
—spelling, dictation and short tests

Barriers/Constraints that prevented teachers from trying out some of the ideas and practices that they would have liked to:

—Pupils' low standard
—Pupils' low motivation/lack of confidence/passive/discipline
—Rigid scheme of work/pressure from syllabus/time-table/examinations
—Lack of support in school
—Lack of resources/facilities
—Lack of support from parents
—Lack of support from the Advisory Inspectorate
—Lack of time, heavy workload, too much administrative work
—Large class size
—Mixed ability class

Discussion

Despite the teachers' apparent enthusiasm and support as expressed in the questionnaire towards what they claimed to be communicative activities, they were in fact sceptical and hesitant in bringing innovative changes into their classroom. The reasons could be attributed to the various constraints they encountered in the school setting, which are nothing new or culture-specific. Virtually all INSET studies, for example, Brian Tomlinson in Indonesia (1987), have shown that teachers all over the world are faced with similar problems.

When asked to give their opinion towards a 'Communicative Approach', the teachers expressed the view that such an approach took account of pupils' needs and interests. They considered it an effective way of teaching. However they pointed out that there were features in the 'Communicative Approach' they found difficult to transfer to the classroom. They also admitted that they were more comfortable with their habitual teaching patterns.

In addition, the teachers also appeared to be submissive in face of the school authority and classroom reality. They said that the school authority and the administrative system had asserted a powerful effect on their work and their attitudes towards it. As a result, a lot of educational issues had become matters of conflict and controversy. They also said that it was very easy to become routinized again in their work after in-service courses due to full time teaching workload and lack of support in school. These teachers' views reflect concerns that the ILE course in some aspects has not been planned to be relevant to their needs.

From the questionnaire and the interview, the majority of the teachers stated that they had found the ILE refresher course very useful. They had learned to apply new concepts and skills to their classroom teaching. However, they also indicated that there were a lot of things that could not work in their classroom due to various reasons in the school setting. The difficulties they found in their teaching situation are in fact, shared by many practising language teachers throughout the world. In addition, there was a unanimous opinion about the lack of support for their professional development once they returned to their own school on completion of the in-service course. There was a general appeal to better and on-going support from the school and the training institute respectively. Teachers can be better supported if teacher educators can constantly revise the courses offered to meet the needs of the teachers. Teachers can better develop themselves if enough support and guidelines are provided to enable them to experiment ideas which they find useful and relevant to their situation. These can be possible only if changes can be introduced to the organization and administration of both the training institute and the school.

Recommendations

We share the same view with Carolyn Walker (1987) that one of the aims of the Teacher Development (TD) group should be to help teachers counteract the onset of 'rust' or 'burn out', that is, believing that there are many things teachers can do to help themselves. Nevertheless, taking into account the Hong Kong education system in which the teacher may not be in a position to launch innovative changes in their teaching situation, it would seem sensible to combine some of the 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' approaches (Clark 1987) to education. In order to enable and support teachers to bring about improvement in their teaching situation, we have the following suggestions:

1. to engage teachers in in-service courses which require greater responsibility for applying concepts into classroom practice.
2. to encourage teachers to be involved in self-initiated classroom-based projects after the completion of their course.[2]
3. to involve the school authority, such as panel chairpersons/school heads in the design of schemes of work that teachers are undertaking in school.
4. to liaise with the Advisory Inspectorate and other professional teachers bodies to organize formal or informal meetings where teachers can exchange professional ideas/information/experience.
5. to encourage the holding of workshops/seminars where teachers can meet to discuss and hopefully solve their teaching problems, to build their own approach to teaching in their schools, to improve their ability in the design of teaching materials, tests and forms of assessment, etc. (for details, please refer to the article on 'Swapshop' in the section of Summaries and Reports in this issue)

612

6. to recognise the need for designing in-service programmes that are intensive and as far as possible, on-going.

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***A summary of this study was published in the IATEFL Newsletter (Warwick Conference Issue) Issue Number 104, August 1989, pp. 52–53.**

NOTES

[1] Since September 1982, two four-month full-time refresher courses have been held each year for in-service teachers of both Chinese and English by the Institute of Language in Education (ILE). ILE was established in 1982 as part of a 'Language Package'—a project launched by the Hong Kong Government to improve the standards of Chinese and English in Hong Kong Schools.

[2] The participants of the ILE English secondary course, on return to school, have to commit themselves to carrying out a small-scale action research project in an area of their choice. Their school is informed of the project and is expected to provide support to facilitate their work. The role of the ILE tutors is a supportive rather than a supervisory one.

613

APPENDIX

Questionnaire Survey

The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain your opinions on the 'Communicative Approach' to the teaching of English.
Your co-operation is very much appreciated.
Your answers will be kept in confidence.

Please answer the following questions by putting a tick (✓) in the appropriate boxes

PART I

1. In which age group are you?

Below 25 ☐ 25–35 ☐ 36–45 ☐ Over 45 ☐

2. How long have you been teaching English at primary level?

less than 5 years ☐ 5–15 years ☐
16–25 years ☐ Over 25 years ☐

3. Which levels are you teaching now?

P.1	P.2	P.3	P.4	P.5	P.6

PART II

4. Have you tried any of the following activities/tasks in your teaching of English?

	In Every lesson	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
group work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
pair work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
language games	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
songs & verses	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please specify ______________________________

5. How often do you use drills in your teaching of English?

In Every lesson	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. How often do you use the following interactive patterns in an English lesson of yours?

	In Every lesson	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
teacher-pupils	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
teacher-pupil	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
pupil-pupil (in pairs)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
group-group (in groups)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. How often do you teach your pupils grammar?

	In Every Lesson	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
a. in a speaking lesson	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. in a listening lesson	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. in a reading lesson	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. in a writing lesson	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

e. in other kinds of lesson (Please specify)

____

8. In your opinion, how important are the following language skills in communicative classroom?

	Very Important	Important	Fairly Important	Not so Important	Not Important at all
Speaking	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Listening	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Reading	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Writing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. How important is the teaching of grammar in a communicative classroom?

Very Important	Important	Fairly Important	Not so Important	Not Important at all
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. How important are the following language skills to primary school pupils in Hong Kong?

	Very Important	Important	Fairly Important	Not so Important	Not Important at all
Speaking	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Listening	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Reading	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Writing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. How often do you use Cantonese in an English lesson?

	In Every Lesson	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
a. when giving instructions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. when giving explanations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. when trying to discipline the class	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please specify ________________________________

12. In your opinion, does using Cantonese in an English lesson make the lesson not 'communicative'?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Comment if necessary: ________________________________

13. How much English, in percentage, do you normally use in an English lesson?

0–25% ☐ 26–50% ☐
51–75% ☐ Over 75% ☐

14. Have you read the 1981 revised syllabuses for Primary Schools (English)?

Yes, I have read

(a) the whole syllabus ☐

(b) Part I the Introduction ☐

(c) Part II the General objectives ☐

(d) Part III the English Programme ☐

(e) Part VI General Principles ☐

(f) Part V Comments and Suggestion on Classroom Procedures and Techniques ☐

(g) Part VI Inventory of Communicative Functions and Uses of English for each stage ☐

(h) Part VII Inventory of Language Items ☐

No, I have not read the syllabuses ☐

PART III

15. In your opinion, what is a 'Communicative Approach' to language teaching?

16. Please rank in order of importance what you think the needs of pupils' in learning English in Hong Kong primary schools, such that 1 = the most important, 2 = the next important and so on to 6. Put the numbers 1–6 in the boxes. Use each number only once.

(a) to be able to read books for entertainment and pleasure ☐

(b) to be able to recognize common signs in English used in Hong Kong ☐

(c) to be able to converse in simple English with speakers of English and with a group of people with one or more than one non-Chinese speaking persons ☐

(d) to be able to give a polite invitation in English ☐

(e) to be able to (and later give) simple instructions, especially those appropriate to the classroom and the learning activities ☐

(f) to be able to use in speech or writing all the structural and grammatical items the teacher has taught up to Primary six. ☐

(g) Others
Please specify ______________________________

____

____

PART IV

17. Do you think it is helpful the Education Department runs seminars/workshops for primary teachers of English from time to time?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Comment if necessary: ______________________________

____

18. Will you attend courses run by Education Department for primary teachers of English?
- definitely ☐
- probably ☐
- unlikely ☐

Comment if necessary: ______________________________

____

19. Have you attended any of the following courses run by the Education Department?
   - (a) Seminars/workshops organized by the ELTC ☐
   - (b) Courses, seminars/workshops organised by the British Council ☐
   - (c) Activity Approach Classes run by the Education Department

20. Do you find what you have learned from the Activity Approach Course applicable to your teaching situations?

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• • • END • • •

618

談普通話科的四聲教學①

何國祥

香港教育署語文教育學院

一、必須重視聲調教學

1. 聲調的重要

學習普通話，聲調很重要。

「我mai了他的ma。」

不同的聲調代表不同的漢字，用這些字可以寫成下列句型：

「　埋　　媽
我買了他的麻。
　賣　　馬」

交叉結果，會產生九個意思不同的句子。②同樣地，

「我yao了他的mao。」

可以寫成下列句型：

「　　　　貓
　咬
我　了他的毛。
　要
　　　　帽」

交叉結果，也會產生六個意思不同的句子。

Yuyan一定是yǔyán（語言）嗎？也可以讀成yùyán（寓言）呢。Jinnian不一定是jīnnián（今年），也可以是jìnnián（近年）。③可以這麼說，在聲母、韻母相同的音節中，決定詞義的主要因素是聲調。

2. 聲調教學的困難

跟聲、韻母比較，聲調教學有它的特殊困難，聲、韻母教學可以從發音部位、舌位、唇形以及開口度去體會——驗證聲、韻母發音的區別，哪怕最感困難的發音也能如此。如果利用漢語拼音學習普通話，對英文字母發音多半有認識的香港人學起聲、韻母來更覺事半功倍。但是，決定聲調高低升降的是音高，而音高又受到聲帶鬆緊的制約。然而，這個制約著音高的聲帶（兩片帶有彈性的肌肉）卻長在喉頭裡，看不見也摸不著，誰也無法從它的鬆緊狀態中去體會音的高低升降等曲折變化。這就是聲調教學中的特殊困難處。難怪非聲調語言的人學習漢語感到最頭痛的就是聲調

呢。漢語各方言都是有聲調的，方言區的人都有聲調的感性認識，有調值的觀念，按理說學習普通話四聲困難不大才對。然而，事實證明，普通話教學中，教好聲調並不是一件容易的事④。我在語文教育學院教在職中文老師普通話，第一節便講聲調，可是到了課程的最後一節⑤，仍有老師分不清第一聲（陰平）和第四聲（去聲）的。

3. 香港在職教師學習四聲的困難

1985年，我根據院內兩期普通話延伸課程⑥結業考試共101個學員在口試錄音中的表現，找出他們在朗讀和說話方面的錯誤發音，再把這些誤讀按聲母、韻母、聲調三個角度分析⑦。兩期共發現聲調方面被誤讀的不同漢字有216個。誤讀情況最嚴重的是4→1（第四聲字讀成第一聲字），有49個字，佔全部誤讀字數的22%；其次是1→4，有32字，佔14%；第三是2→4，有28字，佔13%；第四是4→2，有26字，佔12%。一、四聲不分佔了36%；二、四聲相混又佔25%，二者共佔了全部聲調誤讀字數的61%。

粵語第一聲（陰平）有兩個變體：高平調55˥和高降調53˥˧，二者並無辨義作用，因此干擾廣東人學習普通話的第一聲（高平調）和第四聲（高降調），這是一般普通話教學工作者都知道的發音方面的困難。至於把第二聲字唸作第四聲和把第四聲字讀作第二聲的錯誤現象就似乎很少人提過，這可能是記漢字讀音（正音）方面的問題，記不牢漢字的普通話讀音，也可能是受漢字粵讀入聲影響，類推錯誤（上面2→4的28字中有17字是入聲字，佔61%；4→2的26字中有16字是入聲字，佔62%）。

二、常見的聲調教學法

1. 數調法

我記得以前學習普通話（以前叫國語或國音），老師先教聲母、韻母，繼而聲、韻拼合成音節，然後才講四聲。當時老師不詳細分析四聲的特點，只說國語有四個聲調——陰平、陽平、上聲、去聲，唸如bā、bá、bǎ、bà⑧，如要找bǎ的讀法，要先從陰平數起bā、bá、bǎ，然後唸出上聲的ba。又如「上課」的「課」kè是去聲，要先從ke的陰平聲數起，kē、ké、kě、kè，而後找到kè。

學生採用這個「數調法」找四聲是有條件的，就是先要熟習四聲的順序唸法，所以教材往往有很多配應練習如mā、má、mǎ、mà；dā、dá、dǎ、dà；yī、yí、yǐ、yì等。這個方法的好處是學生不需要懂得甚麼理論、明白甚麼特點，學生掌握了四聲順序唸法的模式，很容易便可以找

出所要的聲調唸法。缺點是太慢；但有些人對聲音高低感覺是比較遲緩的，這個數調法目前仍然值得向他們推薦（另參閱下文二.2節，我最初學習辨別粵語聲調也是用這個方法的）⑨。

2. 分析法

現在香港的普通話語音教學流行仿效教外國人漢語（國內叫對外漢語）的方法，先教聲調，使學生首先認識聲調的特點，⑩掌握每一個聲調的獨特調形（- ˊ ˇ ˋ），發音時腦子裡同時出現調形，學生一面發音，一面「想音」。對高年級或成年學生，有些教師或教材更採用「五度標記法」⑪來描寫聲調。四個聲調符號恰好描寫了四聲的調形，很形象，有提示作用。學習四個聲調的實際讀法，可以與調形結合起來練習，這樣順著調形唸，可以達到既掌握四聲的讀法，又熟悉四聲的記錄方法（調號），教法直觀。

四聲名稱方面也有改用第一聲、第二聲、第三聲、第四聲代替陰平、陽平、上聲、去聲的趨勢，減少學生要學習的術語。

採用這個直觀的分析法還有一個好處是方便定調。學生可以在拼音時發聲母，然後拼上已帶聲調的韻母，拼合後即成聲、韻、調齊全的音節，如b +ǎ→bǎ。這就是「韻母定調法」。經過練習，學生辨調能力提高時，更可以訓練學生用「一口定調法」拼讀音節。例如kètáng（課堂），不經過數調，見到這兩個音節上標的第四聲和第二聲符號，就直接讀出kètáng來。這方法如果熟練，當然比數調法快；不過，對那些辨調能力弱的學生，數調法仍不失為一個雖然慢（或者笨）但仍能達到目的的方法。

3. 其他的輔助方法

手勢法：

在教學時，教師可以用手（或教棒）比劃調形⑫，要求學生邊跟教師唸，邊打手勢。配合上面二.2節提到的「想音」，學生可以做到「口到、手到、心到」，學習當能事半功倍。

誇張法：

教師在範讀聲調時，可以適當地誇張一些，把聲調唸得響，唸得慢，使學生能夠明確地感覺到四聲的高、低、升、降的變化。例如第一聲學生唸得不夠高不夠平，教師就盡量把第一聲拖長來唸，唸得明顯地又高又平。又如第二聲升得不明顯，就強調由「中」盡量往「高」升。這樣練習可能一時會矯枉過正，但是這樣可以突出聲調特點，可以改變方音聲調習慣，使聲帶能鬆能緊，聲調可低可高，運用自如，就能發準普通話的四聲了。

比較法：

比較法是通過不同聲調的比較，使學生對普通話四聲特點有深刻的印象。常見的是第一聲高平調和第四聲高降調比較，第二聲高升調和第三聲降升調的比較。

實際教學時，教師往往運用上述多種方法。如教師一方面採用誇張法唸聲調，一方面借助手勢描劃調形，適當時候又可進行比較，如比較第一聲和第四聲。

三、用歸納法教成人學習四聲

1. 四聲教法新嘗試

上面描述的常見聲調教學法（如數調法、分析法）都是灌注式的教學法，下面我要介紹一個啟發式的四聲教學法，這是近年我在語文教育學院採用的聲調教學法。教師對象是在職的中、小學中國語文科教師，他們的平均年齡大概是40歲，入學時對普通話語音方面的認識一般不高。

2. 教學過程

學期剛開始，上第一節普通話課時，我進入教室，一聲不吭地開亮高映幻燈機，放映下面的高映膠片：

「Pǔtōnghuà Guóyǔ Hé Guó xiáng míngtiān
yǔwén jiàoyù Běijīng tāmen wǒmen
lǎoshī jīntiān」

（聲、韻、調分別用綠、藍、紅三色書寫）

學員看了，不久便竊竊私語，自行拼讀起來：

學員：「普通——話，國——語」

導師：「對了，普通話，現在是普通話課。」

學員：「明天、北京、他們、我們、老師、今天……」

導師：「都對了！（指著Hé Guó xiáng）這是何國祥，我的名字。你們現在在哪兒上課？語文教育學院。對了，剩下的這四個符號代表語文教育。你們已經懂得普通話了，為什麼還要學呢？（學員笑）」

導師隨即告訴學員這就是記錄普通話語音的一種符號——漢語拼音（順帶指出另一種常用的注音工具叫做注音符號），並詢問全班綠、藍、紅三色符號中，哪一種最難理解。學員多半認為是紅色（即聲調符號）、因為綠色（聲）+藍色（韻）近似英語拼音，學員對英語一般有基礎認識，可藉以大概猜到接近的普通話音值。

導師：「好！既然你們覺得這些紅色符號令人莫明其妙，我們現在就來研究一下這些符號。紅色的符號有『ˉ』（導師板書），漢字有通、師、今……（學員唸，導師板書），還有『ˊ』……」

經過師生一番歸納工作，黑板出現下列四行字：

第一行： ˉ：通、師、今、天、京、他
第二行： ˊ：國、何、祥、文、明
第三行： ˇ：普、語、北、老、我
第四行： ˋ：話、教、育

導師：「看！你們覺得困惑的符號只有四個，它們究竟代表甚麼意義呢？請跟我一行一行的唸，然後告訴我各行的特點。」

導師用誇張法高聲順序讀出四行漢字的普通話讀音。每讀完一行，稍停一下，讓學員思考，或告訴導師他們的發現。經過反覆數次的跟讀或聆聽（如有需要，導師唸，學員留心聽）、討論，會得到下列結論：

第一行： ˉ：字音高、平、長
第二行： ˊ：字音往上升高
第三行： ˇ：字音低沉、長、有變化
第四行： ˋ：較急、較重、很短促

導師然後總結，說明這四種符號表示字音的高低升降，我們叫它們做聲調，可以分第一聲（陰平）、第二聲（陽平）、第三聲（上聲）、第四聲（去聲）。紅色符號是記錄聲調的符號。

學員自己發現四聲和它們的特點，學習興趣會很濃厚。導師隨即要進行鞏固活動，與學員討論調號形狀與聲調高低升降的關係。再操練時輔以手勢，著學員一面唸，一面順著調形揮動，一面體會聲音高低升降的變化。適當時候，導師可隨意選讀其中（或例詞以外的）字音，要學員告知是第幾聲。這時，多半學員都能辨別四聲。

在這個第一教節中，導師隨後要做的工作有：

1. 放映下面的高映膠片，進行重複練習並帶出單韻母a，o，e，i，u，ü的讀法：

	a	o	e	i	u	ü
第一聲 ˉ高	ā 啊	ō 喔	ē	ī 衣	ū 屋	ǖ 迂
第二聲 ˊ升	á 嗄	ó 哦	é 額	í 移	ú 吳	ǘ 魚
第三聲 ˇ低	ǎ	ǒ	ě	ǐ 椅	ǔ 五	ǚ 語
第四聲 ˋ降	à 啊	ò 哦	è 餓	ì 意	ù 物	ǜ 遇

2. 舉例說明聲調有區別詞義的重要性（示例見上文第一節）

第二教節重點在發音指導，利用語言實驗室，或小組課指導學員發準普通話的四個聲調。

關於第三聲（上聲）的曲折唸法，香港人覺得最難。教學時不必過於強調這個曲折變化。事實上，半三聲（半上聲）最常見，具曲折變化的全三聲（全上聲）只在單用或句子末尾時才出現；而半三聲則跟廣州話陽平調調值（21 ˩）相近，學生模仿起來應該一點兒困難都沒有。

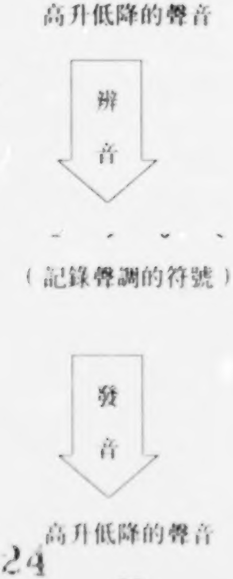
3. 由辨音入手

此法特點在訓練學員聽音，由辨音入手。聽音的重要性並不在發音之下，因為學員沒有意識到所學的音和自己的音在發音上的差別，就不能或難以準確地發音[13]。

我們教學普通話的四個聲調也是一樣，先要訓練學員的耳朵。他們聽到高升低降的聲音，要先能辨出 ˉ ˊ ˇ ˋ 四聲，其後才通過模仿學習發音。練習時再看到這些聲調符號，要能再把高升低降的聲音準確地發出來。這樣符號才具有記音的功能，才可幫助學員提高他們的普通話語音能力（圖一）。

圖一

四聲發音的學習過程



4. 啟發式教學

此法的另一特點是採用啟發方式教學。學員自己建立對聲調高低升降的語感，以後注音或視讀時是應用他們自己發現的東西，印象深刻。這是與一般灌注式教學的最大分別。

四、 記憶常用字的聲調

1. 發音與正音

記憶漢字的普通話讀音，國內叫正音。會唸普通話的四個聲調，不等於知道每個字的聲調。發音（如唸準四聲調值）和正音（如記憶字調）並不是一回事，不能混為一談。發音是一種口耳技術的訓練。要學會普通話語音的聲、韻、調，有些人很快，有些人很慢，快的可以是幾個鐘頭，或者三兩天，多至四五天就可以做得到。正音屬於一種記憶的訓練。要知道常用的兩三千字或四五千字中某字到底在普通話裡讀甚麼聲、甚麼韻、甚麼調，這要一批字一批字甚至一個字一個字地做比較的記憶，那是幾個月或者一兩年常常留意的結果。此外，有些字讀音不免隨記隨忘，所以，還要常翻字典。

漢語音節要三要素——聲、韻、調中，聲調往往為人所忽略，以為聲、韻對，聲調可以隨便一些，便胡亂類推。例如把「我們要學習國語 wǒmen yào xuéxí Guóyǔ」唸成wǒmen yào xuèxì Guòyǔ，對方或許聽得懂；但作為普通話科教師，這是不值得鼓勵的。而且，小孩子模仿力強，如果教師發音示範不好，學生學得不準，將來再糾正就更難了。

2. 利用廣州話、普通話聲調對應規律

記憶常用字的聲調，除了下苦功強記以外，有時候還可以利用廣州話、普通話聲調的對應規律。一般說來，廣州話屬平、上、去調類的字在普通話也分別唸平、上、去聲。對應關係見表一。

表一　廣州話普通話平上去聲的對應關係

廣州話			普通話		例字
調類	調值		調類	調值	
陰平	55 ˥ 或 53 ˥˧	→	陰平 （第一聲）	55 ˥	衣、巴、綱
陽平	21 ˨˩	→	陽平 （第二聲）	35 ˧˥	移、其、凡、爺
陰上	35 ˧˥	→	上聲 （第三聲）	214 ˨˩˦	椅、把
陽上	12 ˩˨	→	上聲 （第三聲）	214 ˨˩˦	以、理
陰去	33 ˧	→	去聲 （第四聲）	51 ˥˩	意、霸
陽去	22 ˨	→	去聲 （第四聲）	51 ˥˩	易、利

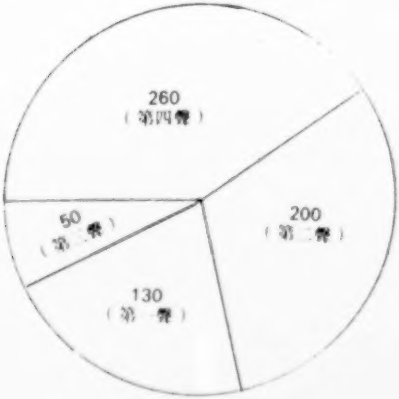
事實上，香港一般人學習普通話都會不自覺地進行類推。我們（或者學生）不需要知道哪些字廣州話屬於哪個調類，當我們學了一點兒普通話以後，在我們的語感裡，把廣州話的「巴」唸成bā、「把」唸成bǎ、「霸」唸成bà，覺得很自然；也會把「其」類推成qí、「凡」類推成fán、「爺」類推成yé。可是，要我們把「期」（陽平）唸成qī（陰平）、「帆」（陽平）唸成fān（陰平）、「耶、椰」（陽平）唸成yē（陰平）就會有點兒別扭的感覺。同樣地，「大綱（陰平）」唸成dàgāng（陰平）很自然，但「鋼（陰去）筆」唸作gāng（陰平）bǐ就不舒服，總覺得應該唸gàng（去聲）bǐ。這些字在廣州話和普通話分屬不同的調類，調值（高低升降的唸法）也有分別，這是需要我們在教和學時特別留意，表二是其中的一些例子⑬。

表二　廣州話普通話平上去聲的不規則對應

廣州話	普通話	例字
陰平	→ 陽平	魔、摩、娃、孚、於、芒、粘、蚊、檬
	→ 上聲	謊、擠、垮、錶
	→ 去聲	倡
陽平	→ 陰平	松、烘、拴、耶、椰、期、帆
	→ 上聲	場
	→ 去聲	忘
陰上	→ 陰平	稍、估、顆、抓、搜、菌、摸
	→ 去聲	盾、紀、映、境
陽上	→ 去聲	市、社、柱、距、舅、緒、婦、憤、抱
陰去	→ 陰平	鋼、究
	→ 上聲	檔、吐（痰）、傘、（高）漲
陽去	→ 陽平	鼻
	→ 上聲	捕、腐、導、緩、儉

廣州話的入聲字，分陰入、中入、陽入三類，每一類入聲字都會唸成普通話的四種聲調，沒有甚麼實用的對應規律可尋⑮。常用入聲字大約650個，歸入普通話第四聲（去聲）的約260個，歸入第二聲（陽平）的約200個，其餘有約130個歸入第一聲（陰平），約50個歸入第三聲（上聲）（圖二）⑯，即廣州話入聲字唸成普通話第四聲和第二聲的最多，我想這也是為什麼我們的老師常混淆二、四聲字的其中一個原因（請參閱前文一.3節）。所以，廣州話入聲字是我們學習普通話需要重點記憶聲調的字。

圖二　廣州話入聲字歸入普通話四聲的情況



附註：

① 1989年1月18日葛量洪教育學院中文系主辦普通話教學講座講稿

② 1. 我埋了他的媽　　2. 我買了他的媽
3. 我賣了他的媽　　4. 我埋了他的麻
5. 我買了他的麻　　6. 我賣了他的麻
7. 我埋了他的馬　　8. 我買了他的馬
9. 我賣了他的馬

例句取自鍾露昇《國語語音學》（台灣語文出版社）

③ 其他的例子有：

qizi：qizi（妻子），qízi（旗子）
shujia：shūjià（書架），shǔjià（暑假）
qishi：qíshí（其實），qǐshì（啟示）
laoshi：lǎoshī（老師），lǎoshi（老實）
jiaoshi：jiàoshī（教師），jiàoshì（教室）
dadao：dǎdǎo（打倒），dádào（達到）
youyong：yóuyǒng（游泳），yǒuyòng（有用）
zhishi：zhīshi（知識），shǐshì（只是）
zhidao：zhīdao（知道），zhǐdǎo（指導）
zhide：zhǐde（只得），zhíde（值得）
zhuyi：zhùyì（注意），zhǔyì（主義），zhǔyi（主意）
tongzhi：tōngzhī（通知），tǒngzhì（統治），tóngzhì（同志）

④ 陳恩泉《漢語拼音教學法》，湖北教育出版社，1983，頁127-129。

⑤ 這是普通話基礎課程，上課時數51小時。

⑥　香港教育署自1980年開始舉辦普通話教學班（現由成人教育組主辦）給一般科目在職教師修讀。教學班分兩部分：第一部分是語音訓練，第二部分是普通話教學法。學員修畢第一部分須參加結業考試，成績滿意者方可繼續修讀第二部分，另一方面，語文教育學院自1982年開始有中國語文教師復修課程，課程中有必修的普通話。為使參加復修課程的學員有機會受訓成為普通話科教師，學院在1984年開辦普通話延伸課程，目標在提高復修課程畢業學員的聽、說和拼音能力，以應付在學校進行普通話科教學的需要。修畢延伸課程，考試成績滿意的學員可與成人教育組語音訓練班畢業的學員一同參加本院舉辦的普通話教學法課程。

⑦　何國祥《從語文教育學院普通話延伸課程結業考試中看香港小學中國語文教師學習普通話的困難》，《語文教師培訓與語文教學》，語文教育學院第一屆（1985）國際研討會論文集，語文教育學院中文系編，頁122。另請參閱何國祥《普通話口語能力測驗的新嘗試——介紹香港教育署在職教師普通話語音訓練班結業考試的口試方式》，《語文教師延續教育的重新探究》，語文教育學院第二屆（1986）國際研討會論文集，語文教育學院中文系編，頁156。

⑧　三十年前學「國音」，多半用注音符號，本文為方便解說，改用漢語拼音。

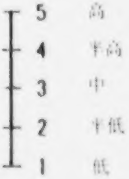
⑨　粵語有八調唸法：
聲調：陰平　陰上　陰去　陰入：　陽平　陽上　陽去　陽入
例字：邊　　扁　　變　　必　：　　　　　　　辨　　別
也有九調唸法：
聲調：陰平　陰上　陰去：　陽平　陽上　陽去：陰入　中入　陽入
例字：邊　　扁　　變　：　　　　　　　辨　：必　　鱉　　別

⑩

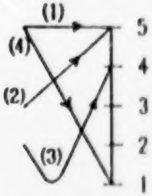
四聲	調號	語音特點
陰平（第一聲）	ˉ	起音高高一路平
陽平（第二聲）	ˊ	由中至高往上升
上聲（第三聲）	ˇ	先降然後再揚起
去聲（第四聲）	ˋ	高處降到最低層

（見《中學普通話科暫定課程綱要》，香港課程發展委員會，1988，頁40）

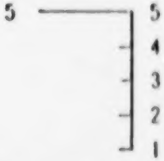
⑪　如果我們用一條直綫表示一個人說話的音高變動範圍，把這條直綫分為四等分，從下向上數，綫上有五個點，就可以分別代表五個音高。



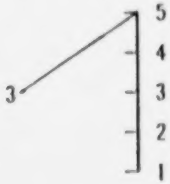
普通話的四個基本聲調，可以用下圖的(1)，(2)，(3)，(4)表示：



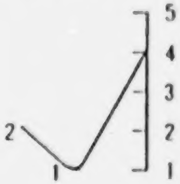
第一聲是高平調（55）。如shēng（聲） fēng（風）



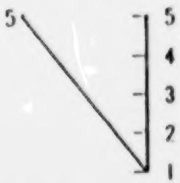
第二聲是高聲調（35）。如míng（明） wén（文）



第三聲是降升調（214）：調子由半低降至低，再升至半高。如bǎ（把） nǚ（女）



第四聲全是降調（51）：調子由高急促降低。如tù（兔） pò（破）



上面四圖描寫出普通話四個聲調的高低升降。

⑫

聲調	手勢		舉例（可採教材字，亦可採下列四字詞）				
	甲	乙					
陰平 （第一聲）	舉起右手食指	用右手平揮，作「－」形	陰	三	高	英	山
陽平 （第二聲）	舉起右手食指、中指	用右手上揚，作「ˊ」形	陽	國	朋	雄	明
上聲 （第三聲）	舉起右手食指、中指、無名指	用右手繞個彎，作「ˇ」形	上	演	滿	好	水
去聲 （第四聲）	舉起右手食指、中指、無名指及尾指	用右手向下降，作「ˋ」形	去	義	座	漢	秀

（見《中學普通話科暫定課程綱要》，香港課程發展委員會，1988，頁40）

⑬ 關於聽音的重要性，可參閱張拱貴《怎樣教學北京語音》，文章收錄在樂嗣炳等著的《怎樣教學普通話》，文字改革出版社出版，1956年，頁28–29。

⑭ 本表取自許耀賜、歐陽汝穎、王晉光編《普通話教學法》普通話教育出版社出版，1986年，頁72。部份例字由本文作者增補。

⑮ 李新魁在《香港「粵語—普通話」雙語環境中語言因素的辨析（語音部分）》文章中提過粵語入聲與普通話聲調的對應情況：

「粵語中有三個入聲調。它們與普通話聲調的對應情況，基本上是：粵語入聲字凡在普通話中的聲母讀為m、n、l、ɼ和ø聲母的（次濁音字），絕大多數在普通話中讀為去聲，如：

m 聲母：麥蜜覓滅蔑莫漠墨默木目牧穆
n 聲母：逆聶齧孽虐諾捺
l 聲母：蠟立力歷列烈六陸綠律洛粒獵
ɼ 聲母：日熱肉褥入若弱
ø 聲母：樂液業葉亦逸玉域躍閱益邑握物勿襪愕惡曰

有一些字的歸派有例外，如挖鴨壓時甲約拙捏抹等字讀入陰平，沒字讀入陽平，辱捋抹惡讀入上聲。

其他的聲母字規律性不大明顯。」

《雙語或多語環境中的語文教育》，語文教育學院第三屆（1987）國際研討會論文集，語文教育學院中文系編，頁103–104。

⑯ 徐世榮《普通話語音知識》，文字改革出版社，1980年，頁128。

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《語文教師延續教育的重新探究》，語文教育學院第二屆國際研討會論文集，語文教育學院中文系編，1987年。

《雙語或多語環境中的語文教育》，語文教育學院第三屆國際研討會論文集，語文教育學院中文系編，1988年。

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《普通話教學參考資料2》，香港中國語文學會普通話部輯，1983年。

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談小學生中文遣詞能力的研究

姜貝玲

柏立基教育學院

一、研究緣起

學生語文程度低落，是世界性的問題，並不是香港獨有的現象。以中文來說，香港學生語文程度普遍日趨低落，是大家共知的事實；在國內、台灣、新加坡等地方，都有類似情況。

學生語文程度低落的原因究竟是什麼？我們應該怎樣提高他們的程度？許多語文學者和語文教育工作者都曾發表了許多意見。不過細察他們的意見，大多只討論「怎樣教」的問題；對「怎樣學」的問題，一般說得不多。而且，他們的研究，主要憑認識、經驗，用「描述」方式去進行，並沒有採用語言學習心理分析的科學研究方法。

採用「心理語言學」角度進行研究的學者或語文教育工作者也不是沒有，如國內朱作仁、鍾為永等的《語文教學心理學》、桂詩春的《心理語言學》等，都是較能符合科學研究要求的著述，但前者的分析略欠系統、深入，理論來源也沒有交代；後者較具科學性，優點也不少，可惜着眼點是外文而不是中文。台灣方面，劉英茂、黃宣範等有不少關於語文學習心理的著述，可是專門針對學生語文應用能力的研究，如遣詞造句的能力，似乎仍未普遍。

新加坡方面，由於中文的社會地位不及英文的重要，所以在中文學習方面，作深入而有系統探討的人並不很多，從「心理語言學」角度來研究的人就更少了。教師日常教學，主要參考教育部課程發展組頒布的《課程綱要》。這部《課程綱要》對教師應該「教什麼」，一般來說已有清楚、具體的提示，至於「怎樣教」或「怎樣協助學生克服學習的困難」，教師就得不到明確的指引了。

在香港，語文教師的教學都以教育署課程發展委員會的《課程綱要》為指南。《課程綱要》的提示，多屬原則性意見；其中雖有教學內容或方法的舉例，也只是作為教學的參考，並不是強制的規定。原則性提示，可讓教師在教學上有較大的自由活動餘地；但正因為這樣，有些提示就不免流於抽象、空泛。因此，本港有些語文學者或語文教育工作者，逐漸覺得語文教學和語文學習的研究，必須作系統而科學的分析；他們的取向和成果或有不同，但總的來說，是值得肯定的。不過，他們的研究主要以中學生為對象，而且也不是以學生的遣詞能力作為研究重點。

小學語文教學，是筆者研究興趣的所在；小學生的遣詞能力，則是這次研究的重點。筆者準備從「遣詞」的角度，通過不同的測試形式，考查小學生在不同情況下的書面語表達能力，然後再去分析小學生遣詞能力表現的背後因素。

二、研究目的

這次研究的目的，主要有三點：

1. 了解小學生的遣詞能力及其影響因素；
2. 尋求有效的遣詞能力訓練方法；
3. 引起大家注意小學生語文表達能力訓練的問題。

筆者希望，這次研究的結果，對香港語文教學基礎課程和教學方法的設計，或許會有參考、啟發的作用。

三、研究方法

這次研究的方法，主要是採用實驗方式，去探討香港小學生的中文遣詞能力與語文能力的關係。實驗之前，先以中文學科測驗成績作標準，把學生畫分為「高語文能力組」和「低語文能力組」，然後為他們安排一項遣詞能力測驗。測驗採用「填空」形式，以「句子」和「語段」兩種文義脈絡，測試學生在「選詞」和「填詞」的不同測驗方式中，「多義詞」和「褒貶義詞」的運用能力是否互有差異，會不會受方言所干擾。用以考查學生遣詞能力的八十個多義詞和褒貶義詞，主要摘自一套香港小學中國語文課本。而遣詞能力測驗的評分辦法有兩種，分別是「原詞評分法」：只接受與原來供詞相同的答案；及「脈絡意義評分法」：接受所有符合提示要求及能照顧上下文脈絡意義的答案。評分結果，經過統計分析，用以檢定測試形式與學生遣詞能力的關係；然後利用學生的中文學科測驗成績，預測他們的遣詞能力測驗成績，並進而探究學生遣詞能力與語文能力在哪些方面關係最密切。

這項研究的對象，是九龍兩家津貼小學的六年級男女學生，共三〇四人，中文程度屬中等。首先以他們在中文學科測驗的表現分組：成績在平均分以上的，畫入「高語文能力組」；成績低於平均分的，畫入「低語文能力組」。然後又隨機把他們各分成四組，每組三十八人。八組學生各參加其中一種遣詞能力測驗，測驗中選用的「詞匯」，在實驗前由十二位富有經驗的小學中文教師協助評定。

研究的工具，包括「填詞」測驗卷共四種，即按提示在語段中填詞、按提示選詞在語段中填空、按提示在句子中填詞及按提示選詞在句子中填

空等。藉着「句子」及「語段」的不同文義脈絡，以考查學生對脈絡差異的反應；透過「填詞」及「選詞」的不同填空形式，以檢定學生對詞匯的認知、辨識及應用能力。

正式測試前，曾在另一家學生中文程度屬中等的津貼小學進行一次預試測驗 (pilot study)，然後根據測驗結果修訂測驗的試題和所選詞匯，並初步擬定「填詞」測驗中「脈絡意義評分法」的參考答案。

在正式測驗時，八組高、低語文能力學生同時參加測驗。測驗完成後，隨即進行評分工作。首先計算每組學生在不同測驗卷中所得的平均分、標準差和總平均分，以測量這項遣詞能力測驗的「信度」。然後用「二元方差分析」(2-way analysis of variance) 統計法加以檢定。根據所得的F檢定值，即可確定高、低語文能力學生在不同測試形式中的成績，及不同語文能力的遣詞表現是否有顯著差異。顯著差異以 .05 為標準。如F檢定值確定有顯著差異，就再用「t檢定」(t-test) 進行分析，以確定造成差異的組別。又，如果統計結果顯示測試形式與語文能力之間產生交互影響，就以t檢定法分析各項成績，以確定差異的來源。

上述分析工作完成後，再計算高、低語文能力學生在遣詞能力測驗及中文學科測驗中成績的相關係數，從而確定中文學科測驗與學生遣詞能力的關係。最後，用「分階迴歸分析」(stepwise regression) 檢定學生語文能力對遣詞能力的預測能力。

四、統計與分析

實驗結果經統計分析，有以下各點值得留意：

一、*學生的遣詞能力表現*

1. 無論高語文能力學生或低語文能力學生，在不同「填空」形式裏，表現都有極顯著的差異：採用「填詞」測驗法時，學生的成績較差；採用「選詞」測驗法時，學生的得分顯著增加。
2. 無論在什麼測驗形式中，高語文能力學生及低語文能力學生的「多義詞」成績，都比「褒貶義詞」成績為佳。
3. 無論在「語段」脈絡或「句子」脈絡的測驗中，高語文能力學生的遣詞成績都保持穩定水平，顯示「脈絡」的因素並不影響他們的表現。不同「脈絡」，卻對低語文能力學生造成不同影響：他們在「句子」脈絡中的表現比在「語段」脈絡中的表現佳。
4. 高語文能力學生，無論在哪一種測試形式中，遣詞成績都顯著比低語文能力學生好。

5. 無論高語文能力學生或低語文能力學生，在「填詞」測驗中的方言詞誤用率都顯著比在「選詞」測驗中的低。在「填詞」測驗裏，高、低語文能力學生的方言詞誤用現象很相似；但在「選詞」測驗裏，高語文能力學生的方言詞誤用數字，顯然沒有低語文能力學生的高。又，不論高或低語文能力學生，在「語段」中的方言詞誤用率，又要比「句子」中的高。

二、學生語文能力與遣詞能力的關係

1. 在預測「多義詞」成績的變項中，以造句作文成績的預測力最強，句段組織成績次之，字詞辨析成績的預測力最弱。
2. 在預測「褒貶義詞」成績的變項中，以造句作文成績的預測力最強，標點運用成績次之，篇章理解成績又次之，字詞辨析成績的預測力最弱。
3. 在預測整體遣詞成績的變項中，以造句作文成績的預測力最強，句段組織成績次之，字詞辨析成績的預測力最弱。

五、研究所得

根據上面的研究結果，可以得出以下的結論：

1. 小學生的遣詞能力，確與他們的語文能力有密切關係，語文能力愈高，愈能在詞匯掌握的「廣度」和「深度」有良好表現。以詞匯量的掌握為例，語文能力較高的學生，一般認識詞匯較多，而且能夠用來表達。至於表達時是否能夠有較適當的表現，就與掌握詞匯的「質」有關。從測驗成績看，小學生對詞匯的多義性和感情色彩（褒貶義），並不那麼容易掌握，但仍然可以看到，能夠把詞匯的多義性和感情色彩掌握得較好的，是那些語文能力較高的學生。
2. 語文能力雖是決定遣詞能力的最關鍵因素，但學生的背景知識，也有很重要的影響。研究結果顯示：有些詞的常用度本來不低，但學生對這些詞掌握得並不好，例如「革命」、「造反」兩詞，學生答對的不多，主要的理由，是本港學生對這兩個詞的背景知識不足，因而所掌握的，只是模糊的概念，遣詞的時候，成績自然大打折扣。
3. 詞匯的多義性，雖不免對學生造成困擾，但比較起來，詞匯的感情色彩，對學生所造成的困擾，顯然更大。從研究結果看，學生常常分不出詞義的褒貶，遣詞的時候，屢有相混的傾向；其中原因，是因為褒貶義詞所代表的概念比較複雜，而小學生的年齡較

輕，生活閱歷淺薄，所以較難掌握得好。反而詞匯的多義性，學生可從上下文理的暗示得到綫索，因此遣用起來沒有那麼困難。

4. 消極詞匯對小學生的影響，也從研究結果看出端倪來。那些學生不熟悉的、少用的或只聽別人說而自己不用的消極詞匯，如果不是展現眼前，便無法想起來。在填詞測驗裏，學生要憑上下文理推斷文義，然後從已有知識裏，提取適用的詞匯，填入適當的空格內；這是一個自發而生的過程，所以學生只能利用自己懂得的、熟悉的、經常用的積極詞匯。高語文能力學生能在填詞測驗中有較佳表現，正顯示他們的積極詞匯量較豐富；而低語文能力學生，認識的多是消極詞匯，所以填詞時，根本想不起要用的詞匯。不過，在選詞測驗中，高語文能力學生和低語文能力學生，成績的差距卻沒那麼大。其中關鍵，是供詞的關係。選詞測驗是採用供詞方式的；供詞，使所有要填的詞匯都展現眼前，低語文能力學生因為也可以看到自己所擁有的消極詞匯，就會答對。其實，同年齡的學生，不管語文能力的高低，他們的生活經驗、知識背景應該是接近的，他們所接觸、認識的詞匯量也大致相若；只因為他們所掌握的詞匯量有積極和消極的差別，因而在填詞中的表現有顯著的分別，但在選詞中的表現差距，就沒有那麼大了。

5. 方言詞匯，對不同語文能力的學生，產生不同層次的影響。低語文能力學生，在選詞測驗中，往往選擇了口語中常用度強的方言詞匯，對標準語的詞匯，反而不去選擇。這是因為標準語的詞匯，對語文能力較低的學生來說，不少是消極詞匯，口頭上的方言詞匯，卻是他們的積極詞匯，而且他們甄別方言詞匯與標準語詞匯的能力也較弱，所以容易受到方言詞匯的干擾。高語文能力學生，在選詞測驗中受到的方言詞匯干擾沒有那麼大，這正反映了他們甄別方言詞匯與標準語詞匯的能力，明顯地較低語文能力學生為強。不過，在不供詞的填詞測驗中，方言詞匯對不同語文能力的學生所造成的影響卻沒有很大的差距，因為這時所考查的，是積極詞匯的掌握能力而不是甄別或推斷的能力。

6. 這項研究，也曾通過語段和句子，來看脈絡長短和詞匯密度與遣詞能力的相關程度。研究結果顯示，高語文能力學生，並沒有因為語段和句子的不同，而影響他們的遣詞能力。這裏可能反映一個事實：語段的脈絡雖然比較長，但由於語段、句子兩者的關鍵詞與關鍵詞之間的密度相若，因此語段雖有較長的脈絡，卻未能為學生帶來顯著的好處。本來脈絡較長，應該會有較強的提示，

但正因為脈絡較長，學生要填入或選擇的關鍵詞也相應按比例增加，在這種情況下，提示較強的優點就給抵消了。根據研究結果，可以看出一個事實：高語文能力學生的遣詞能力，與詞匯在語段或句子中的密度息息相關，它們之間的密切關係，比遣詞能力與脈絡長短的關係更為直接。但對低語文能力學生來說，情況有點不同。他們在句子脈絡中有較佳的遣詞成績。低語文能力學生在語段中的表現略遜，關鍵原因可能直接與他們未有好好掌握閱讀較長脈絡的能力有關，所以不能透徹掌握語段的文義脈絡，致使遣詞能力受到影響。

7. 選詞測驗的目的，主要在考查學生對詞匯的認知、辨識能力；填詞測驗的目的，主要在考查學生對詞匯的應用能力。由於不同語文能力學生一致在選詞測驗中得分較高，在填詞測驗中得分較低，顯示以下事實：學生的詞匯認知、辨識能力較強，應用能力較弱。研究結果又顯示，填詞能力較強的學生，選詞能力也較強。而且，高語文能力學生與低語文能力學生，在詞匯的認知、辨識方面的表現，兩者雖有距離，但不算太大；不過，他們在詞匯的應用層面的表現，卻有很大的差異。從測試角度看，選詞較填詞容易，所以不論高、低語文能力學生，都較容易獲取較好成績，因此選詞的測試形式，對學生遣詞能力的甄別作用不大。填詞比較難掌握，語文能力不高的學生不容易應付，所以填詞的測試形式，更能甄別學生的遣詞能力。

8. 學生的遣詞能力，與他們語文能力中的造句作文能力，關係最為密切。由於詞匯的多義性與詞匯的感情色彩變化相當複雜，學生對一些詞匯是否能夠全面、深入、廣泛、靈活地予以掌握，有時很難看得出來。但透過完整的句子或語段、篇章，就可以看到學生在文義脈絡中怎樣遣詞。所以，學生的造句作文表現，應該可以準確地反映他們的遣詞能力。

六、進一步建議

基於學者的研究成果和這次研究的遣詞能力測試結果，可見語文能力與遣詞能力有頗大的關係。所以，要提高學生的語文能力，可以從遣詞能力訓練入手。下列幾點，是訓練小學生遣詞能力時應該注意的：

1. 詞匯教學，應通過文義脈絡來進行，孤立每一個詞來施教，效果並不理想。
2. 進行詞匯教學，要有系統，要有通盤計畫；隨機施教，學生雖有得益，但得益是有限的。

3. 學生遣詞能力的高低，與他們所掌握的「積極詞匯」量有極密切的關係。為了要提高學生的遣詞能力，教師應該盡力協助學生把「消極詞匯」化為「積極詞匯」。
4. 本港學生的口語是廣州方言，與他們筆下的現代漢語（書面語）有一段距離；改進「書面語」的訓練技巧，可提高學生的遣詞能力。
5. 指導學生掌握詞匯，不但要注意「廣度」，更要注意「深度」。也就是說，不要只重視詞匯「量」的掌握，更要重視詞匯「質」的掌握。
6. 詞匯教學，要以學生的已有經驗和知識作為基礎，把常用詞有計畫地組織起來施教；也要利用文義脈絡，帶出學生所要掌握的詞匯；同時更要通過各種不同的練習形式，使學生在多姿多彩的詞匯運用中，逐步提高遣詞能力。

還要補充的是，就學生的中文遣詞能力研究來說，這次研究不過是多種研究方法中的一個嘗試；如果要從不同角度探討學生的中文遣詞能力，也可以作其他方面的研究。如：

1. 這次研究的對象是小學生，受試者來自兩家中文程度屬中等的津貼小學；所以，研究的結果，只可用來解釋小學中等程度學生的遣詞現象。如果能夠嘗試以更多不同能力、經驗背景與教育程度的學生，做一個較有系統、較全面的研究，當可以更準確地條理出學生遣詞能力的發展綫索，對於本港學生遣詞能力訓練的系統課程設計，應該可以提供更切實的幫助。
2. 這次研究以選詞和填詞兩種測驗形式，透過語段和句子兩種脈絡去考查學生的遣詞能力，得出的結果不免有一定的局限。如果要作進一步的研究，不妨嘗試採用填短語、填句子的形式，透過更複雜的脈絡結構（如篇章）去測學生，當會另有發現。
3. 這次用來測試的詞匯，主要選自香港一家出版社的小學中國語文課本。由於直到目前，本港仍未出現任何可供參考的「小學常用詞匯表」，因此本研究只好根據十二位經驗小學中文教師的意見，評定所選詞匯的常用度。這些用以考查學生遣詞能力的詞匯，是否最為適用？抑或有更適合的選材？將來或可作一步的探討。
4. 這次研究的詞匯考查範圍，只限於多義詞和褒貶義詞；所以，研究結果只能反映學生這兩類詞匯的遣用能力。如要再作研究，可嘗試把範圍擴大到同義詞、近義詞和反義詞方面；又或者，把選擇詞匯以虛詞與實詞分類，分別考查學生，相信所得的結果，將

能更全面反映學生的遣詞能力。

此外，這次研究的測驗試題，雖然已經仔細修訂，但在信度與效度上，未知是否與「標準測驗」仍有距離；所以，將來要進一步研究填詞和選詞測驗在測量學生遣詞能力方面的效度時，不妨再擬設一份修訂更精細、更嚴格的測驗試題，使能更接近「標準測驗」的要求。

附記：本文原長約六萬字，現經節略，約為六千字，其中有關研究方法的說明，刪減最多，而所有參考文獻，也一概從略。

略論中學古典詩歌教學①

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詩歌不只是中國古典文學的主流，同時又是古代教育的主要學科。在《論語》中，孔子曾強調它的教育作用，凡十三次之多。如云：

> 《詩》三百，一言以蔽之，曰思無邪。《為政》
>
> 興於詩，立於禮，成於樂。《泰伯》
>
> 不學《詩》，無以言。《季氏》
>
> 小子何莫學乎《詩》？《詩》可以興，可以觀，可以群，可以怨。邇之事父，遠之事君，多識於鳥獸草木之名。《陽貨》

指出詩的教育作用：可以陶冶性情，培養倫理道德，訓練辭令，增廣知識。清代史學家章學誠《文史通義．詩教》篇，甚至認為六藝之中詩教最廣泛，後世一切諸子百家以至各種文學都淵源於詩教。

古代文學的發展遠不及後世，孔子時代所謂詩不過是一部《詩經》，所以成為當時詩歌教育的唯一教材。後來辭賦、樂府、古體詩、近體詩、詞曲相繼而起，詩歌的範圍就擴大了。因此，詩歌這個概念有狹義廣義之分：狹義的詩歌即古人所謂歌詩，只是指詩而言；廣義則兼包辭賦和詞曲（散曲）。今天所謂詩歌，一般是廣義的。至於曲中的雜劇、傳奇以至彈詞等有韻之文，是屬於歌劇的範疇，性質和各種地方戲一樣，不能稱為詩歌。

到了今天，古典詩歌雖然不流行，但在認識自己國家民族的文學遺產，陶冶性情、語文教育三方面，仍然佔有重要地位。所以在中國語文教材裏仍佔有相當的份量。

古典詩歌真實地反映了各朝代的歷史、社會、風俗習慣、文物制度、思想意識，故學習古典詩歌不僅是文學上的事，同時也是文化上的事，顯而易見，不必解釋。

在陶冶性情這一方面說，詩歌比其他文學更易感動人。因為它有動聽的音節、優美的詞句、豐富的情感。這三個條件合在一起，是其他文學所無的。讀者比較容易投入，引起共鳴，無形中被潛移默化而不自知。古之所謂「詩教」，目的雖然和今天不同，但詩歌含有德育意義是無可否認的。在現行教材中例如白居易的兩首詠鳥詩，是強調孝道之作，由於比擬形象生動，在潛移默化的功能上無疑會比《孝經》或《論語》中論孝各章有效得多。因為前者是從天倫之愛出發，而後者卻是封建的說教。

但是，情感是多方面的，愛大自然的美，愛生活的恬靜，愛國愛民，思友懷人……各式各樣，只要所表現的情趣高尚，都是陶冶性情的好教材。在現行課本中詩歌教材基本上是情趣健康的，不過編排上不大妥當，不能因應各年級學生的理解能力和欣賞程度②。

認識文學遺產和陶冶性情固然是古典詩歌教學的份內事，但最主要的功用還是在於提高學生的閱讀、理解、想像、欣賞能力。我們必須承認，寫作能力建築在閱讀和理解能力上面，而文章技巧必須借助於文學作品的想像和欣賞能力。這幾種能力又以閱讀為基礎。一般而言，訓練閱讀能力的篇章必須有深入探討，仔細推敲的餘地，如果一目了然不必動腦筋的讀物是無補於事的。所以單就訓練閱讀能力來說，普通語體文不如普通文言文，普通文言文不如淺易的古典詩歌。因為古典詩歌是最精鍊的文章，昇華的文學語言，閱讀時必須翻查字典辭書了解字面的意思，進一步求解句子和全篇，在這樣的閱讀過程中，不管所得是否正確，但必須動腦筋去思考，無形中就會提高理解能力，同時養成嚴肅的讀書習慣。所以詩歌教學的好處，可以更有效地訓練閱讀能力。

在教學過程中教師一定要注意幾件事，詩歌教學的步驟和其他讀文教學一樣，但重點不盡相同。

（一）作者介紹——詩歌作品是作者特定的時代背景、生活環境、思想、情感的大結合，而每一首作品又因時地不同而有差異，問題比較複雜。在教學進行中，勢不能如數家珍地不厭求詳，應詳應略，要適應學生的接受能力，視班級高低而定。但對於與作品息息相關的片段，必須詳細交代，然後才能夠使學生理解為什麼作品裏有這樣的內容，從而想像作者此時此地的生活狀態和情感。

例如教李後主《虞美人》，必須將作者在南唐時奢侈糜爛的生活情況和入宋後的淒涼貧乏生活比較，才能夠體會作者此時此地的痛苦心情，欣賞詞筆的美妙。教杜甫《客至》，必須強調老杜一生的顛沛流離、窮苦的生活情況，才顯得出作者在成都的短暫的安定，雖然談不上一個好字，而在他的心目中已經很好了，所以詩中表現出一片閑靜的心情，和自然界的恬靜美互相結合。至於喬吉和張可久的散曲，因作者生平資料很少，難以和作品密切配合像杜詩、李主詞那樣子。但元人散曲為什麼多寫山林隱逸和自然界的美景？原因在於政治問題，元代階級森嚴，政治黑暗腐敗野蠻，讀書人沒有出路，精神苦悶，所以寄託於範水模山，元人散曲中出現大量山林文學就是這個原因。講到喬、張散曲時可以在這一點上作交代。

要這樣做，課本裏的作者介紹是沒有多大用處的。課本的介紹只會抄書，從祖宗十八代說起，跟着是一連串名銜，最後是著作書名，對於歷史、社會背景反而輕輕略過，對於選文毫不相干。這樣一來，不但對學習沒

有幫助，而且一堆人名、官名、書名學生也覺得枯燥無味。尤其離譜的是抄書也不懂得選擇，以致錯誤百出。例如某些課本說杜甫之死是因在耒陽遇大水，舟中不得食，縣令具舟迎之，大吃牛酒，飽醉而死。這是沿襲新舊《唐書·杜甫傳》之誤，而二《書》又因唐人的筆記小說有此一說，不分皂白而寫入史傳裏搞錯了。其實杜甫經過耒陽之後，還到衡陽、洞庭湖、漢陽，都有詩為證，而且元稹寫的墓志銘，分明說他「竟以寓卒，旅殯岳陽」。史書的誤記是許多人都知道的，和李白捉月同樣無稽，實在不應遵乖習訛的。

諸如此類不盡不實的情形很多，在古典詩歌體制和文學史方面尤其數見不鮮。中學語文課本裏當然不能談學問、講考證，但編寫課本的人如果學識有限，把錯誤的知識介紹給讀者，後果就十分嚴重。這是教師必須審慎的，不可一味倚賴課本編者提供的資料，將錯就錯。

（二）詩歌體裁——由中一至中三，教材包括五言古詩、五言律絶和七言律絶，詞中小令和曲中散曲，都是古典詩歌中流行的體裁（獨缺七古），讓學生知道各種體裁在格律上的分別是必要的。但他們不是學做詩填詞作曲，只要粗知一篇之中有多少句、每句多少字、那些地方押韻、那些地方對偶，也就夠了。為了加深印象，最好是多介紹幾首格式相同的給學生作課外閱讀，如時間許可，在課堂上進行更理想。曲文可加襯字，這兩首沒有，正好乘機選幾首同調而有襯字的給學生認識。

在學生方面說，所需的知識不用太多，以免不能消化。教師卻懂得愈多愈能左右逢源，我知道有些教師連陰陽平仄四聲都分不清，教詩歌是很成問題的。

（三）加強誦讀——詩歌必須朗誦到能背誦為止。因為它的音節美是重要的一環，而且唸到爛熟，對於理解和欣賞很有幫助。讀得越熟，越能夠融會貫通上文下理，揣摩其中情感脈搏跳動，探索絃外之音，欣賞文字聲音之美。古人說：「讀其書，想見其為人。」就是這個道理。如此，方能引起共鳴，「尚友古人（指作者）」，到此地步閱讀興趣自然油然而生。

對於文章，尤其是三四百字以上的（短小精悍的不在此限），我很反對硬要學生背誦、背默，因為花了很多時間，效果卻少之又少。詩歌則不然，篇幅很短，容易上口，背誦並不費時，而在理解、欣賞各方面收穫卻大。今天的香港中學生，不少人喜歡哼那些似通非通、十分別扭的粵語時代曲和什麼主題曲，令人噁心，這是語文教育的失敗。如果加強詩歌教學，哼的是唐詩、宋詞、元曲，不僅可以培養高尚的情趣，也可避免寫作上的一些污染。

古典詩歌朗誦既不同於朗誦語體文或白話詩，也不同於朗誦古文。白

話詩文用現代口語寫作，朗誦時要像說話一樣纔自然。文言文不是現代口語，朗誦時要注意句讀分明，語氣的抑揚頓挫也就是了。朗誦詩歌絕對不能像白話詩文，像朗誦古文那樣聲調鏗鏘也還不夠，抑揚頓挫外，需要隨字調而有輕重緩急，高低抑揚，是「吟」，而非一般的誦讀了。

五四運動以後因為一味反對古典文學，某些人形容保守派誦讀時的神情為「搖頭擺腦」，認為是醜態。其實搖頭擺腦是得意忘形，十分投入的下意識動作，和《詩序》所謂「不知手之舞之，足之蹈之」並無分別，不但不是醜態，反而見出已經到了「忘我」的境界。所謂「長吟遠慕」、「新詩改罷自長吟」，也是這種境界。並不是可笑的醜態，唯恐不能由衷地到這個境界。我們近年在朗誦比賽場合上看到的，那種矯揉造作的表情和聲調才是有些那個，因為那種「作狀」就是演戲也太過份，何況用在朗誦？

其實朗誦詩詞曲也不須搖頭擺腦、手舞足蹈、在家裏不妨得意忘形，像有些人洗澡時哼小調似的；在課堂上如果諸多做作，不免令學生有滑稽之感。古典詩歌有固定的平仄，這種固定的平仄是節奏和音韻的密切配合，朗誦時只需比讀文章慢一些，字調準確，就差不多了。大抵陽平聲字調洪亮而長，陰平聲輕清而較短，上聲字調高而促，入聲更短促，去聲則低沈而長。所以陽平和去聲字可以拉長尾音，其餘就不大適合。頓挫的地方按照句法而定，大概五言詩句多是二、三，七言詩句多是四、三，四言詩句多是二、二。詞曲都是長短句，除四五七言外，六字句很多，句法大抵是二、二、二或三、三；長句如《美人》兩結，句法應作六、三來讀。

學生不懂陰陽四聲，所以需要教師範讀，而在預習指導中，誦讀也是重點之一。如果能夠背誦然後上課，當然更妙。

（四）提問用啟導式——一般文篇內容多數表情達意清楚明白，發問之前無須深入引導然後提出問題。古典詩歌則不然，因為語句精鍊，字裏行間都有許多意思不曾直接說出來，而章法又多變化，不像一般記敍、抒情文那樣順序寫下去。為了使學生有所憑藉，不至茫無頭緒，所以稍加暗示和指引是必要的。史家有夾敍夾議的筆法，我們用夾敍夾問的辦法，就是在講解中隨時提問，層層深入，啟發他們的思考能力和路向，尤其是修辭方面的事。但千萬不可用修辭學那一套什麼「格」、「法」來套進去。「非徒無益，而又害之」。

（五）練習——以語譯，改寫為主。詩歌以最精簡的文字來表達豐富的內容，而詩句修辭又和一般散文不同，語譯可以了解詩歌語言和散文的分別。然而更重要的還是改寫，即將原作改寫成白話文，喜歡新詩的也不妨改寫為新詩。在改寫過程中，需要依照原文的意思重新組織，掌握言外之意而運用想像加添材料，把內容豐富起來。這其間，因將古語變為今

語，當然也包括了語譯訓練。

（六）教具——為了幫助學生想像和欣賞，有時需要教具。例如杜甫《客至》，可以利用現成的國畫或圖片，這類有山有水有鄉村的畫照很多，而杜甫的成都草堂、浣花溪畔故址現在已經修復或重建，不難從刊物中找到照片。又如張可久《天淨沙》所寫的山林隱居，名畫裏多的是，也不難找到畫影。而喬吉《水仙子》中的梅花，不但是花卉畫中的常見題材，風物照片也很多。這些圖片本身就是藝術精品，和教材配合，相得益彰，可以引發學生的高尚興趣。

找教具不一定由教師包辦，也可以把學生組織起來，分頭找尋，共同欣賞。學生經過一番努力然後得到，一定更感興趣和成功快感。表面看是兩回事，其實和詩歌學習是相輔相成的。但教具並不是不可或缺，千萬不要削足就履，應該寧缺毋濫。

以上所說只就一般中學詩歌教學而言，中學預科裏的詩歌如《詩經》、《楚辭》，教者還需要對文字、音韵、訓詁之學有一定程度的修養，那些唐詩宋詞元曲，牽涉的方面也很多，要認真深入研究的地方更多。總之，作為中學語文教師，學問修養比教學法更重要，否則「巧婦難為無米炊」，在詩歌教學上尤其如此。

附註：

① 本文是作者於一九八五年四月在香港中文大學教育學院演講的講稿。

② 現行《中學中國語文科課程》（一九七八）的詩歌教材在編排方面不很妥當，例如《木蘭辭》字句比較艱深，不應放在中一。王維、李白、杜甫、陸游詩一古腦放在中三上學期，下學期卻沒有，分配不免失當。班級愈高，理解、欣賞能力愈強，但中四、中五反而沒有詩歌，這是最不合理的。將於一九九一年九月實施的課程，對詩歌教材已略有調整。

漢語詞性不可隨意混同

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一、從「星空，非常希臘」說起

「星空，非常希臘」（余光中：《五陵少年．重上大度山》），①少時讀了這麼的一個詩句，很受感動，覺得詩人造句，結構奇特，意境深遠，留給讀者無窮的想像。今天從一個語文工作者的立場來看，就完全不能接受。

這個句子的毛病，是用詞不當。詞是具有一定意義、一定語音形式、能夠獨立運用的最小的語言單位。它既是語法單位，又是詞匯單位，因此，在詞的運用中，既有詞匯方面的錯誤，又有語法方面的錯誤。所謂詞匯方面的錯誤，是說選用的語詞不能恰當地、確切地表意、狀物或抒情；如果把一類詞用作另一類詞，使句子表義不明，或使句子不通的，就是語法方面的錯誤。這裏的「希臘」是名詞，卻誤用為形容詞，跟前面的程度副詞「非常」不相搭配，結果整個句子讀起來別扭得很。類似的例子如「想像，我們的愛情多麼東方」（余光中：《蓮的聯想．蓮池邊》）②、「如果碧潭再玻璃些」（《蓮的聯想．碧潭》③，犯的也是同樣的毛病。至於流行於日常話語並帶有調侃氣味的「美麗過美麗」、「比古龍還古龍」等等句式，錯誤一脈相承，更是不足為法。

二、用錯詞性的例子

在漢語的各類詞中，名詞、動詞、形容詞這三類詞數量既多，又經常充當句子的主要成分，用錯詞性的機會比較大。在我搜集的病例之中，不合詞性的錯誤就大量出現在這幾類詞上。例如：

> 由於作者當過多年的中學教師，他所描寫的學校生活特別生趣。

名詞「生趣」不受程度副詞「特別」修飾，同時不能做謂語；此句的原意可能是用形容詞「生動有趣」，卻錯誤地省略為「生趣」了。

> 排球運動員使勁而技巧地托着球，不讓對方有空子可鑽。

名詞「技巧」不能用作狀語修飾「托」，可改為形容詞「靈巧」。

> 我這樣說，或者有人將要疑問。

「疑問」是名詞，不能充當謂語，而且不能用在助動詞「要」的後面，可改為意義相當的動詞「懷疑」。

機器零件突然故障。

名詞「故障」不能做謂語，也不受副詞「突然」修飾。但它不好換成動詞，可在它前面加上動詞「發生」，讓它做賓語，句子就通了。

喜訊傳來，他感到有一股說不出的痛快。

「痛快」是形容詞，不是名詞，不受數量詞「一股」修飾，也不能做「有」的賓詞，應把「有一股」刪去，同時，「的」要改成「地」。

上星期，他買了一個新足球送給那位同學，還向那位同學抱歉。

「抱歉」是形容詞，不能受介詞結構「向那位同學」修飾，須改成動詞「道歉」。

大家有個認為，解決城市污染問題是首要任務。

「認為」是不可以當名詞用的，它既不能做「有」的賓詞，也不受名量詞「個」修飾；刪去「有個」就通了。

他的專業是現代文學，但他對古典文學也很鑽研。

「鑽研」是動詞，不是形容詞，不受程度副詞「很」修飾。可在它前面加上形容詞「努力」，讓「很」修飾「努力」，「很努力」又作為狀語修飾「鑽研」。

小明非常生氣自己的不小心。

「生氣」是不及物動詞，誤用為及物動詞，使詞和詞之間不相搭配，全句當改為「小明對自己的不小心非常生氣」。

由於中文是意合法(parataxis)的組織形式，很少形態變化(morphological change)，比較依賴詞序(word order)來表達句子的意義和分句與分句之間的關係④，不同類別的詞在形式上看不出有什麼分別，如果不好好掌握詞性，誤用的情況就在所難免⑤。

三、「兼類」和「活用」與用詞問題

況且，漢語名詞和動詞、形容詞之間出現的「兼類」也不少，使用詞的問題變得更複雜⑥。什麼是詞的兼類？經常兼有兩類或三類詞的結構上的語法特性而詞匯意義上又有明顯聯繫的，就是詞的兼類。例如：「一位代表」的「代表」是名詞（有數量詞修飾），「代表人民」的「代表」是「動詞」（帶了賓語），這是兼名詞、動詞兩類的。「一門科學」的「科學」是名詞（有數量詞修飾），「很科學」的「科學」是形容詞（受程度副詞修飾），這是兼名詞、形容詞兩類的。「很端正」的「端正」是形容詞（受程度副詞修飾），「端正態度」的「端正」是動詞（帶了賓語），這是兼形容詞、動詞兩類的。「很方便」的「方便」是形容詞（受程度副詞修飾），「一點方便」的「方便」是名詞（受數量詞修飾），「方便群

來」的「方便」是動詞（帶了賓語），這是兼形容詞、名詞、動詞三類的。

比詞的兼類還更複雜的，是詞的「活用」。詞類的活用，是指某一個原屬某一類的詞，有它基本上的用法，但它可以當作另一類的詞來用，使之臨時具有另一類的詞的意義和特點。詞的活用，在古代漢語裏尤其普遍，如「人不可以無恥」（《孟子・盡心上》）⑦，句中的「人」字，它的本用是名詞，在句中是本用的用法。有時用在另一種結構中，就會發生轉類的情形：

> 人奪女（汝）妻而不怒。（《左傳》）文十八年）⑧
>
> 楚人、陳侯、蔡侯、鄭伯、許男圍宋。楚人者，楚子也。其曰「人」何？人楚子所以人諸侯也。其人諸侯何也？不正其信夷狄而伐中國也。（《穀梁傳》僖二十七年）⑨

第一例「人奪女妻而不怒」的「人」字，轉類為虛指的指示代詞，和現代漢語「別人」、「有人」的用法相同。第二例「人楚子」和「人諸侯」兩個「人」字，都是動詞的意動用法，「人楚子」等於說「認為楚子是平民」、「人諸侯」等於說「認為諸侯是平民」，意思是不把楚子當國君看待，含有輕視楚子的意思。這種轉類的情形，到了現代漢語仍然保留。如「你比他還聰明」的「聰明」是形容詞，「你得好好地研究才行」的「研究」是動詞，但在「誤事就誤在你這分聰明上」，「希望可就全寄托在你這一次研究上了」的新語法環境裏，也同樣轉類為名詞了。

四、須要約定俗成

由於詞可兼類和活用，用詞要用得準確有時着實困難。不過，無論兼類或者活用，都不能漫無標準，在全社會承認以前，我看還是不可隨便亂用的。

以兼類來說，在大多數情況下，每一個詞只應該屬於一個詞類，有些因為用得熟悉而兼屬兩類或三類詞的結構上的語法特性的，可算是語言中穩定部分的詞，如果用得不熟，就沒有十足資格算是語言中穩定部分的詞了。至於由某一個人任意生造的，現在沒能取得詞的資格，將來也不見得能取得詞的資格⑩。胡亂跨類使用語詞，只是破壞了漢語內部的發展規律，而徒然把語言污染。

詞的活用，更是錯綜複雜。這裏面牽涉漢語的詞能不能分類的問題，國內語法學界在五十年代曾開展過熱烈的討論⑪。關於詞的活用，爭論的焦點是「詞無定類」抑或是「詞有定類，類有定詞」。所謂「詞無定類」，是說漢語的詞類從句子的結構中顯示出來，離開了句子，漢語的具體的詞應當屬於哪一個詞類，就無從分辨清楚⑫。另一方面，詞類和詞在

句中職務雖有密切的關係，但畢竟不是同一的東西，不能說詞的本身沒有任何語法特點，要有具體的句子，才能辨別詞類。因此，有些語法學家強調「詞有定類，類有定詞」，即是說某一個詞用作另一類詞的時候，它並沒有喪失原來詞類的語法特點。他們承認漢語的詞有兼類現象，但是不承認有轉類現象。承認有兼類現象，是承認某些具體的詞具有兩個或三個詞類的語法特點；不承認有轉類現象，是因為兼類現象只是一種特殊現象，不是一般現象，決不可以隨時按照詞在句子的職務來劃分詞類，以致無所不通，無所不轉⑬。因為篇幅限制，我在這裏無意深入探究誰是誰非。詞究竟有沒有定類，還須依賴約定俗成的標準決定。有了群眾基礎以後，轉類才能成功，否則只是把詞胡亂活用而已。其實，活用以後有些例子根本已經是現成的兩個詞，不必再談「轉」了。上舉「聰明」、「研究」兩例，在原有或常見的語法環境中分別用作形容詞和動詞，到了進入新的或少見的語法環境中用作名詞的時候，已各自分化了一個新詞出來。再看「我們兩人的關係比他跟你的（關係）密切」的「密切」是形容詞，可是在「把你和我的關係也給密切了」的新的或少見的語法環境裏，「密切」就是新分化出來的使動詞。

五、語法規律與個人風格

漢語很少形態變化，加上詞有兼類和活用現象，詞性容易混淆，因此，用錯詞性的例子比比皆是，也是語文水平下降的原因之一。如果說有時為了修辭的需要，可以不遵守漢語內部的發展規律，把某類詞用作另一類詞，我是不敢苟同的。上引例子「星空，非常希臘」，在漢語裏找不到相同的用法，美言之曰：「偶一用之，情趣盎然，未足為病」⑭，也不是人人可以接受的。

或許說遵守語法規律，會把一切都規定得死死的，在文藝創作上限制了個人風格的發揮。這完全是一種誤解。要知道，語言是一個複雜的整體，就表達方面來說，語法規律只是它的中心部分，圍繞著這個中心還有其它成分，諸如語詞的選擇以及因語境或文體不同而採用的許多修辭手段和技巧等，都留給說話和寫文章的人無限的發揮餘地。遵守語法規律，不會掩蓋了語言的豐富多采。為着展露才華，有意或無意間脫離語法規律來創作，實在貽笑大方。說話、寫文章遵守語法規律，運用語言比較熟練、比較準確；不遵守語法規律，連成話、成文的條件也談不上，更遑論怎樣去保留或發揮個人的風格了。

成名作家的作品，肯定起示範作用，影響既深且遠，下筆之餘，不妨多為社會的語文水平設想。

附註：

① 香港：文藝書局，1969，頁47。
② 臺灣：大林文庫改版，出版年分缺，頁5。
③ 同②，頁36。
④ 參高名凱：〈中國語的特性〉，《國文月刊》，第41期（1946年3月），頁2-8；Charles
N. Li and Sandra A. Thompson: 'The Semantic Function of Word Order: A Case Study', in
Charles N. Li (ed.): 'Word Order and Word Order Change' (Texas: University of Texas Pre-
ss, 1975), pp. 163–95; T. light: 'Word Order and Word Order Change in Mandarin
Chinese', 'Journal of Chinese Linguistics', Volume 7 (1979), pp. 149–80.
⑤ 有些語法學者肯定漢語的詞有形態。陸宗達〈漢語的詞的分類〉舉「好」、「飛」這兩個詞作例子說明形容詞和動詞有不同的形態：「因為'好'重疊起來變成'好好兒'……第二個音綴帶重音，且高升調，並且'兒化'，可是'飛'重疊起來變成'飛飛'……第二個音綴沒調形，也沒重音。要是有一個詞，它可以用這兩種格式重疊，那麼它就可以入兩類。」（中國語文雜誌社編：《漢語的詞類問題》，北京：中華書局，1955，頁36-7。）俞敏〈形態變化和語法環境〉對形態是這樣解釋的：「一個詞的聲音起了變化，並且用這一次變化表示些個次要的意思的叫形態變化。」他說漢語的聲音變化有：重音變化（如主格的「奶奶」，重音在第一個音綴上，呼格的「奶奶」，重音在第二個音綴上），加音（如「畫」是動詞，「畫兒」是名詞），重疊（與陸宗達所舉的例子基本相同），變調（「愛好」的「好」跟「好看」的「好」調子不一樣等等（《漢語的詞類問題》，頁110-1）。
⑥ 參陳愛文：《漢語詞類研究和分類實驗》（北京：北京大學出版社，1968），頁61-9。
7 《孟子注疏》卷13上，清阮元編：《十三經注疏》（臺灣：藝文印書館，1981），第8冊，頁230。
⑧ 《春秋注疏》卷20，《十三經注疏》，第6冊，頁351。
⑨ 《穀梁注疏》卷9，《十三經注疏》，第7冊，頁92。
⑩ 參俞敏：《名詞 動詞 形容詞》（上海：上海教育出版社，.984），頁61-2。
⑪ 當時主要討論了兩個問題：一、漢語的詞能不能分類；二、漢語的詞應當根據什麼分類，比較重要的文章從1952年起在《中國語文》和《語文學習》上先後發表，由中國語文雜誌社編成《漢語的詞類問題》1、2集，可參。
⑫ 參黎錦熙：〈中國語法中的'詞法'研討〉，《漢語的詞類問題》，頁17-30。
⑬ 參王力：〈關於漢語有無詞類的問題〉，《漢語的詞類問題》，第2集（北京：中華書局，1956），頁33-63。
⑭ 梁錫華：〈有關中文的聯想——'是'與'純正'和'規範'〉，黃維樑：《清通與多姿》（香港：香港文化事業有限公司，1981），頁38。

從漢字看中國古代社會生活

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一、語言與文化的關係

語言與文化，關係極為密切。談語言，不可不留意文化；談文化，也不可忽略語言。語言，可指口頭語言，也可指口頭語言和書面語言；這裏所提到的語言，指的是後者。現時我們一般稱這種包括口頭和書面的「語言」為「語文」。

關於「文化」的界說，歷來衆說紛紜。有人這樣解釋：

> 文化包括一個社會的風俗、遺教、工具及思想方式①。

也有人這樣解釋：

> 在歷史過程中產生的明顯的或不明顯的生活的型式，為全體或特定的一群人所共享②。

這些解釋，我們或許未盡同意，但到底可幫助我們接受這樣的一個說法：人類社會生活，也是人類文化的一部分。

關於「語言」，有人的看法這樣：

> 語言是人類約定俗成、自成體系的一些口中發出的聲音符號，作為彼此之間主要的交接工具用的③。

這裏所提及的「語言」，無疑指的是「口頭語言」，不過我們如果把「口中發出的聲音」改為「聲音和文字」，也就可以把「書面語言」包括在內。李濟在《從人類看文化》中，特別強調了語言與文化的關係。他說：

> 人類學家一般的安排，是把語言放在文化的範圍之內。假如我們急於要知道人類的文化與人類生物方面的關係，我們應該注意語言所佔的地位，是在文化與體質的中間。沒出口的語言，是生物的領域，出了口的語言就是文化了。語言的中間地位，一方面貫串了文化，加強了它的凝結力及生長力；一方面推動了人類的思想，有時也阻礙了或腐化了思想④。

董同龢在《語言學大綱》中，把語言與文化的關係說得更詳細。他的意見是：

> 研究語言是了解人類一切活動的基礎。人群的活動構成他們的文化。文化表現於精神方面的——如宗教、禮俗、社會組織等——都與語言脫離不了關係。因為他們的形成是基於各個成員的彼此交接，而交接的主要媒介便是語言，或語言的化身，文字。至於文化表現於物質方

> 面的——如居室、衣着、工具、裝飾等——雖可從實物去觀察；但如不知道他們叫甚麼，用的人把他們當做甚麼，在用的人心目中他們的用途何在，還不能算是充分瞭解。我們早已知道，不懂古人的語言文字，便不能瞭解古代的情形。同時，現代人類學家都說，不懂一個部族的語言，就沒法了明白他的文化⑤。

語言與文化，關係的確極為密切，我們須通過語言去了解文化，我們也須借助文化，去認識語言、掌握語言。語言與文化既有這樣密切的關係，研究兩者的關係，也是一門學問；這門學問，我們稱為「語言人類學」(ETHNOLINGUISTICS)。

二、研究語言與文化的途徑

研究語言與文化的關係，途徑很多，其中之一，是通過字詞來考察。例如我國古代非常重視祭祀，因此有礿、祔、祠、祡、祳、祾、祼、禖、禘、禮、禬、禱……等字的出現，後來隨着祭祀儀式的廢棄，這些字都變成了僻字、廢字。但有些字，直到現時為止，還是不斷使用，因為這些字的內涵，並沒有廢棄，或原來的內涵雖已廢棄，但在使用時，卻已賦與新義，如祀、祈、祝、神、祠、祥、福、禮、禱……等字是。從「示部」的字，我們可以看到中國古代社會生活的一部分。李濟在《跪坐蹲踞與箕踞》一文中，曾據字形來推測我國古代的社會生活。他說：

> 孫海波編的《甲骨文編》收入下列各字：女、母、妾、命、邑、嘉、兄、祝、鬼、包、既、饗等字，都很清楚象人跪坐形。……由這些涵意不同的象人形跪坐的字彙，我們可以看出一點肯定的史實：即習於甲骨文字的商朝人，已有跪坐的習慣。那時的人們不但對主人、對鬼神要跪坐，在日常生活中如執行為母的職務，自己吃飯，或宴饗賓客，均在跪坐中進行⑥。

李氏因此推論說：

> 跪坐卻是尚鬼的商朝統治階級的起居法，並演習成了一種供奉祖先、祭祀神天，以及招待賓客的禮貌。周朝人商化後，加以光大，發揚成了禮的系統，而奠定了三千年來中國「禮」教文化的基礎⑦。

原來古代起初並沒有椅，人人都席地而坐，跪與坐很相類，但也不是沒有分別。兩者的情況是：跪時雙膝著地，伸直腰股；坐則雙膝抵地，臀部靠在腳跟上。由於古人跪、坐相類，所以對跪並不那麼重視。《史記》卷六十八《商君列傳》載：

> 衛鞅復見孝公，公與語，不自知𨃗之前於席也⑧。

這記述秦孝公與衛鞅談得興奮，不覺向前膝（𨃗）行，竟越出了席的範圍以外。又《史記》卷八十四《賈生列傳》也載：

> 賈生徵見。孝文帝方受釐，坐宣室。上因感鬼神事，而問鬼神之本。賈生因具道所以然之狀。至夜半，文帝前席⑨。

「釐」指祭祀的福胙；「宣室」，指未央宮前的正室；「前席」，即「移之前於席」。又《三國志》卷十一《魏書》裴松之注引《高士傳》云：

> 管寧自越海及歸，常坐一木榻，積五十餘年，未嘗箕股，其榻上當膝處皆穿⑩。

可見漢及以前，大家都屈膝而坐於席上，漢以後，漸有高坐的情形，但古人雖高坐牀榻上，卻不垂腳。《梁書》卷五十六《侯景列傳》記述侯景升壇受禪，踞牀垂腳而坐⑪。史書特別載錄這事，以為駭俗。可知當時高坐垂腳，仍未普遍。到了元代，席地而坐的風習漸廢，而且視「跪」為重要的事。《元史》卷三《憲宗紀》云：

> 嘗攻欽察部，其酋八赤蠻逃于海島。……擒八赤蠻，命之跪。八赤蠻曰：「我為一國主，豈苟求生。且身非駝，何以跪為！⑫」

從八赤蠻的話，可以了解當時對人下跪，是件嚴重的事，這可說是儀節觀念與社會生活的一個變化。下面，我再以「家」字為例，較詳細地談談我國古代社會的一些生活情況。

三、談「家」

「家」，無論從甲文、金文或篆書、隸書、楷書看，都是「宀」下著一「豕」字。「豕」，也就是豬。是不是「家」中該有「豕」呢？許慎不以為然，他在《說文解字》中說：

> 家，尻也，從宀，豭省聲⑬。

許氏認為「豕」是「豭」之省，因此「家」是形聲字。段玉裁的意見不同，他在《說文解字》的注中說：

> 尻，處也；處，止也⑭。

又說：

> 按此字為一大疑案。豭省聲讀家，學者但見從豕而已。從豕之字多矣，安見其為豭省耶？……竊謂此篆本義乃豕之尻（居）也，引申叚（假）借以為人之尻，字義之轉移多如此。牢，牛之尻也，引伸為拘罪之陛牢，庸有異乎？豢豕之生子最多，故人尻聚處借用其字。……家，篆當入豕部⑮。

段氏指出「家」是「豕之尻」，引伸而為「人之尻」，因此「家」是會意字，不是形聲字。程樹德在《說文稽古篇》中，更直截了當地指出：

> 原人時代，家必養豕，故家從豕⑯。

豕，與我國古代人類的社會生活，關係非常密切。程氏在《說文稽古篇》中引述了一些資料：

> 古人最為不潔，養豕在溷（圂）中。《說文》：「圂，廁也。從囗，象豕在囗中，會意。」按《一切經音義》九引《蒼頡篇》：「圂，豕所居也。」《晉語》：「少溲于豕牢。」韋註：「豕牢，廁也。」《漢書．五行志》：「豕出圂。」顏註：「圂者，養豕之牢。」《武五子傳》：「廁中豕群出，壞大官竈。」顏註：「廁，養豕圂也。」《三國志》引《魏略》：「槀離國王侍婢生子，王捐之圂中，豬以喙噓之。⑰」

於是程氏下結論說：

> 是古皆以養豕之牢為廁，迄漢魏猶沿此俗⑱。

其實，在民國以後，這種情況，仍然存在於一些較荒僻的地區中。周作人在《入廁讀書》一文中，曾有這樣的記述：

> 去年往定州訪伏園，那裏的茅廁是琉球式的，人在岸上，豬在坑中，豬咕咕的叫，不習慣的人難免要害怕，那有工夫看什麼書⑲。

《苦竹雜記》出版於民國二十五年，即西元1936年。陳煒湛在《漫談「家」》一文中也說：

> 其實，屋下養豬，在我國農村裏是司空見慣的。……由於房小屋狹，往往人畜共居，或僅一牆之隔。豬圈也就是家中廁所。……十年動亂期間，筆者有幸在桂西山區工作過幾年，出沒於壯鄉瑤寨，所見所聞，更加深了我對「家」的認識。壯瑤同胞，有住平房者，有住樓房者。其住平房者往往在屋外另搭一茅屋飼養豬（或牛、羊），亦有畜豬於屋內者。其住樓房者——竹木搭成的二層樓，則均人畜共居，樓下養豬，樓上住人。僅單身漢不養豬⑳。

「十年動亂」，指1966年至1976年的「文化大革命」，可見廁中養豬、家中養豬的情形，無論是1936年左右或「文化大革命」期間，仍然是存在的。據說現在雲南等少數民族地區，還有人、豬共處一室的情形㉑。家是人類生活中的重要部分，廁是人類生活中的重要設備，豕（豬）是人類生活中的重要家畜，難怪家、廁、豕可以合而講論了。

豕，在我國古代社會中無疑是個重要的角色，與我國先民有密切的關係。在古代典籍中，有關豕的記載不少。

據說上古時代，人與禽獸雜居，所以那時有極大的「豕」，極長的「蛇」，以為民害。《淮南鴻烈解．本經訓》說：

> 逮至堯之時，焦禾稼殺草木而民無食，猰貐、鑿齒、九嬰、大風、封豨、脩蛇，皆為民害㉒。

「猰貐」和「鑿齒」都是猛獸，「九嬰」是能噴水吐火的九頭怪物，「大風」即大鳳或大鵬，「封豨」、「脩蛇」也就是大豕、長蛇。《山海經》有「封豕」一名，據郭璞的解釋：

大豬也，羿射殺之㉓。

雖然有人認為「封豕」疑即「王亥」之誤，但把「封豕」解作「大豬」，應該是大多數人認同的說法㉔。又《左傳》「定公四年」（西元前506年）載：

吳為封豕長蛇，以薦食上國㉕。

又《左傳》「昭公二十年」（西元前522年）載：

生伯封，實有豕心，貪惏無饜，忿纇無期，謂之封豕㉖。

原來古代封豨（封豕），脩蛇（長蛇）是人人害怕的動物，久而久之，便成人人口中的熟語或成語，甚至是加之於人的綽號。《說文解字》對「豦」字這樣解釋：

鬬相丮不解也……豕虎之鬬不相捨㉗。

「鬬」，宜作「鬥」。豕而能與虎鬥，其兇猛、巨大可知。

豕，在古人心目中，是兇猛、巨大、可畏的，這種「豕」，或即是現時的野豬，與家畜的豬不相同。但「家」字的出現，說明了人類已由佃獵時代轉至畜牧時代，因為那時已有畜豬於家作為食糧的做法，所以才會產生「家」中有豕（豬）的概念。豕既然是家畜，就不再那麼可怕了。至於「家」字在甚麼時候產生？我們雖然難以確定，但甲文、金文已有這個字形，可見時代甚古。高明的《古文字類編》，分別列出「家」字的「甲骨文、銅器銘文、簡書及其它刻辭」之類字形，頗易檢索，可以參考㉘。

不過，「家」字是否應該從「豕」？除了許慎主張「豭省聲」外，歷來也不是沒有爭論。例如戴侗在《六書故》中就認為，「家」當作「⿱宀㐺」。他對「家」字的說明是這樣的：

人所合也。从㐺，三人聚宀下，家之義也㉙。

戴氏認為「家」的意義是三人聚合在「宀」下，三人為「眾」，表示人數眾多，所以應從「㐺」（㐺）。這是從「㐺」字的角度為「家」字立論。徐灝《說文解字注箋》則認為，「家」應該從「豕」。他說：

家从豕者，人家皆有畜豕也。《曲禮》曰：「問庶人之富，數畜以對。㉚」

徐氏顯然認為《曲禮》是以「豕」代眾「畜」，數「畜」即數「豕」。吳大澂是金文家，他也同意「豕」與「家」有密切關係。在《說文古籀補》中，他說：

古家字从宀从豕；凡祭，士以羊豕。古者庶士、庶人無廟，祭於寢，陳豕於屋下而祭也㉛。

吳氏所提到的「寢」，也是食居之所，所以從「宀」；「豕」之所以能陳於屋下，大抵是已煮熟的緣故。徐氏和吳氏，都是從「豕」的角度為「家」字立論。嚴章福的意見與戴、徐、吳三氏都不同。他在《說文校

議議》中說：

> 所以从豕者，非犬豕之豕，乃古文亥字。亥為豕，與豕同。《集韻》：「亥，古作豕。」亥下云：「一人男，一人女也。从乙，象裹子咳咳之形。」按《禮》云：「男有室，女有家。」亥為一男一女而生子，非家而何？此其所以从豕之故也[32]。

嚴氏認為「家」之所以從「豕」，是認「亥」為「豕」的關係：「家」應該從「亥」，不從「豕」。這是從「亥」字的角度為「家」字立論。「亥」有一男一女而生子的意思，這個意思，與後世的家庭組織是相配應的。

「豕」和「亥」，究竟是不是同一字？嚴章福引《集韻》之說，以為「亥，古作豕」。我們翻開《說文解字》，只看小篆，「豕」和「亥」是兩個截然不同的字，如： （豕）、 （亥）；但這兩個字在「古文」中，有些字形就相差不大，或甚至十分相近，如： （豕）、 （亥）。所以許慎在《說文解字》中說：

> 古文亥為豕，與豕同[33]。

許氏的說法，或許就是《集韻》的所本。《說文解字》收錄的古文，實際上就是戰國文字，近世出土的春秋戰國古文字資料也證明，「豕」與「亥」這兩個字，有些字形的確很相似，稍一不慎，就會混「豕」、「亥」為一。

「豕」、「亥」相混，在古代是很常發生的事。《呂氏春秋·察傳》載：

> 子夏之晉，過衛，有讀史記者曰：「晉師三豕涉河。」子夏曰：「非也，是己亥也夫？」至於晉而問之，則曰：「晉師己亥涉河也。」[34]

為甚麼「己亥」會誤為「三豕」？「豕」與「亥」形體相近，混為一字，不難理解。「己」之誤為「三」，也有理由可以解釋。據出土竹簡，「三」字寫作「三」，「己」字寫作「 」或「 」，差別只是左右兩直畫。如果簡狹而字大，「己」字的左右兩直畫正好落在簡邊上，稍不留意，就會把「 」看作是三橫了。而且，古文字大多用刀刻，刻時可先直後橫，也可先橫後直。如果是先刻橫，刻手一時大意，就會漏去兩直畫。例如容庚、瞿潤緡編的《殷契卜辭》[35]，其中一片有「翌三亥」的字樣，「翌」下的字就刻成三橫，幸而「亥」字清楚，於是我們才可以判斷這三橫是「己」字缺了兩直畫。郭沫若主編的《甲骨文合集》[36]，也有「己」字刻少兩直畫的情形，可見刻手疏失漏刻，是常有的事[37]。

在這裏引述「三豕涉河」的故事，原意並不在辨正「三」、「己」之誤，而只在說明「豕」、「亥」的容易相混。這兩個字，無疑有互相牽連的關係，但把「豕」與「亥」等同，只是辨字不清。把「亥」解釋為「一

男一女而生子」，因而進一步推斷「家」字應該從「豕」，這種說法，我們很難斷為百分之一百錯誤，但我認為，這或許是社會發展為父系社會才有的思想。「豕」在家中的說法，會較接近於初民畜牧時代的造字思想，而這種思想，是較為樸素、切實的。同樣的理由，用「亼」字的觀念去解釋「家」字，認為「家」字應該從「亼」作「宊」，這也是有了氏族社會觀念才會這樣解釋字義。戴侗特別指出「家」是「三人聚宀下」，這恐怕除了受氏族社會觀念所影響外，也受了中國古代大家族、大家庭的思想影響。解釋「家」字的意義，我寧願採取較樸素的想法、較簡易的解釋。

有人或許會說，在我國古代典籍中，很早就有六牲或六畜的記載，甲文、金文，也早有六牲或六畜的字形，可見六牲或六畜與人類的關係非常密切，為甚麼「家」字會從「豕」而不是從其他家畜？

在回答這個問題前，我們或許先了解六牲或六畜的名稱。據《周禮·天官·膳夫》載：

凡王之饋，食用六穀，膳用六牲[38]。

鄭玄說：

六牲，馬、牛、羊、豕、犬、雞也[39]。

又說：

六畜，六牲也。始養之曰畜，將用之曰牲[40]。

「畜」與「牲」，雖有所謂「始養」、「將用」之別，其實指的都是相同動物。又據「僖公十九年」（西元前641年）載：

古者六畜不相為用[41]。

這裏的「六畜」，也指馬、牛、羊、豕、犬、雞[42]。正因為六畜跟人的關係密切，所以造字的時候，由家畜所構成的字頗不少。例如：駑、駕、駟、駒、馳、馴、牧、牢、告、牡、牲、特、美、羔、鮮、羹、祥、義、豚、豢、彘、豨、豪、豬、犯、狂、狡、狀、吠、獻等等。「雞」字是合體字，加上其他部件構字會有困難，所以從「隹」從「鳥」的字很多，但沒有從「雞」或「鷄」的。至於「家」字為甚麼從「豕」而不從其他家畜？其中理由，或許可以這樣解釋：

1. 豕（豬）的繁殖力強，數目較多。豕的數目，在古代往往是一家財富的代表，段注云：「豢豕之生子最多。」就是這個意思。馬、牛也是重要的家畜，但繁殖較難於豕，因此一般人家不會有很多馬、牛，富貴人家，才會有較多馬、牛。
2. 在古代，豕與人的關係最密切。因為豕常常與人同處一屋或一室之內，豕牢（豬圈）往往就是廁。馬、牛與人的關係，比較起來，就沒有那麼密切了。當然，密切或不密切，是相對而言的。
3. 羊已構成美、羔、鮮、羹、祥、義等字，都是些好字眼。古人造

字，或取義於此，或取義於彼，「家」字取「豕」不取「羊」，只是一種選擇。而且，提到羊，使人較易想到草原；提到豕，因為豕就在屋子裏，自然較易與人的生活聯想起來。

4. 犬與雞，也是古人常養的禽畜，但牠們形體較小，作為食糧，經濟價值不大；在財富評估方面，也難以有大作用。因此，我國歷來的人，在評估一家人的財富時，甚少以犬、雞的數目為依據。作為依據，一般是豕，富貴人家，才兼考慮馬和牛，在一些以畜羊為主的地區，或許會考慮羊。

總括來說，在古代大多數人的心目中，提到「家」，就會想到「豕」，提到「豕」，就會想到「家」。陳煒湛在《漫談「家」》中說：

> 在古代，豬是財富的標誌。屋裏有豬，能飼養豬，是一個家庭的標誌，也是有家當的象徵。養豬越多，表示家越富有。故有人居住之處，未必便是一個家庭，而屋下飼養肥豬者，才能肯定是家、人家[43]。

這可說是為豕也就是為肥豬爭取家庭地位的宣言。

「家」字，在國內進行文字改革時，據說有人曾提議簡化為「穴」，著眼在「人」方面，但最後，仍然保存原來的樣子。簡化字形，不妨作多角度的考慮，只要有理由、合規律，未嘗不可以接受。不過造字之初，「家」既然以「豕」為重，我們今日倒不必為了強調「人」的地位而去改動原有的字形。字字從今，往往就會是新字的創造而不是舊字的改革了。「家」字由甲文、金文而至篆、隸、楷，字形改變不大，因此我們今日仍可從「家」字的字形，看到造字初形的本義，了解古代社會生活的情況。

四、結語

中國語文的特質之一，是漢字的字形可以表意。所謂「意」，也就是「內涵」。審察漢字的內涵，有時可讓我們看到我國古代社會生活和文化發展的一些情況。上面所舉的「家」字，固然是一個顯著的例子，「示」部的字和象人形跪坐的字，也向我們提供一些消息。其他漢字，不少內涵非常豐富、有趣，可惜限於篇幅，不能一一舉例細說。

從漢字看我國古代社會生活，無疑是語言人類學也是文字形義學的一部分。所謂「文字形義學」究竟是甚麼？沈兼士說：

> 研究中國文字的形體訓詁之所由起，及其作用與變遷，而為之規定各種通則以說明之，這種學問，就叫做文字形義學[44]。

沈氏為「文字形義學」提供界說後，更進一步指出：通文字形義學，才可以研究我國古代哲學、文學、考古學、歷史學、國語、文法等等[45]。而沈氏所說的「國語、文法」，即現在我們所說的語言或語文。談語言研究，

許多學者只著眼在語言方面而不及其他，固然是狹隘的做法，而研究其他學科的學者，如果不通文字形義學，也是很不足的。在《「鬼」字原始意義之試探》一文中，沈氏即對「鬼」字的形義，作精細而深入的探討，他所做的工作，並不只是語言文字的研究，同時也是歷史、文化、思想的研究[36]。著名史學家陳寅恪對沈文的評價很高，他在一封給沈氏的信中這樣說：

> 大著讀訖，歡喜敬佩之至，依今日訓詁學之標準，凡解釋一字即是作一部文化史。中國近日著作適合此定義者，以寅恪所見，惟公此文足以當之無愧也[37]。

「凡解釋一字即是作一部文化史」，這句精要的話，不但揭示了現代訓詁學的標準，同時也為現代語言或語文學者和歷史學者，提示了治學的重要途徑，而歷史學者須通文字訓詁，語言或語文學者須通歷史、文化，也就不言而喻了。經濟史學家楊聯陞很同意陳氏的意見，他在「錢賓四先生學術文化講座」中講《中國文化中報、保、包之意義》時，提出了「訓詁治史」的意見，又引述了陳氏給沈氏的信，然後說：

> 一個字牽涉許多重要事物，則其研究皆可構成一部（不必是全部亦不可能是全部）文化史。寅恪先生之說甚是[38]。

研究每個漢字所包含的意義與所牽涉的事物，可說是既繁雜而又有趣的工作，而深切了解字詞內涵的變化，認識不同概念的產生，更是一個研究思想史、文化史的可行途徑。我嘗試從漢字看我國古代社會生活，主要是受了陳寅恪、沈兼士、楊聯陞諸位先生的言論或著述所啟發，同時我也想藉着拙文的撰述，強調一個意思：研究語言或語文，著眼於語言或語文以外的問題，採用語言、文學以外的資料，有時可讓我們看到語言或語文問題的另一面，而且往往會使我們得到意外的啟發。

附註：

1　見周法高《中國語言與文化》一文的引述。這個意見，原見克魯伯爾(A. L. KROEBER)《五十年來之人類學》。(《中國語文研究》，1964年7月中華文化出版事業社，頁139。)
2　見同上。這個意見，原見克魯坤(C. KLUCKHOHN)《文化的概念》。
3　見同上。這個意見，原見布洛(BERNARD BLOCK)《語言分析》。
4　見同上，頁140。
5　見《語言學大綱》，1964年5月中華叢書編審委員會，頁6。
6　見周法高《中國語言與文化》一文的引述，《中國語文研究》，1964年7月中華文化出版事業社，頁152。
7　見同上。
8　見《史記》，1962年5月中華書局校點本，頁2228。
9　見同上，頁2502至2503。
10　見《三國志》，1959年12月中華書局校點本，頁359。
11　參閱《晉書》，1973年5月中華書局校點本，頁859。

12 見《元史》，1976年4月中華書局校點本，頁43。
13 見《說文解字》第七篇下，1964年11月藝文書局重印本，頁341。
14 見同上。
15 見同上。
16 見《說文稽古篇》「家，豕在屋中」條，1957年8月商務印書館，頁5。
17 見同上，頁4至5。
18 見同上，頁5。
19 見《苦竹雜記》，1972年1月實用書局重印本（原1936年出版），頁140。
20 見《古文字趣談》，1985年1月花城出版社，頁108。
21 參閱孫雲鶴《常用漢字詳解字典》，1986年6月福建人民出版社，頁199。
22 見《明刻淮南鴻烈解》第八卷，1979年12月鼎文書局重印本，頁316。
23 見袁珂《山海經校注》第十八《海內經》，1986年10月上海古籍出版社，頁456。
24 袁珂在《山海經校譯》中說：「吳其昌《卜辭所見殷先公先王三續考》云：『封豕』疑即『王亥』之字誤……。如吳所說，則此所記亦王亥故事之零片遺落于此者。」（1985年9月上海古籍出版社，頁304。）又，袁氏在《山海經校注》中，亦有類似說明。（參閱同上。）
25 見楊伯峻《春秋左傳注》，1983年9月中華書局，頁1548。
26 見同上，頁1493。
27 見《說文解字》第九篇下，1964年11月藝文書局重印本，頁460。
28 參閱《古文字類編》，1982年3月中華書局，頁388。
29 見《六書故》卷二十五，1976年台灣商務印書館《四庫全書》影印本，頁10。又同書卷八，戴氏對「尗」字的解釋是：「人」為尗。（同上，頁18後。）
30 見丁福保編《說文解字詁林》七下「尗部」，1970年1月台灣商務印書館重印本，頁3209。
31 見吳大澂《說文古籀補》，1988年8月中華書局重印本，頁30上。
32 見丁福保編《說文解字詁林》七下「尗部」，1970年1月台灣商務印書館重印本，頁3207後。
33 見《說文解字》第十四篇下，1964年11月藝文書局重印本，頁759。
34 見尹仲容《呂氏春秋校釋》卷十，1979年2月國立編譯館中華叢書委員會，頁130。
35 《殷契卜辭》，1933年5月哈佛燕京學社出版，三冊，第一冊為拓文，第二冊為釋文，第三冊為文編。
36 《甲骨文合集》，1978-82年中國社會科學院分冊出版，共十三冊，前十二冊為拓片和照片影印，第十三冊為摹本影印。
37 參閱陳煒湛《古文字趣談》，1985年1月花城出版社，頁68至70。
38 見《周禮注疏》卷四，1960年1月藝文印書館，頁57。
39 見同上。
40 見同上，頁59。
41 見楊伯峻《春秋左傳注》，1983年9月中華書局，頁381。
42 參閱同上。
43 見《古文字趣談》，1985年1月花城出版社，頁107。
44 見〈文字形義學〉，《沈兼士學術論文集》，1986年12月中華書局，頁378。
45 參閱同上，頁378至380。
46 參閱同上，頁186至201。
47 見〈「鬼」字原始意義之試探〉一文的「附錄」，同上，頁202。
48 見《中國文化中報、保、包之意義》的〈引言〉，1987年中文大學出版社，頁3。

關於語文教學模式的研究

浙江省教育科學研究所

王炳仁　王健敏

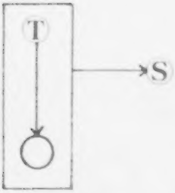
中國的語文教學經歷了相當長的歷史，教學內容和教學方法幾經變化。目前，語文教學的內容包括三大部份：識字教學、閱讀教學、作文教學。教學方法隨教學內容變化更是豐富多樣。識字教學中有集中識字，分散識字；閱讀教學中，有啟發式談話、講授法、問題教學法等；作文教學中，有讀寫結合，片斷訓練、情景創作等。就其教學過程實質來說，可以概括為三種基本的模式，即以教師為中心的教學模式（簡稱為T模式）；以學生為中心的教學模式（簡稱為S模式）；以教師為主導和以學生為主體相結合的教學模式（簡稱為T-S模式）。這裏的模式指的是方法的總和。

定義

我們對這種模式所下的定義如下：

T模式：將教學過程解為教師按自己的學習方式，強制性地將知識灌輸給學生的過程。學生必須對教師保持絶對的被動狀態，圍繞教師按步就班地進行活動。這種模式，可用下列結構圖表示。

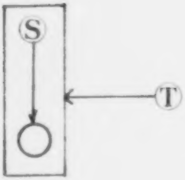
（Ⓣ—代表教師　　Ⓢ—代表學生
○—代表學習對象　　下同）



由左圖可見，這種教學過程首先是教師跟學習對象發生作用，然後將作用的結果（知識）灌注給學生。而學生並沒有跟學習對象發生直接深刻的作用，這已被教師包辦代替了。學生實質上被剝奪了向學習對象主動探索的權利，只能被動地等待着教師的灌輸。

這種模式在日常教師中，最常見的表現為「滿堂灌」「注入式」教學法。

S模式：將教學過程理解為圍繞學生的個人意願和本能活動而進行的一種自由學習的活動過程。認為只有這樣才可能誘發學習興趣和主動性。教師只能順應學生的興趣活動，放棄對教學過程的指導和控制。這種模式，可用下列結構圖表示。

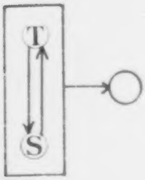


由左圖可見，這種教學過程首先是學生獨立地跟學習對象發生作用，教師在整個過程中充當着看守和助理者的角色，根據學生的意願給予幫助。

這種模式在日常教學中，最常見的表現為「自由式」教學法。

T-S模式：認為數學過程是教師指導下，學生積極主動參加的師生雙邊協同活動過程。教師通過啟發，誘導學生的學習主動性，創造性，實現着對教學過程的影響和控制。

這種模式可用如下結構圖表示。



由左圖可見，這種教學過程首先是通過師生雙向交往，達到以平等的地位共同面對學習對象。並且整個過程都以師生的協同活動，一起向學習對象探索為特徵。

這種模式在日常教學中，最常見的表現為「啟發式談話」。

操作程序

為了便於深入研究這三種教學模式，有必要分析其操作程序。但一種教學模式往往表現為多種教學方法。比如，T-S模式有啟發式談話、問題教學法等，我們選擇最典型、最普遍的教學方法來剖析其一般的操作程序。

T模式的一般程序如下：

(1) 教師向學生提出教學任務。
(2) 教師根據自己對教學內容的理解向學生傳授知識。
(3) 學生按教師的要求以重複練習的形式記憶知識。
(4) 教師通過測評、檢查、評價等手段強化鞏固學生的記憶，以達到教學目標。

S模式的典型程序如下：

(1) 教師以佈置作業的形式向學生提出教學任務，並提供可供選擇的學習材料和輔助學習用具（如插圖、字典等）。
(2) 學生以自己的興趣選擇學習材料和學習輔助用具。
(3) 學生按自己習慣的，樂意的方式學習，如大聲朗讀、默讀靜思、查閱資料、拼圖想象、自由討論等等，在充分活動的基礎上完成教師作業任務。
(4) 教師對學生的活動不予干涉，只在學生需要時適當給予指點。

T-S模式的基本程序如下：

(1) 教師根據對教材重點、難點和學生認知特點的掌握，創設問題情境，引導學生主動面向教學目標，充分感知學習對象。
(2) 學生根據已有的知識閱讀理解學習的內容。
(3) 教師通過與學生相互討論、相互啟發的方式，在學生知識的已知點與未知點間架設橋樑。
(4) 學生以原有的知識能力為基礎，借助於教師的「橋樑」，通過獨立思考探索，由現實水平達到發展區①水平，進而實現教學目標。

實驗

條件控制：選擇原來語文學科的學習成績，最初語文學習能力，對語文科目的最初興趣和態度及個性狀況都相似的學生作為被試。隨機地安排到上屬三種教學模式中去，控制這三個教學組的總教學時間相等，控制使用這三種模式的教師本身教學水平相近，並盡可能在不同的年級中建立對等的組樣。實驗已進行兩年，結果所表現的差異是十分明顯的。

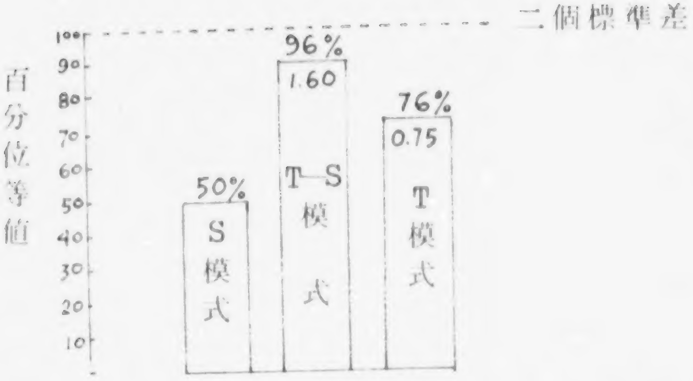
效果比較

第一部分　認知領域

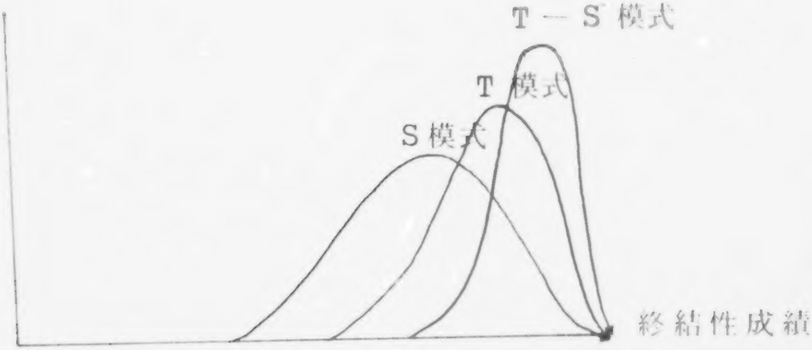
本實驗中對學生認知領域的測試主要包括語文知識能力的測試和語文自學能力的考核兩個方面。

語文知識能力的掌握情況除反應在識字、閱讀、作文三部分教學後所分別進行的單元性測查中外，更集中的體現是學期結束後終結性的語文綜合考查。我們將接受S模式教學的那一組作為控制組，用它的標準差（ σ ）進行比較，發現T-S模式教學組的學生的平均分比控制組學生的平均分高出1.6個標準差，即T-S模式教學組的學生的平均分超過百分之九十五的控制組學生；T模式教學組的學生的平均分比控制組學生的平均分高出0.7個標準差，即高於百分之七十六的控制組的學生。（見圖一）。

在這三種條件下，學生學習成績的離差有着很大的變化，T-S模式離差最小，T模式次之，S模式最大。大約有百分之九十五的T-S模式教學組的學生和百分之七十的T模式教學組的學生達到了終結性學業成績，而S模式教學組的學生只佔百分之四十左右（見圖二）



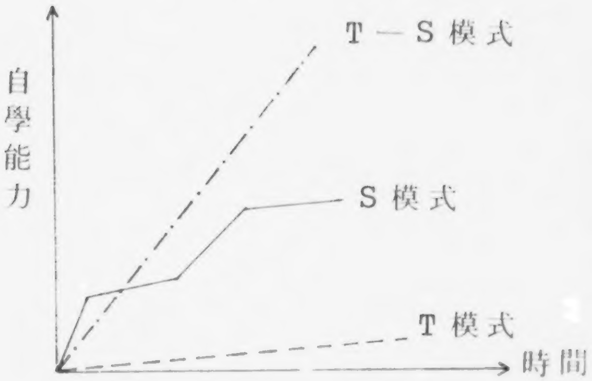
圖一：T-S模式、T模式、S模式三種教學條件下終結性測驗平均分數比較



圖二：T-S模式、T模式、S模式三種教學條件下終結性成績分佈

在最初的能力或測驗成績與最後的終結性測驗成績之間的相關也表現出很大的差異。T-S模式下，能力與成績相關係數最小；T模式次之；S模式下，能力與成績的相關性最大。

對這三種模式下，學生語文自學能力發展水平的考核表明：T-S模式下，學生自學能力提高最快，呈穩步上升的趨勢；S模式下，學生自學能力的發展起伏較大，並有分化現象；T模式下，學生自學能力發展遲緩（見圖三）。

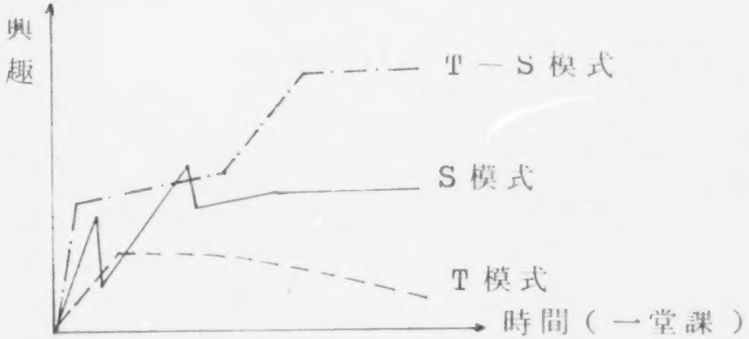


圖三：T-S模式、T模式、S模式三種教學條件下的自學能力發展狀況比較

第二部分　情感領域

本實中，對學生情感領域的考察主要以學生在語文學習過程中的興趣狀況，學習態度以及對語文科目的喜愛程度為衡量指標。

實驗結果表明，使用T-S模式教學，絕大部分學生在學習過程中情緒高昂，專心致志，興趣持久；S模式下，學生興趣時高時低，起伏較大；使用T模式教學，不容易激發學生的興趣，絕大部分人表現得比較冷淡，情緒比較低落，注意力不集中的人數較多（見圖四）。



圖四：T-S模式、T模式、S模式三種教學條件下學生在課堂中的興趣狀況比較

喜愛語文科目的人數，T-S模式下最高，佔總人數的百分之七十，T模式和S模式下分別佔百分之三十和百分之四十。

第三部分　個性領域

我們認為個性的核心內容是自我意識，獨立自主性和創造性。本實驗中就以這三項指標來評定學生的個性發展水平。自我意識大體以自信、自傲、自卑三個等級來劃分；獨立自主性包括獨立自主的願望、獨立自主的心理需要、獨立自主的能力三層含義；創造性是創造的意識、創造的心理需要、創造的能力三種成分的綜合體。評定的結果匯成表一、表二、表三。

表一：三種模式教學條件下學生自我意識發展狀況比較

自我意識 模式	自　信	自　傲	自　卑
T-S	高	低	低
T	低	低	高
S	不平衡*	高	不平衡*

兩極分化現象

表二：三種模式教學條件下學生獨立自主性發展狀況比較。

獨立自主性 模式	獨立自主的願望	獨立自主的心理需要	獨立自主的能力
T-S	強	強	強
S	強	強	不平衡
T	弱	弱	弱

表三：三種模式教學條件下學生創造性水平比較。

創造性 模式	創造意識	創造 心理需要	創造能力
T-S	強	強	強
S	強	強	不平衡
T	弱	弱	弱

從總體上看，很明顯，T-S模式最有利於學生個性發展；S模式相對要劣一些；T模式會抑制學生的個性發展，隨着年級的增高，這種作用更明顯。

研究分析

教學過程，就其本質而言，是教師把人類已知的科學真理，創造條件轉化為學生的知識，並將知識轉化為能力的過程。在這個過程中，教師、學生、學習對象作用的不同方式，構成不同的教學模式。本實驗的目的正是通過對現行語文教學主要模式的比較研究，探索語文教學最佳模式。

綜合比較上述三個領域的實驗效果，結合我們在實驗過程中的觀察和體會，可以得出以下兩點結論：

㈠ T-S模式的實驗效果明顯高於其他兩種模式，是當前語文教學的最佳模式。

教學是師生雙邊的協同活動，這就決定了教學過程不僅僅是一種認識過程，也是感情、意志活動的過程。通過教學不僅要完成掌握知識的任務，還要培養能力，發展感情、意志品質，仍至形成良好的個性。現代教學論提出教學的終極目標是使學生的個性得到充分、自由、完善的發展。即使就學生的認識過程而言，學生對知識的掌握實質上就是將未知的知識與已知的知識融會貫通，實現其最近發展區的水平。這個過程必須由學生的自主，獨立活動來完成。但由於學生的知識能力有限，這種獨立活動必然會出現障碍，必須借助於教師的幫助來實現。因此，在教學過程中，為實現學生認知、情感、個性的良好發展，必須要求教師充份理解與掌握學生的認知特點和心理發展水平，激發學生學習的主動性、積極性，並巧妙地在知識的已知點與未知點之間架設橋樑，這正是通過教師的主導作用，保證學生主體性的實現。而S

模式和T模式均割裂了這兩者關係，以一方否定另一方，違背了教學的內在規律。T-S模式不是通過這兩者關係的有機統一，實現了教學的最佳效果。

T-S模式在實際教學中，往往表現為啟發教學，啟發教學在中國語文教學中有着悠久的歷史。「啟發」兩字源於中國古代教育家、思想家孔子的「不憤不啟，不悱不發」「憤」是指求懂而未懂透，「悱」是指想說而說不出。啟發教學就是教師通過問題情境的創設，最大限度地調動學生的思維，引導他們主動活潑的學習，融會貫通地掌握知識，提高發現問題，分析問題和解決問題的能力。實驗中，有位教師給學生講授《祝福》時，向學生提出一個繞有興趣的思考題：「祥林嫂是怎樣死的？」引起了學生的爭論。有的認為是餓死的，有的認為是凍死的，有的認為是擔憂死的，思維處於積極活躍狀態。教師便因勢利導，指導學生仔細鑽研課文，最後終於使學生對作者寫祥林嫂的「死」所包含的深刻意義有了較深的理解。教師的主導作用體現在啟發教學中，通過啟發教學，學習的主動性，積極性得到了充分的發揮，因此，啟發教學是T-S模式的最大特點。

(二) T模式和S模式在特定的環境下也有其長處。

在實驗中我們發現，盡管T模式與S模式總體水平不及T-S模式理想，但某些分項測試卻呈現出較高的水平。如：T模式在認知領域內的總體水平比T-S模式低，但運用在識字教學中，學生的識字量高0.4個標準差，S模式雖然在三大領域內的效果都欠理想，但隨着學生年級的增高，效果又有好轉的趨勢，尤其是在情感、個性領域，這種趨勢更為明顯。

上屬情況給我們的啟示是：不同的教學對象和教學內容所適應的教學方式是不盡相同的，只要在教學過程中堅持教師主導性和學生主體性相結合的原則，具體的教學方法也可以因情況而制宜。並且T-S模式也應隨教學內容、教學對象的不同而有所變化，並盡可能吸收其他兩種模式的某些優點，以尋求不同教學環境下的最佳變式。這有待於我們作進一步的研究。

當前，中國教育界正在進行着一場大變革，變革的中心就是要發展學生的個性，充分尊重學生的自主性。在語文教學中推廣，信用T-S模式教學，正是適了這種需要。在中國當前的語文教學實際中，T-S模式約佔百分之三十，T模式（這種模式或許結合了某些T-S模式的特點）約佔百分之六十，S模式不到百分之十。看來要使T-S模式成為中國語文教學中佔主導的教學模

式仍是一項艱巨的任務。這不僅僅是一種教育思想的大解放，T-S模式的實施還要以一定的教學技巧和教育藝術為基礎。對教師的培訓發現，要使一個新教師較熟練地使用T-S模式教學，一般需要三年的實踐。但我們有信心進行這項工作。本研究也是我們發展學生個性的研究課題的一個子課題。我們的研究還剛剛起步，上屬結論是在一個較小範圍內得到的，它的科學性有待於更大規模的實驗來進一步檢驗和補充，這正是我們下一個階段所要進行的工作。

附註：

① 最近發展區指介於學生現有發展水平和潛在發展水平之間的處於形成狀態的心理機能，即指兒童在有指導的情況下，借成人的幫助所達到的解決問題的水平與在獨立活動中所達到的解決問題的水平之間的差異。

立足母語特點

吸取外文化語文教學的長處——語文教學科學化的思考之一

余應源
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當今我國的語文教學基本上還屬於以文選為中心的傳統教學。它偏於書面語忽視口語能力培養的傾向，以教師講授為主、靠無數次的重復潛移默化使學生在不知不覺中形成語文能力的做法，它的慢節奏低效率，已不能適應信息時代的需要了。語文教學極待實現突破性的變革。

當今是科學的時代，語文教學改革的根本出路是實現語文教學的科學化。語文是教育中最古老的課程，也是最落後的學科。我國中小學語文科至今還沒有形成自己獨立的知識體系和訓練體系，還沒有總結出能有效的指導教學的系統理論。語文教學要科學化就需要研究學校語文教育的特點、地位和作用，研究它和社會終生語文學習的關係，需要研究語文教學的規律與原則，探索科學的培養聽說讀寫能力的途徑和方法；就不僅需要建立符合學科內在規律的特有的中小學語文科的知識體系，而且要建立符合語文能力形成規律的語文技能訓練體系，使語文教學從以講授文選和相近的不成獨立體系的知識為主的近代語文教學，發展為以關於語文能力的知識指導語文技能訓練為中心的現代語文教學。

據我所知，語文教學的科學化是國際性問題。當今是開放的時代、國際交流的時代，任何科學研究都是人類共同的事業。語文科作為一門科學也一樣，需要廣泛的開展學術交流活動，互相學習。

然而語文科教、學和研究的對象——語言和文字，有鮮明的民族特點。在語文教學的領域中該怎樣相互交流學習呢？我們漢語文教學怎樣纔能有效的學習其他民族語文教學的經驗呢？

我想回顧一下我國近代語文教學發展進程中的兩件學習外民族語文教學並發生重大影響的史實，進行反思，從中得出經驗和教訓是有好處的。

我國古代的語文教學，從夏代到清代戊戌變法在漫長的歲月裏和政治、歷史、倫理、哲學以至於自然科學混在一起，沒有獨立為一個學科。隨着西方工業國用現代槍炮打開我國的大門，西方的教育也影響到我國。戊戌變法辦新學之後，語文纔逐漸獨立成科。但直到一九一九年「五四」新文化運動之前，在教學內容和方法上都沒有實質性的變化。「五四」運動之後白話文開始進入課堂，在語文課（當時稱為國語及國文）中加進了語文知識，其中佔重要地位的便是語法。一八九八年我國第一部系統的語

法書《馬氏文通》發表，學者馬建忠運用拉丁語法分析古代文言文的例句，開創了系統研究漢語文的新階段。他編書的本意是用作教材，但没有達到目的，對語文教學没有產生什麼影響。「五四」之後，一九二四年著名語言學家黎錦熙《新著國語文法》發表。雖同樣是模仿西方語言的語法，卻是現代漢語法的先驅。之後纔有一些學校講授語法。此時文話修辭之類的知識也逐步進入課堂。語文真正獨立成科了，是我國語文教學歷史的飛躍，標誌着我國語文教學進入了近代化時期；儘管它不完全符合我國語文的實際，這一過程在一九四九年之前也遠未普及。

中華人民共和國成立後，一九五一年六月六日人民日報發表題為《正確地使用祖國的語言，為語言的純潔和健康而鬥爭！》的社論，其中指出「我們的學校無論小學、中學或大學都没有正式的內容完備的語法課程。」從此掀起了學習語法的熱潮。語文課堂系統講授語法則是和語文教學歷程中的另一件事——文學漢語分科緊密相連的。就在上述社論發表前後，在全國學習蘇聯的潮流下，全國中等教育會議討論教學大綱，提出文學是藝術，語言是科學，性質不同，語文課混在一起教兩敗俱傷。中央語文教育問題委員會提出「應當把中小學語文一門課程分為語言和文學兩種獨立的學科進行教學。」之後便學習蘇聯俄語、文學分科的榜樣，編寫我國漢語、文學分科的教學大綱和教材。為此組織漢語言學家討論製訂了暫行漢語教學體系，並據以編出了初中漢語科六冊教材，使我國有了在全國使用的「正式完備的語法課程」（同時也有一套有明確知識體系的中學文學課本）。至此，在印歐語法和蘇聯文學俄語分科教學的影響下，我國語文科有了系統明確的知識體系，儘管不合國情，仍是語文教學的又一進步。

這套分科教材，雖然從試用到停用一共祇有兩年半，但影響是巨大深遠的。自從分科之後我國一直在初中較完整的講授現代漢語知識，形成了大中小學一起學漢語語法的局面。照理講語法是語言的規律，應該促進學生聽説讀寫能力的提高，但事實卻相反，學生的語文水平不見提高，甚至有所下降。當然語文教學質量不高的原因是複雜的，特別是在人口衆多的我國普及中小學教育的過程中出現質量相對下降是難免的，是前進中的問題。不過語法越學越多，學生語文水平反而有所下降的事實，是不能不引起深思的。

原因何在呢？

我們編述的語文教學是作為基礎教育第一工具學科的母語教育。語言是人類社會的交際工具，但民族母語都有自己的特點。具體語言的特點不同，使用和教學的內容方法也有所不同，這是一條不需證明的公理。母語的特點是語文教學實踐和研究的基礎。各民族文化背景不同的母語教學的

科學化，必然有不同的特點。

至今的漢語語法承襲的還是《馬氏文通》的傳統，也就是說仍然沒有擺脫套用印歐語法的羈絆，而漢語的特徵和印歐語系卻完全不同。印歐語系形態語的規律怎麼能套到以意合為主的非形態語的漢語上來呢？而且和語法相應的文字的特徵也完全不同，用印歐拼音文字的理論怎能說清以表意為主的漢字呢？我們現今的語法沒有研究清漢語的意合規律，沒有研究清漢字組詞以至成句的規律。它不符合漢語的實際，自然就不能指導漢語文的學習。這樣的語法學得再多，又有多大作用呢？

我國的語文學習的傳統是以文章為主，也就是以實用語言為主，而不是以文學為主，不以藝術語言為主。這一傳統是符合語文作為第一工具科的性質的。學習蘇聯的分科教學，實際上改變了我國語文科的性質，混淆了大學中文專業課程和中學語文科的區別，使得至今不少語文教師仍偏愛文學作品的教學，輕視說明議論等實用文和應用文的教學，課堂上大作文學分析，而沒有着力於語文技能的訓練。這樣當然不利於學生實際語文水平的提高。

我國正式設語文科至今的八十年中，不斷向印歐語系語文教學取經，既促進語文教學由朦朧走向科學，又帶來了嚴重的問題。現在面臨着實現語文教學現代化——真正實現語文教學科學化的歷史任務，怎樣進一步和外民族的語文教學進行交流，怎樣更好地向外國學習呢？

無論中外的語文科要科學化，都應有系統的知識體系和相應的訓練體系，都要學習語言的規律。但各國語文科的知識和規律的內涵是不盡相同的。它們之間既有共性的一面，更有個性的一面，而且個性是根本的基礎的方面，共性是第二位的從屬的方面。我們應該區分各民族語文教學的共性和個性，立足於民族語文的個性，相互學習共性的方面，借鑑個性的方面，以促進民族語文教學的發展，提高學生運用民族語文的能力。

任何語言都是在特定的民族文化傳統、特定的社會環境中形成運用和發展的。特定的民族心理習慣文化背景使民族語文具有獨特的規律，具有特定的民族社會性。這便是民族語文的個性，也是本民族語言區分於他民族語言的根據。象漢語具有以詞序及虛詞為表達語法意義的手段，沒有形態變化等特徵，記錄符號是以表意為主的方塊字。而印歐語系的語言則是形態法，記錄符號是拼音字母。另一方面語言是整個人類都有的現象，各民族語言的功能作用和性質都是相同的，各民族言語的生理和心理機製也是相同的，這是語言的人類自然性，即共性。不過所有民族語言的共性都體現在個性之中。離開了具體語言的個性，共性也就不存在了。任何民族的任何人要運用語言進行交際都必須掌握具體的個性鮮明的實實在在的言語——這便是中小學語文科的教學任務。

民族語文的教學必須和民族語言的特點相應，不同文化背景的各民族的語文教學之間也既有個性又有共性，而且個性同樣是根本的基礎的方面。這裏簡略的比較一下漢語文和印歐語文教學內容方面的異同。

字：漢字是以表意為主的方塊字，每字一個音節，都有特定的音形義，數量多——現代常用字近四千。漢字必須一個個的認識，一個個的學會寫，字的教學便成為漢語文教學的重點和關鍵，同時也是教學中的難點。而要有效的進行漢字教學便要針對特點，要麼發揮漢字的長處利用獨體字常作偏旁部首及合體形聲字多的特點集中識字；要麼針對漢字的短處，利用漢語拼音字母先學會整體拼讀提前讀寫，然後反過來掌握方塊漢字。但近幾十年用西方分散學習詞語的方法學漢字，便產生識字教學中的少慢現象。印歐語由於是拼音文字，總共僅幾十個字母，識字母教學便容易得多了，不成其為教學的重點難點。

詞：由於漢字構詞力極強，生詞熟字現象大量存在，漢語構詞是意合法，沒有什麼表示語法關係的音變和附加成份，詞義和所構成的字義直接相關，衹要認識了幾千常用字，數萬數十萬的詞語的學習便很容易了。而在印歐語文的教學中，詞語卻是一項重大的要花很大力氣的教學任務，要逐步使學生掌握數以萬計十萬計的不同形體和意義的詞語以及詞的附加成分和音變。

句：無論在漢語還是印歐語文的教學中句都十分重要。但各自的特徵是不相同的。漢語的句子是流水式的意合，詞序起極大的作用，詞語之間沒有形態黏合現象，造句時起作用的是事理邏輯和習慣，因此引導學生形成良好的語感有根本性的意義。而印歐語句子是以動詞為中心，通過詞的附加成分及音變靠形態來黏合的。雖然語感在運用時仍有重要作用，但根本的是必須掌握句法，教學必須在語法上下大功夫。

這些清楚地表明了漢語文的教學和印歐語文的教學有質的區別。各自最基本的教學內容不相同，方法自然也不盡相同。在教學內容和方式方法上都不能簡單的互相搬用或套用。它們之間的交流，在上述方面衹能是相互借鑑而不是互相學習模仿。這也就是說，我國今後再也不應重復《馬氏文通》、分科大學語法這類忽視民族語文特徵套用外民族語文教學的做法了。

從本質上說，在我國語文科中大學印歐式的語法，違背了漢語的規律，是背離我國語文教學自身發展方向的。它使我國語文教學的歷史進程中出現了斷層現象：我國古代語文教學雖未上升為科學，但它的基本作法是符合漢語的特徵與規律的，體現出我國語文教學的個性。如集中識字，重視誦讀，注重韻文，練習屬對，注重虛詞和修辭章法等等。這些都是本應在我國語文教學進入近代時加以繼承和發展的寶貴遺產，卻很遺憾的被學

習西方的浪潮否定和中斷了，影響了我國母語教學更快的走向科學化。這是我們必須記取的教訓。

但這並不說明不同文化背景的各民族母語教育之間不能互相學習，相反我們認為不但在各民族母語教學的個性方面的經驗教訓可以相互借鑑，以利於本民族語文教學的健康發展，而且還有重要的共性方面可以對等交流取長補短，甚至可以共同探討研究。

各民族的語言的性質功用，它們的交際作用、信息傳遞的機製，當代科技高度發達對語文能力提出的新的要求等等都是共同的，在這方面向學生進行教育的基本內容和方法是相通的。西方這方面的經驗我們可以學習。

各民族言語的基本能力都是聽說讀寫能力。這些能力的生理和心理機製、構成因素，以及形成和發展的基本過程及規律也是基本相同的。近代西方關於言語心理研究的成果，是我們可以也應該學過來並用於指導語文教學的。

各民旋聽說讀寫活動的類型方式方法，實質上也是相通的。近代西方對各類閱讀方式方法的研究（如速讀、跳讀、搜尋性閱讀、創造性閱讀等），關於語段的研究及說話訓練的研究等等，對我國語文教學的科學化都有重大的意義。

還有關於文章以至文學作品的要素、分類、章法、技法等方面的知識各民族也是大體一樣的。至於教學的設備技術手段之類便更不必講了。

這些共性方面，我們應該很好向外民族語文教學學習，充分吸取別人的長處。這種學習是十分重要的，可以幫助我們更快更好的建立語文教學的科學體系。中小學語文科的體系可分為個性和共性兩方面：

個性即基礎方面，要掌握民族語文本身。學習民族語文的基礎知識，按民族語文本身的特點來進行識字寫字、積詞、造句、組段等的基本訓練。

共性方面就是要對學生進行聽說讀寫知識的教育，進行聽說讀寫的技能訓練。

我國六十年代以來提倡雙基（基礎知識和基本訓練）教學。我認為關於運用民族語文進行聽說讀寫的知識就是語文科的基礎知識，運用民族語文進行聽說讀寫訓練就是語文科的基本訓練；而這兩者都要用文章知識（實際進行的口語，如談話也是有中心有章法的）來統領。這些都是各族語文科的共性方面，「雙基」顯示了相互學習的重要性。學習文章和聽說讀寫的知識，進行有步驟的系統的聽說讀寫技能訓練，便會大大提高我國學生運用民族語文的能力。國內一些語文教學改革實驗已經證明了這點。這就是語文教學現代化——科學化的方向。

但八十年來，我國語文教學在個性基本不同的語法方面花了大量精力套用外民族語法教學的經驗，而在共性方面反而學得不夠。在全面改革開放的今天，對這一段歷史確實應該進行回顧總結，以得出正確的結論。

最後需要說明，上述個性和共性都是從主導方面來說的，是相對的。任何民族的語言都具有社會民族性，這也是共性。但每個民族語言的社會民族性又是特定的各不相同的，這就是個性；而且這一個性是從事民族語言研究及教學的基礎，也是學習它民族語言研究及教學經驗的基礎。不同民族語言的研究和教學相互交流的終極目的，都是為了更好的研究本民族的語言、更好的進行民族語文的教學。因此，民族語言的特點是吸取外民族語文教學長處的立足點——既是起點，也是終點。

這樣我的結論是：

當代社會科技的高速發展，要求語文教學相應的走向科學培養語文能力的道路，通過科學的訓練使學生具有高度的理解和運用民族語文的能力，以適應信息社會的需要。任何民族作為第一工具學科的語文教學都有深厚的社會民族文化背景。作為母語教學必須植根於民族語文的特點。母語規律特徵不同，教學內容方法也應不同，這是語文教學的社會民族性，即個性；作為人類共有的特殊能力的語文能力，它的構成和發展不受語文民族形式的束縛，有共同規律，這是語文教學的人類自然性，即各民族語文教學的共性。不同文化的語文教學應立足於民族語文的個性特點，相互交流學習具有共性的普遍性經驗，借鑑個性方面的經驗，以加速各民族語文教學的科學化，促進各民族語文教學的發展。

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BRIEF REPORTS AND SUMMARIES

匯 報

THE ILE EXCHANGE BANK (SWAPSHOP) OF TEACHER-PRODUCED MATERIALS FOR ENGLISH IN SECONDARY 1 TO 3

May Lee and John Clark

The origins of the project

The idea of teachers working together to create an exchange bank or 'swapshop' of teacher-produced supplementary materials for English in Forms 1–3 stemmed from a particularly enthusiastic group of teacher-participants and their tutors engaged in the Institute of Language in Education's Refresher Courses for secondary teachers during the 1987–88 academic year. These teachers wished to continue to work together on areas of interest once they had left the ILE and returned to their schools. They merely needed a place (the ILE) and an organisational framework and support service to assist them. Thus the swapshop project was formulated and launched before the Education Department announced its welcome plans to support school-based curriculum development. We decided that it would be sensible to apply to the Education Department for financial support to assist the project in its first year of operation, and we were delighted when our application was approved and the project was officially recognised as part of the Education Department's school-based curriculum project scheme (1988–89). The notion of teachers working together to solve their own classroom problems was one that the teachers had explored on their ILE Refresher Course with their tutors. This continues to form a major component in ILE Refresher Courses for secondary teachers. Participants are allocated approx. 120 hours within which to work in groups to carry out a small-scale action research project of their choice. This involves analysing a classroom problem, searching for and choosing possible solutions, planning what to do to address these problems, implementing what has been planned in an experimental teaching sequence, monitoring and evaluating what happens, and then writing up a report describing what has been done and what has been learnt from the whole experience. Having done this in the ILE on the Refresher Course, participants are then asked to formulate and carry out a mini action research project in their own classroom when they return to their schools. Thus the notion of working together in groups to solve real classroom problems is not new to teachers who have followed ILE courses.

Project members

27 secondary teachers teaching in secondary 1 to 3 in a range of government and aided schools enrolled in the project in July 1988 with a view to getting started in September. 4 teachers were obliged to withdraw in the first

month as they had been assigned other duties in school. They were replaced by 4 other volunteers and since then the membership has remained constant throughout the academic year.

2 ILE tutors acted as group consultants, organising the meetings, providing advice, helping the participants to clarify and set out their ideas, coordinating the work of the various sub-groups, helping with language problems, and arranging photocopying and distribution of project-related documents and materials.

Meetings

Regular meetings were held once a month on Saturday mornings in the ILE from September 1988 to June 1989. At these meetings teachers exchanged ideas, formulated plans and wrote materials, consulting the ILE tutors as necessary.

Inevitably a lot of work had to be done by group members in between meetings—most of the actual detailed writing of the material, the typing-up, the trying-out in class, the writing-up of the evaluation sheets, etc. Members also had to meet frequently in between the monthly Saturday meetings to organize work among themselves, and they often came to the ILE to consult the project tutors.

Formulation of the project objective and guidelines

The teachers decided that the overall problem in the classroom which they wished to address was the lack of interesting and relevant supplementary material to support and extend their text books. In particular they felt that there were not enough communicative activities in which students were asked to use texts and language for real or at least realistic purposes.

The idea of initiating an exchange bank or 'swapshop' of teacher-produced supplementary materials to fill this gap appealed immediately to the teachers. A teacher simply had to add one item of material to the bank in order to be able to draw out a copy of everything that was there. Education Department money would be used to assist in the duplication of all the available materials as and when required. It sounded like a good bargain!

The initial meetings were spent determining what sort of supplementary materials were needed in the bank to serve what purposes, and then formulating common guidelines to follow in the creation, trialling, evaluation and redrafting of them.

We started with a needs analysis, and created a questionnaire which was given to all Form 1–3 teachers in our respective schools and to teachers on the ILE's current Refresher Course to determine what supplementary materials were thought to be the most 'needed' in classrooms. This was followed up wherever possible by interviews with teachers to explore further what had been revealed in the questionnaires. 193 teachers filled in questionnaires, but only 8 project members managed to conduct interviews, as these proved very time-consuming and difficult to fit into a busy

678

teaching schedule. It would be too lengthy an exercise here to give a detailed analysis of all the findings of this survey, but the order of priority for materials required was deemed to be as follows:

		% of respondents who judged the item to be 'very useful'
1.	Materials giving rise to social conversation	75%
2.	Materials giving rise to everyday transactions	68%
3.	Writing tasks	66%
4.	Listening for information materials	65%
5.	Materials providing an orientation to the use of English for normal classroom interaction	61%
6.	Reading for information materials	56%
7.	Games and Quizzes	51%
8	Problem-solving tasks	44%
9.	Projects	41%
10.	Extensive listening materials	36%
11.	Extensive reading materials	35%
12.	Materials giving rise to descriptions and instructions	31%
13.	Materials supporting the use of English as a medium-of-instruction in other subjects	30%
14.	Drama activities	27%
15.	Songs and Poetry	24%
16.	Story-telling material	23%
17.	Large-scale simulations	21%

In discussing these results, members pointed out that it had been their experience that many of the teachers had not been very clear as to what such items as 'projects' or 'large-scale simulations' referred to. The group also felt that teachers might not have asked themselves very clearly *why* their students were learning English (eg clearly NOT for everyday transactions, which take place in Cantonese!), or *what might interest* their students most (eg projects, drama, songs, simple poems and stories, which might be thought to inspire 'interest', did not score very highly). It was felt that while the needs analysis had been a useful and illuminating exercise, and would certainly form a major source of inspiration for our work, we would nevertheless exercise our own judgement rather than follow the priority sequence strictly.

Guidelines for the work of producing and trialling the materials were discussed and agreed as follows.

Swapshop Guidelines 1 attempted to answer the following questions:

- Why are we creating an Exchange bank?
- What are we going to do in the project?
- How are we going to do it.

Swapshop Guidelines 2 provided a short summary of the current CDC English syllabus for secondary schools. This indicated:

- the need to ensure a balance between communicative and form-focussed work in the classroom
- the need to ensure success for every learner at his/her own level
- the need to help learners to learn how to learn
- the need to see learners as individuals with differing interests, learning styles etc.

Swapshop Guidelines 3 set out criteria for the design of the materials—These indicated that materials should:

- be graded according to the framework of levels which had been decided upon. In this framework 3 levels were assigned to each year of secondary work from secondary 1 to 3 as follows:

  S1—Levels 1, 2, 3
  S2—Levels 3, 4, 5
  S3—Levels 5, 6, 7

  Thus Level 1 was for lower achievers in S1, Level 2 for average achievers in S1, and Level 3 for high achievers in S1. Level 3 reappears for lower achievers in S2 etc.
- be in self-access form as far as possible
- show a balance between focus-on-form work, skill development and communicative activity
- be relevant to the year group concerned (needs and interests)
- fit into an agreed framework of packages of materials
- draw on a list of exercise-types, skill-based task-types, and communicative activity-types suggested
- be set out to fit into an agreed framework of information which would later be fed into a computerised database. There was to be an indication of the level(s) for which the material was intended, the domain of use it belonged to, the theme and topics covered, the activity-types, exercise types and skills involved, the language focus selected, the pattern of class organisation implied, the equipment and software involved, the author(s) of the material, and the source of any authentic texts used. This would ultimately permit teachers to key in a request for material for example on a particular theme (eg 'science'), or involving a particular skill (eg 'listening for information'), or a particular activity-type (eg 'reading a newspaper article'), or a particular language focus (eg 'making requests' or 'past tense question forms' or 'comparatives and superlatives') or whatever. The intention was that teachers would eventually be able to search for and locate whatever they wanted in the bank, rather than have to follow a book's predetermined content in a predetermined order. A dream? Perhaps, but this would be a first very small step towards its realisation. It would mean materials under the teachers' control rather than teachers controlled by their materials.

Swapshop Guidelines 4 set out initial criteria for the evaluation of the materials to assist triallers to make comments on materials and authors to

680

redraft them. These focussed on such issues as:
- The appropriacy of the material for the level it was supposed to be aimed at
- The interest-value of the material
- The extent of student involvement when using the material in terms of whether the student had to use reasoning and/or imagination as well as language knowledge
- The variety of activities/exercises involved
- The purposefulness of the activities/exercises set, and whether such purposes seemed likely to be fulfilled
- The extent to which the material embraced communicative work, skill development and language practice in a balanced way
- The clarity of the instructions to students and teachers
- The extent to which the students were able to organise themselves and their work without the constant direction of the teacher, ie the extent to which the material was usable on a self-access basis
- The quality of the presentation, lay-out and art-work of the material

Stages in the development of the materials

The various stages to be gone through in the development of the materials were agreed as follows:
- Creation of the first draft of the material
- Trying it out in one's own classroom, and submitting a copy to the ILE tutors for early comments
- Amending the first draft in the light of the classroom trial and the tutor's comments
- Trying out the amended material in one's own classroom, and passing a copy to one or two 'swapshop' members to try out in their classrooms and to comment on
- Amending the material a final time in the light of further comments
- Submitting the finalised version of the material to the bank together with any evaluation sheets amassed during trialling.

The development of the materials

As discussions progressed, members began to clarify what materials they themselves wished to produce. Sub-groups were formed to create sets of materials as follows:
- 'A friend visits Hong Kong'—a series of materials giving rise to everyday transactions and conversations in English
- Using English-medium newspapers—authentic newspaper material giving rise to a variety of activities and exercises
- Activities and Exercises based on authentic documents in English in Hong Kong
- Reasons for writing—materials giving rise to purposeful writing activities
- Projects—materials giving rise to Project work in English

The teachers had had a little experience of materials-writing on their ILE Refresher Course, but this had been necessarily limited, and they found a need for further reading and for frequent discussions among themselves and consultations with tutors both before and during the materials-writing phase. A bibliography of suitable reading material was therefore compiled by the tutors and found to be very helpful.

Inevitably, problems of all sorts arose. There was never enough time within which to think things over properly and to plan effectively, let alone to write the materials. The deadlines which we had to keep to as members of the Education Department's school-based curriculum development project scheme were extremely tight. We learnt that having deadlines did actually encourage us to get on with the work. On the other hand we found that the constraint of having to complete an exercise within an unrealistic time-scale was largely counter-productive, since it forced us to write materials before we were ready to do so, with the inevitable consequence that some of our work was still not fully thought through. It is always both unpleasant and unhelpful to have to take action on the basis of half-baked ideas. We would recommend to the Education Department that they reconsider the time-limits they apply to their approved school-based curriculum development scheme. Some (probably a very few) projects may indeed be completed within an academic year, others may need more time and flexibility, and this should be recognised from the start.

Other problems that arose concerned copyright issues and the quality of the original authentic material used, since photocopying was inevitably necessary, and photocopies of pictures, particularly of coloured material, were often unusable.

It was difficult to know what to do with authentic texts in English produced by Hong Kong speakers of English—What was one to do with the errors and with those usages that might be termed 'Hong Kong English'? We kept on coming up against this problem in Hong Kong newspaper material, official forms and other authentic documents. We ended up by deciding that since newspaper material would have been edited already, we would further edit it where necessary, but not to the point where it lost its Hong Kong flavour.

Teachers found it difficult to produce materials with clear and simple instructions which students would be able to follow in order to use them on a self-access basis.

Some teachers found it relatively easy to create communicative activities and skill-development tasks of a sensible, challenging and enjoyable sort, but were rather less successful at encouraging the students to *explore* the language of the texts through interesting form-focussed work.

Some teachers, on the other hand, produced materials in which the forms were too controlled, leaving the students very little space for creating their own interpretations or using their own English capacity to solve the problems posed. It seemed that they were underestimating the students' capacities and presenting them with little challenge.

Opportunities were missed to encourage learning about life *through*

English, rather than simply learning and practising English. Possible wider educational concerns were sometimes neglected.

Some groups found it hard to find a way of fitting their individual material into the coherent package which they were trying to produce, so that it made a whole.

As time passed first drafts of materials were tried out in their author's classroom and amended, and then given to other group members to trial and comment on, before a 'final' version of the material was submitted to the bank. All the completed materials have been tried out at least once, and most twice. Inevitably, however, time caught up with us and a number of materials have not really been trialled sufficiently.

Currently the materials are with the Education Department. They will soon be printed and/or duplicated in some form, and then all members of the swapshop will get copies of all the materials in the bank.

We would hope that as more contributions are added to the bank, and as packages are completed they may be made available to others. For the moment, however, they belong to swapshop members.

The outcome

The most obvious outcome is that 5 sets of materials have been produced, as set out above, embracing about 43 individual items.

This, however, is not the only outcome. It can be argued that the most heartening and positive outcome of the swapshop is the fact that the members wish to continue it on the same voluntary Saturday morning basis as before. They have expressed the feeling that the Swapshop project has provided them with an invaluable opportunity to improve their classroom teaching together with a chance to meet colleagues and exchange ideas, experiences and social chat on a regular but not over-demanding basis. This is important to teachers, because it increases job satisfaction and helps them to value themselves and their profession more highly. Teaching ceases to be boring routine and becomes a more stimulating experience. While members have expressed the wish to continue with the swapshop, they have preferred not to continue to take part in the school-based curriculum development project scheme, in order not to be subject to the time constraints imposed. This may mean that the momentum behind the production of materials loses some force, but it should also mean a more flexible use of time allowing us to achieve a higher quality product.

The future

The ILE is planning to go on with the Swapshop. We are thinking of expanding it to involve other past secondary participants who would like to take part. This will necessarily involve more tutors.

It is hoped that more teachers of English will thus be able to widen their knowledge and enhance their professional skills through joining the Swapshop.

A SEVEN-SESSION THEME-BASED SCHEME OF WORK FOR P. 6 PUPILS

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} Primary Teachers

Primary teachers attending the ILE refresher courses are able to try out in practice some of the new ideas they have picked from the course, by giving Experimental Teaching (ET) lessons to classes in 'affiliated' primary schools. These ET sessions take place on seven successive Fridays during the ILE course, with the same class, and with a different ILE participant teacher taking the session each week.

One of the advantages of this system is that it encourages a strong co-operative spirit between the seven ILE participants teaching a particularly class, and a great deal of accummulated experience is shared in the process. Another plus is that the once-weekly scheme provides ample time for teachers to develop the skills necessary to plan, modify, observe and evaluate lessons effectively—in a way which is practically impossible in the hand-to-mouth environment of ordinary teaching. On the other hand, there are potentially serious problems of discontinuity in this arrangement. An ET session takes place only once a week, for a mere 35 minutes, and a different teacher takes it each time. There is a danger that both class and teacher will treat each session as a one-off fireworks display, bearing little relation to 'ordinary' teaching.

An obvious way to counter this discontinuity is to design a scheme of work based on a strong theme. This theme will develop over the seven weeks and will hold the seven sessions firmly together. The re-emergence of the theme at the same time each week triggers the pupils' memories of the previous week's session, thereby facilitating the revision and recycling of language points from the week before, and overcoming the pupils' feelings of disorientation at having a change of teacher each week. The common theme also gives each 'new' teacher the confidence to build in a consistent way on what has been taught before, without having to worry unduly about whether the class will 'know' a particular language item or not. Another benefit of the theme-based approach is that, with the theme driving the lesson content, there is much less chance of the ILE participants duplicating work being carried by the class in their other English lesson during the week. The theme's scheme of work could be designed to incorporate the new language being presented by the regular teacher, but without any danger of repeating that teacher's activities or situations.

For these reasons, seven participants on the February-June 1989 ILE course chose to design and carry out a 7 session theme-based scheme of work for the P.6 class they had been assigned to teach in Lo Yu Chik AM School.

Having made their decision to use a theme, the group soon realised that whatever theme they eventually selected would have to satisfy a number of criteria. In the first place, naturally, the theme would have to be within the experience of, and directly interesting to, P6 boys and girls. And further, it would have to contain the depth and versatility to remain appealing over seven weeks. With children of this age just starting to become interested in the use of English in the world outside the classroom, further motivation would be provided if the theme could incorporate realistic Hong Kong situations where the use of English was natural. This would reinforce the idea of English as a medium of communication rather than just another school subject.

From the teaching point of view, it was important that the theme could be exploited to provide practice in all the skills, and also, that activities employing the range of pairwork and groupwork interactions could be included within it. The ILE teachers were also concerned that their lessons would provide reinforcement of the new language that was to be introduced in their regular teacher's lessons during the seven weeks.

One final consideration was that the scheme needed to be extremely flexible-even to the point of being capable of being abandoned midway if the early sessions did not go as planned. The ILE teachers had met the class and the class teacher, but none of them knew the class or the school before their ET sessions started, so they were unable to predict what would happen with any certainty. This criterion of possible abandonment instantly ruled out, for example, the idea of a continuous story developing towards a climax in the final session. For the scheme of work an episodic structure was therefore decided on, as being more suitable.

A number of themes were suggested and found wanting. Preparations for a picnic or outing were considered, but it was felt that after the pupils' initial enthusiasm it would be difficult to maintain the theme for the whole period-particularly since, unfortunately, there could be no 'real' picnic at the end! The picnic was also an unlikely context in which to use English realistically—Cantonese being the obvious choice in such an event. The same objection was also levelled at the idea of using a visit to Ocean Park as the theme.

The idea of a 'hotel' theme seemed to have more potential. Most pupils would have been to a hotel at one time or another, English was often used in hotels in Hong Kong, and most happily, a large number of situations could be included (as it were) under one roof—a restaurant, a disco, reception, paying the bill, the pool, and so on. It would also be easy to obtain authentic materials, which would add realism to the lessons.

The hotel theme quickly evolved into a series of episodes featuring an American, Tom Jackson, staying in a Hong Kong hotel. It became obvious that Tom needed to have a Hong Kong friend, Mary Wong, to talk to, and to inform him about Hong Kong. Very soon Tom started to develop into a rounded character-with a family back home, and his own likes and dislikes. The friendship with Mary provided opportunities to practise informal language, expressing a variety of functions. The hotel itself, on the other hand, generated more formal language.

However, as the scheme of work evolved, even the hotel theme was seen as limiting. The main concern was that over 7 weeks the reappearance of the same hotel would become monotonous. If the scheme of work had been a seven-session project compressed into a week or two then this concentration would have been acceptable, in fact desirable, but there were doubts about the attractions of such a theme strung out over seven one-session weeks.

It was the characters themselves who were able to provide the additional scope. Once it was decided that Tom was a tourist travelling on his own, rather than a businessman, the possibilities for extension were endless. Tourists buy presents, they visit the sights, they send postcards home. They ask a lot of questions and they frequently need help. It was even possible to reintroduce the discarded 'Ocean Park' topic for one session, as Tom and Mary would visit the Park together—and of course they would talk about it in English! The hotel would still provide the framework, but it was the characters that had in fact become the unifying theme.

A simplified version of the final scheme of work appears below:

Lesson	Topic	Activity	Function
1	At Reception	Form Filling/ Listening	Asking and giving information about yourself
2	At the Hotel Cafe'	Ordering Food/Dialogue Building	Asking for things/Requests
3	At the Hotel Disco	Reading and writing a poster	Describing people/Talking about habits
4	Theft in the Hotel	Dialogue Building/ pairwork puzzle	Identifying people
5	Buying Presents	Matching game	Suggestions, Agreement/ Disagreement
6	At Ocean Park	Reading authentic material	Vocabulary building, Suggestions
7	Postcards Home	Reading and Writing postcards	Describing events

In practice, the group found that they did not need to abandon their scheme! In fact, individual sessions went ahead as they had been planned from the beginning. Modifications were made mainly in response to the pupils' hesitancy with language which the teachers had thought they would be able to handle—an inevitable result of not knowing the class well beforehead. Similarly, the ILE teachers had assumed a greater degree of assurance on the part of the pupils when it came to speaking up than was actually the case, and as a result a number of activities had to be modified in order to build the pupils' confidence and encourage communication.

The pupils themselves undoubtedly enjoyed the experience. They had no trouble perceiving the links between the lessons, and the teachers found that the revision of the previous lesson's points went very well. An interesting insight was that the pupils were able to retain all sorts of 'irrelevant' details about Tom and Mary—for weeks after they had been casually introduced. It was obvious that the characters had developed realistic identities of their own (as they had for the teachers!) and that the pupils were able to identify with them.

From the teacher training point of view, this theme-based scheme was a useful learning process for the teachers themselves. It is unusual in Hong Kong primary schools to use the approach of theme-based project work which is the norm in most European countries. In Hong Kong, schemes of work for English lessons tend to be concerned with how to divide up and supplement the textbook with a strong focus on language input. The textbook itself provides any thematic continuity that there is. This small experiment indicated, however, that a theme or topic-based approach does not preclude systematic input or practice, and further that it provides a strong motivation for teachers and pupils alike.

In terms of transfer to schools, this particular scheme could certainly be compressed into a shorter period of regular lessons, with very little modification. It is sometimes observed that one of the practical difficulties with communicative language teaching in schools is the amount of time, and effort, that needs to be put into preparing materials. The advantage with a theme-based scheme is that-once-prepared—it provides a ready-made rentable chunk of material. In addition, precisely because the scheme has a theme, totally new materials are not required for each lesson. As an example, the cut-outs of the characters and the hotel used in this scheme were greeted with recognition in lesson after lesson!

Nevertheless, the crucial feature that made this scheme a success was that it was a cooperative effort. The seven teachers involved all contributed ideas, and they all helped with the design and preparation of materials. Even a brilliant single teacher working independently in their own school would have been very unlikely to produce anything so creative or of such good quality. It is therefore essential that teachers in schools should be strongly encouraged to cooperate together by their principals, and be given recognition by them when they do so. Without this support communicative English language teaching in primary schools will never be as effective or as enjoyable as it should be, and the creativity of talented teachers will remain untagged.

687

A Seminar on 'Teacher Development'

About twenty professionals with an interest in language teacher education took part in a seminar on 'Teacher Development' at the British Council on Saturday 25 February 1989. The session was led by Dr. Desmond Allison of the Institute of Language in Education. It was organised by local representatives of the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL), in conjunction with the Secondary School English Teachers Association (SSETA).

The seminar took a sympathetic but cautious look at reports of activities undertaken in the U.K. and elsewhere by members of the 'Teacher Development' group of IATEFL. These reports suggested how teacher development groups can be set up, in order to encourage teachers to share experiences and exchange ideas.

Conclusions reached at the seminar were that successful teacher development initiatives cannot be imposed from above or outside, but have to come from teachers themselves. Teacher development can and does take place in Hong Kong in various ways, but it seems unlikely that 'Teacher Development groups' will spring up in local education contexts at present. The needs of teachers to explore their own motivation and reflect on their experience may more easily be met by talking informally to friends who are also teachers, perhaps from other schools, or by working with colleagues on other projects.

Other aspects of teacher development include making small studies of one's own teaching, and developing materials for use in class and for exchange with other teachers. These activities are valuable, though they are also time-consuming. A challenge to teacher educators is to encourage and support such initiatives, without seeking to impose them, among teachers in schools.

跟電腦學拼音

——電腦輔助普通話教學初探

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謝曾淑貞

教學設計：CP 871　第13組學員：
馬淑霞
麥淑霞
葉惠芝
甄玉燕

程式設計：區潤樹

689

一、前言

電腦輔助教學 (Computer Assisted Instruction，簡稱 CAI)，自五零年代發展迄今，已有三數十年歷史，但由於通用性課程軟體未能順利發展，加上硬體設備昂貴及功能未備，在七零年代受到一些挫折，八零年代以後，隨着微電腦技術之完備及價格下降，尤其中文處理技術之突破，使得這方面之研究，製造不少有利條件，此研究乃就普通話拼音教學方面，試圖製作一個成本低廉之輔助教學軟件。

電腦輔助教學系統基本架構分成「硬件」及「軟件」部份，其中：

硬件——包括電腦主機，螢幕，鍵盤，磁碟機，打印機等。

軟件——系統軟件，包括作業系統，程式語言 (BASIC) 及中文系統。

課程軟體 (COURSE WARE)

二、電腦輔助教學模式之選擇

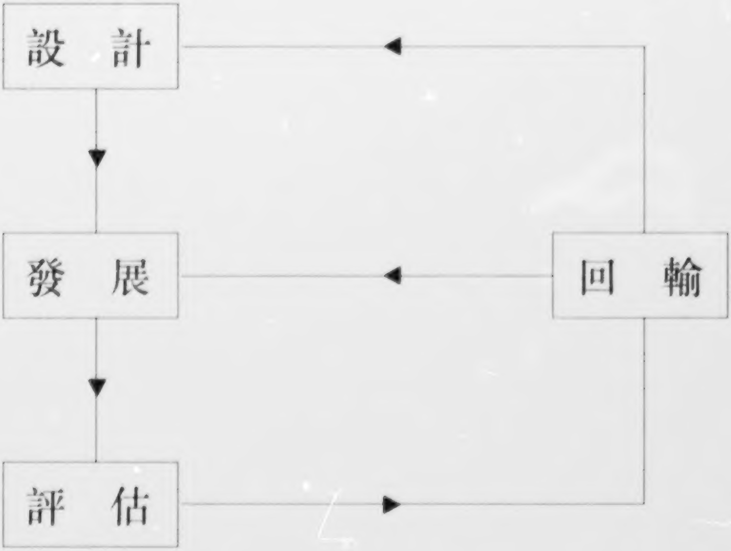
為適合不同教學特質及場合需要，一般之 CAI 教學模式可分為：

教學式	(TUTORIALS)
反覆練習式	(DRILL & PRACTICE)
模擬式	(SIMULATION)
教學性遊戲式	(INSTRUCTIONAL GAMING)
問題解決式	(PROBLEM SOLVING)
對談式	(DIALOGUE)
模型式	(MODELING)
測驗式	(TESTING)

此設計為教學性遊戲式，其構想是寓教育於遊戲。此種方式較適合低年級偏重於記憶性之練習教學，在沒有心理負擔情形下進行學習，這種主動學習已證實對幼年教學有特別成效。

三、CAI軟體之編寫步驟及過程

CAI軟體之發展過程可分設計，發展和評估三個階段，其關係如下圖：



3.1 課程之選擇

'跟電腦學拼音'課程需要性分析：

課程需求：設定漢語拼音練習為小學普通話科必備的單元，為加深及提高學生的拼音能力，本遊戲將提供學生課外的輔助學習機會。
教學對象：小學四至五年級學生。
學習速度：不受限制。
學前經驗：學生應掌握聲母，韻母與及聲調之基本知識，和詞組的讀音。
學習方式：遊戲及練習。

學習目標：1.使學生從遊戲中熟習漢語拼音。
2.引起學生學習漢語拼音的興趣。
學習年齡：由10–14歲。
限　　制：本遊戲沒有教授拼音方法及詞組讀法。
費　　用：僅需電腦基本設置，軟件製作費用低廉。
時　　間：可供課外使用。
空　　間：不受限制。

3.2 教學目標

課程名稱：普通話教學設計之「齊玩齊學普通話」。
單元名稱：跟電腦學拼音。
教學目標：1.使學生從遊戲中熟習漢語拼音。
2.引起學生學習漢語拼音之興趣。
學習環境：是一種主動及娛樂性之學習。
時間地點不受限制。
問題難度可以自由選擇。
偏重拼音及聲調之記憶。
行為目標：加強學後保留之效果。
加強經驗的累積。
行為標準：應以能滿足所設定成績標準。

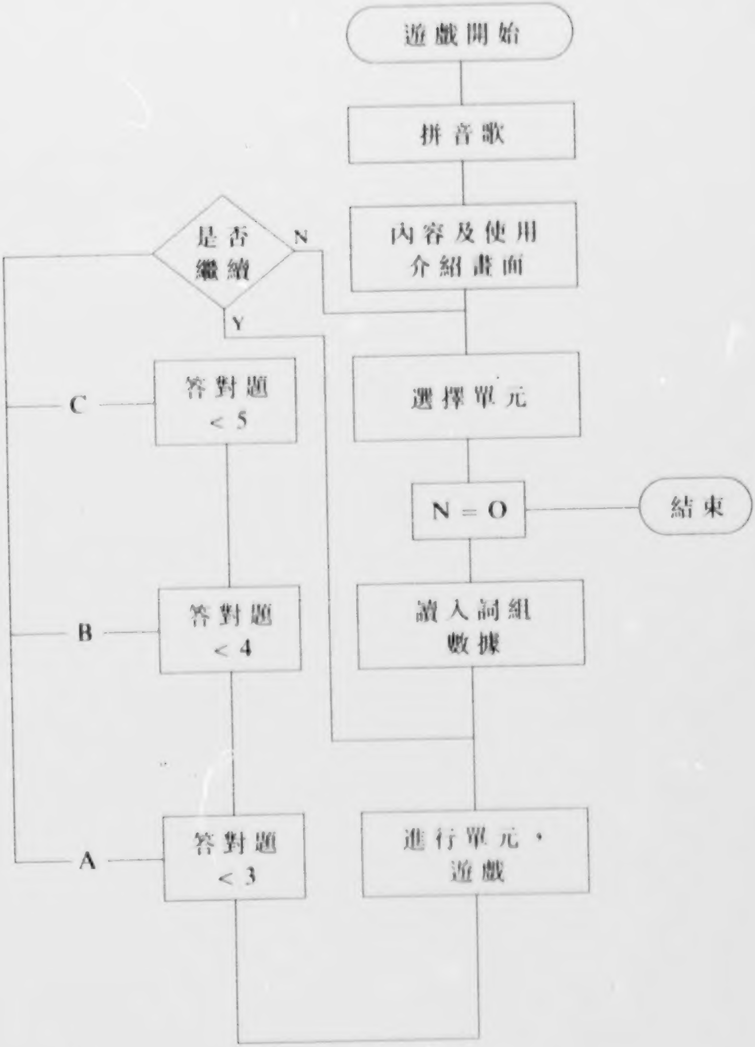
3.3 教學分析

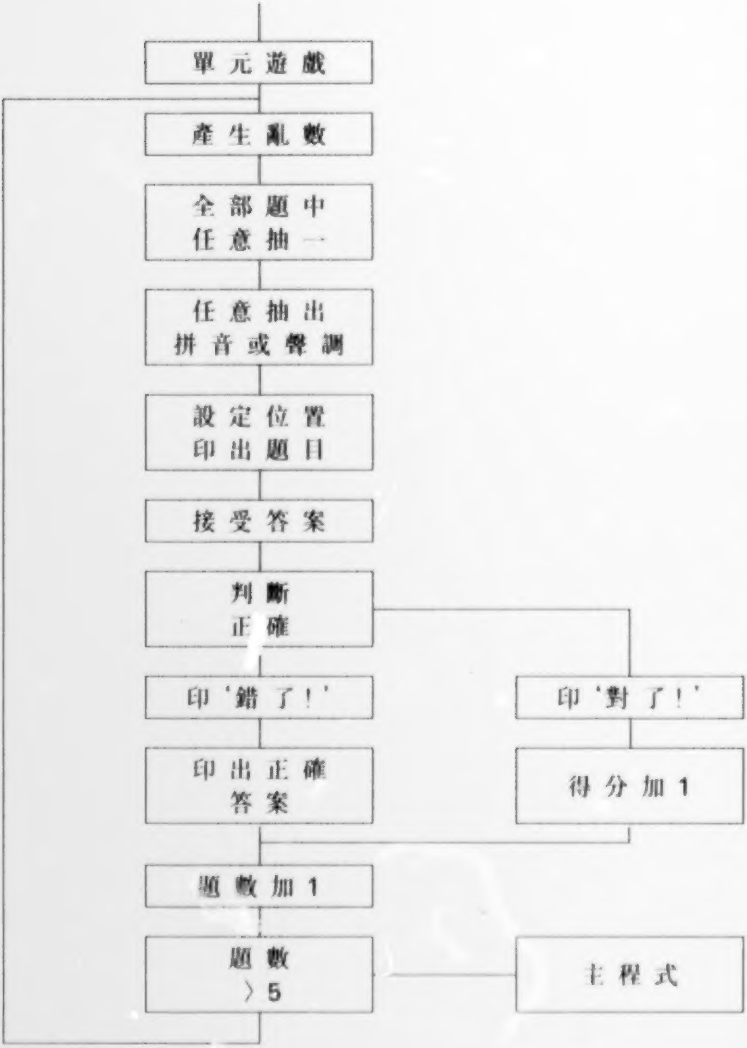
甲、內容取材：為配合普通話科課程的需要，遊戲取材於現成教科書，選擇學生日常生活接觸到及能引起學生興趣之詞組，每詞字數由一字至四字不等。

乙、形　　式：遊戲採積分制，使用獎勵方式以吸引學生追求更好成績，出題方式：畫面上出現一至四字詞語，並將其中一項拼音或聲調漏空，要求使用者從鍵盤以英文小寫字母輸入答案，若答對，則出現［O］號，並顯示‘對了！’及得分增加1。若答錯，則鳴叫一聲，出現［X］號，並同時顯示正確答案。每一回練習中設有五道題，若能答中三題，獎聽歌曲一首，答中四題，兩首任選一首，滿分則三首任選一首。

又依{亂數隨意}出現的性質來出題，使每次出現的題目都不一樣，讓學生能反覆練習，以達到熟練地步。

丙、教學流程


遊戲開始
拼音歌
內容及使用介紹畫面
是否繼續
N
Y
選擇單元
N = O
結束
讀入詞組數據
答對題 < 5
C
答對題 < 4
B
答對題 < 3
A
進行單元，遊戲


單元遊戲
產生亂數
全部題中
任意抽一
任意抽出
拼音或聲調
設定位置
印出題目
接受答案
判斷
正確
印'錯了!'
印'對了!'
印出正確
答案
得分加1
題數加1
題數
〉5
主程式

3.4 課程設計

甲、本遊戲程式分為10個畫面。

1. 題目，導師，設計組員及製作日期。
2. 目的，程度，內容簡介。
3. 單元內容。
4. 資料來源：小學普通話科教科書。
5. 遊戲使用方法。
6. 選擇單元。
7. 出題。
8. 歌曲名稱1。
9. 歌曲名稱2。
10. 歌曲名稱3。

乙、音樂副程式

1. 拼音歌
2. 虹彩妹妹
3. 雨中花
4. 小小姑娘

丙、程式使用變數分析

N：選擇詞組單元

N=0	結束
N=1	大家來學普通話
N=2	我的家
N=3	旅行
N=4	交通工具
N=5	打電話
N=6	買文具
N=7	運動
N=8	百貨公司
N=9	職業
N=10	快餐店
N=11	蔬果
N=12	動物

TS$: 練習標題
P : 目前之題號
SE : 答對題數得分
LO : 代表前一間題之號碼
RO : 代表目前出現之號碼
R1 : 一字題由0-1
: 二字題由0-3
: 三字題由0-5
: 四字題由0-7
代表聲調及拼音

SP$: 用以存入空白字串
Y$: 用以判斷是否繼續，存入y或n
X1-X4 : 代表聲調距離拼音之位置
AN$: 輸入答案字串
S1$-S4$: 代表聲調0=輕聲
1=第一聲
2=第二聲
3=第三聲
4=第四聲
Q1-Q4 : 單元內詞語數量
Q1=單字
Q2=雙字
Q3=三字
Q4=四字
Z1$-Z17$: 常用重覆字串，以變數代表，方便再用。
F$: 單元資料檔案名稱
陣列變數名稱用意介紹如下：
AS$(Q1) : 單字詞組
BS$(Q2) : 雙字
CS$(Q3) : 三字
DS$(Q4) : 四字
A$(2, Q1) : 存放單字，拼音，聲調，拼音位置
B$(5, Q2) : 雙字
C$(8, Q3) : 三字
D$(11, Q4) : 四字

丁、數據結構

遊戲程式與詞組分離，方便增加單元，詞組數據以 DATA 形式存入，可以增減而不影響程式運作，方便日後更改，詞組分隔以 999，888，777，666 為號。

3.5 硬體選擇

1. 本遊戲需要顯示中文，須能配合中文系統。
2. 本遊戲需配上簡單音樂，其作業系統應有音樂指令。
3. 為發展教材之普及性，易於使用，以 IBM PC XT 或兼容機為機種，配 640 K RAM 及 HERCULES CARD 並單色顯示。

3.6 軟體選擇

1. 為考慮使用者經濟成本，速度反成次要，中文採用磁片系統，但需能作 24×24 字體放大而無須硬盤者。據此選用〔倚天〕中文磁碟系統。
2. 音樂副程式，除拼音歌需自行編寫程式外其他從現成音樂副程式庫中選用。
3. 程式語言採用 BASIC，方便日後容易修改。
4. 因製作時間限制，並未使用圖形，可在發展中應用。

四、CAI 教學文件

4.1 教師使用須知

教師使用‘跟電腦學拼音’步驟。

1. 所需設備：
   - 硬件—IBM 或 8088 兼容機 640k 配 HERCULES CARD（即 MONOCHROME）。
   - 軟件—倚天中文系統（系統程式 SYSTEM 1 及 24×24 字盤 SYSTEM 2）。
   - —DOS 2.1（碟上應有 BASICA, CAI36, F1–F12 FILE）。
2. 執行步驟：
   - (1) 將 DOS 2.1 磁碟放入 'A' 磁碟機。
   - (2) 將‘倚天 24×24 SYSTEM 2’放入 'B' 磁碟機。

(3) 開啟‘電腦螢幕MONITOR’。

(4) 開啟IBM機，當'A'磁碟機紅燈亮着，表示正在讀入資料，直至該紅燈熄滅而電腦螢幕出現A〉。

(5) 取出'A'磁碟機DOS 2.1磁碟，換入‘倚天SYSTEM 1’磁碟。

(6) 鍵入ET再按‘輸入ENTER’鍵，'A'磁碟機會自動讀入中文資料，最後螢幕右下方出現有‘倚天’中文字。

(7) 取出'A'磁碟機‘倚天SYSTEM 1’磁碟，換入DOS 2.1磁碟。

(8) 鍵入BASICA並按‘輸入’ENTER’鍵。

(9) 當螢幕出現OK字時，按F3鍵，即出現下列字樣

```
OK
LOAD"
```

(10) 鍵入CAI36及按‘輸入ENTER’鍵，一會再出現OK

(11) 鍵入RUN及按‘輸入ENTER’鍵，磁碟機紅燈熄滅後開始出現下列畫面

普通話教學設計

(12) 當介紹完畢，這時可選擇1–12。

(13) 磁碟機紅燈又再亮着，表示資料正在讀入，紅燈熄滅後，可以開始。

4.2 教學單元

1. 大家來學普通話
2. 我的家
3. 旅行
4. 交通工具
5. 打電話
6. 買文具
7. 運動
8. 百貨公司
9. 職業
10. 快餐店
11. 蔬果
12. 動物

註：單元1–7 適用於四年級
　　單元8–12適用於五年級

資料來源：單元內詞組取材自下列出版社教科書：

大　雅 (1986)
四　海 (1986)
明　華 (1987)
齡　記 (1987)
新　雅 (1986)
教　育 (1986)
現　代 (1986)
文　達 (1987)
模　範 (1986)
新亞洲 (1986)

五、展望

此遊戲除可推廣至其他級別，增加單元外，尚可以考慮下列改進：

5.1 程式編寫

甲、數據處理可用檔案編寫，增加靈活性及減少輸入詞組時間和錯誤機會。

乙、採用彩色動畫，並配合聲音，增加吸引力。

丙、若畫面設計數量很大時，可使用畫面設計輔助軟件套，增加效率。

5.2 普通話教學內容擴展

甲、利用數據庫技術，可進一步發展自動編譯拼音工具，將教材加上拼音及聲調，降低造價。

乙、發展閱讀普通話機器，將教材文字輸入，由電腦按拼音讀出。

附錄一　單元詞組

單元：1. 大家來學普通話

雙字詞組：

	wǒ	men		dà	jiā
1.	我	們	2.	大	家
	jiàn	miàn		nín	zǎo
3.	見	面	4.	您	早
	tóng	xué		shàng	xué
5.	同	學	6.	上	學
	lǎo	shī		xué	xiào
7.	老	師	8.	學	校
	tán	huà		shuō	xiào
9.	談	話	10.	說	笑
	diǎn	tóu		yǔ	yán
11.	點	頭	12.	語	言
	jiān	jì		fāng	biàn
13.	交	際	14.	方	便
	xiè	xie		zài	jiàn
15.	謝	謝	16.	再	見
	nǔ	lì		xué	xí
17.	努	力	18.	學	習
	gōu	tōng		bù	dǒng
19.	溝	通	20.	不	懂

三字詞組：

	tīng	qīng	chǔ		duì	bu	qǐ
1.	聽	清	楚	2.	對	不	起
	pǔ	tōng	huà		yì	diǎnr	o
3.	普	通	話	4.	一	點	兒

701

單元：2. 我的家

雙字詞組：

	bà	ba		mā	ma
1.	爸	爸	2.	媽	媽
	mèi	mei		wài	pó
3.	妹	妹	4.	外	婆
	gē	ge		dì	di
5.	哥	哥	6.	弟	弟
	jiě	jie		biǎo	gē
7.	姐	姐	8.	表	哥
	yé	ye		bó	bo
9.	爺	爺	10.	伯	伯
	shū	shu		péng	you
11.	叔	叔	12.	朋	友
	pái	xíng		jiā	lǐ
13.	排	行	14.	家	裡
	ā	yí		fù	yǒu
15.	阿	姨	16.	富	有
	fáng	zi		shēng	huó
17.	房	子	18.	生	活
	yú	kuài		hé	mù
19.	愉	快	20.	和	睦
	xiāng	chǔ		hé	qi
21.	相	處	22.	和	氣
	chǎo	jià		jiù	jiu
23.	吵	架	24.	舅	舅
	gū	gu			
25.	姑	姑			

三字詞組：

	hǎo	hái	zi		zuò	jiā	wù
1.	好	孩	子	2.	做	家	務

單元：3. 旅行

雙字詞組：

	jiāo	wài		yù	bèi
1.	郊	外	2.	預	備
	kōng	qì		qīng	xīn
3.	空	氣	4.	清	新
	wán	shuǎ		tiào	shéng
5.	玩	耍	6.	跳	繩
	fēng	jǐng		měi	lì
7.	風	景	8.	美	麗
	bái	yún		nóng	fū
9.	白	雲	10.	農	夫
	huáng	niú		chéng	liáng
11.	黃	牛	12.	乘	涼
	xiǎo	niǎo		chàng	gē
13.	小	鳥	14.	唱	歌
	shù	xià		xià	yǔ
15.	樹	下	16.	下	雨
	gǎi	qī		dà	wù
17.	改	期	18.	大	霧
	shān	lù		shāo	kǎo
19.	山	路	20.	燒	烤
	yě	cān		húi	jiā
21.	野	餐	22.	回	家
	shuǐ	hú		shí	pǐn
23.	水	壺	24.	食	品
	shū	chàng		tài	yáng
25.	舒	暢	26.	太	陽
	huáng	hūn		pá	shān
27.	黃	昏	28.	爬	山
	yuǎn	zú			
29.	遠	足			

三字詞組：

mù dì dì　　xīng qī tiān
1. 目 的 地　　2. 星 期 天
yì jiā rén　　zhào xiàng jī
3. 一 家 人　　4. 照 相 機
wánr yóu xì　　zhuō mí cáng
5. 玩 遊 戲　　6. 捉 迷 藏

四字詞組：

jiāo yě gōng yuán
1. 郊 野 公 園

單元：4. 交通工具

雙字詞組：

diàn chē　　dì tiě
1. 電 車　　2. 地 鐵
huǒ chē　　lún chuán
3. 火 車　　4. 輪 船
xiào chē　　fēi jī
5. 校 車　　6. 飛 機
fān chuán　　xiǎo tǐng
7. 帆 船　　8. 小 艇
qì chē　　lǎn chē
9. 汽 車　　10. 纜 車
kè chuán
11. 客 船

三字詞組：

mó tuō chē　　jì chéng chē
1. 摩 托 車　　2. 計 程 車
zì xíng chē　　qì diàn chuán
3. 自 行 車　　4. 汽 墊 船

四字詞組：

jiāo tōng gōng jù
1. 交 通 工 具

gōng gòng qì chē
2. 公 共 汽 車

dù hǎi xiǎo lún
3. 渡 海 小 輪

jià kōng lǎn chē
4. 架 空 纜 車

chū zū qì chē
5. 出 租 汽 車

單元：5. 打電話

單字詞組：

wéi
1. 喂

líng
2. 零

yī
3. 一

èr
4. 二

sān
5. 三

sì
6. 四

wǔ
7. 五

liù
8. 六

qī
9. 七

bā
10. 八

jiǔ
11. 九

shí
12. 十

雙字詞組：

qǐng wèn
1. 請 問

wèn hòu
2. 問 候

hái hǎo
3. 還 好

zài jiàn
4. 再 見

三字詞組：

dǎ diàn huà
1. 打 電 話

nǐ zhǎo shéi
2. 你 找 誰

děng yi děng
3. 等 一 等

dǎ cuò le
4. 打 錯 了

méi shìr o
5. 沒 事 兒

shàng jiē qu
6. 上 街 去

zài jiā ma
7. 在 家 嗎

nǐ hǎo ma
8. 你 好 嗎

四字詞組：

tè bié de shì
1. 特 別 的 事

nǐ shì shuí ya
2. 你 是 誰 呀

shàng nǎr o qù
3. 上 哪 兒 去

huí dào jiā li
4. 回 到 家 裡

diàn huà hào mǎ
5. 電 話 號 碼

yí huìr o jiàn
6. 一 會 兒 見

nǐ shuō shén me
7. 你 說 什 麼

hái méi huí lai
8. 還 沒 回 來

liú gè huàr o
9. 留 個 話 兒

單元：6. 買文具

單字詞組：

zhǐ
1. 紙

shū
2. 書

雙字詞組：

	zì	diǎn		shū	bāo
1.	字	典	2.	書	包
	xiàng	pí		qiān	bǐ
3.	橡	皮	4.	鉛	筆
	wén	jù		chǐ	zi
5.	文	具	6.	尺	子
	bǐ	hé		dōng	xi
7.	筆	盒	8.	東	西
	kè	běn		diàn	yuán
9.	課	本	10.	店	員
	máo	bǐ		yuán	guī
11.	毛	筆	12.	圓	規
	dāo	zi		dì	tú
13.	刀	子	14.	地	圖
	tú	shū			
15.	圖	書			

三字詞組：

	yuán	zhū	bǐ		liàn	xí	běn
1.	圓	珠	筆	2.	練	習	本
	gù	shi	shū				
3.	故	事	書				

單元：7. 運動

雙字詞組：

	yùn	dòng		bàng	qiú
1.	運	動	2.	棒	球
	pái	qiú		zǎo	cāo
3.	排	球	4.	早	操
	chén	yùn		tiào	shéng
5.	晨	運	6.	跳	繩
	bá	hé		pǎo	bù
7.	拔	河	8.	跑	步

707

yóu yóng
9. 游 泳

dǎ qiù
10. 打 球

sài pǎo
11. 賽 跑

tiào gāo
12. 跳 高

tiào yuǎn
13. 跳 遠

liū bīng
14. 溜 冰

三字詞組：

xiǎo pí qiú
1. 小 皮 球

yǔ máo qiú
2. 羽 毛 球

dǎ lán qiú
3. 打 籃 球

tī zú qiú
4. 踢 足 球

四字詞組：

róu ruǎn tǐ cāo
1. 柔 軟 體 操

qí zì xíng chē
2. 騎 自 行 車

單元：8. 百貨公司：

單字詞組：

jiǔ
1. 酒

雙字詞組：

yóu rén
1. 遊 人

rè nao
2. 熱 鬧

gòu wù
3. 購 物

lǐ wù
4. 禮 物

guàng guang
5. 逛 逛

yī fu
6. 衣 服

biàn fú
7. 便 服

xié zi
8. 鞋 子

wán jù
9. 玩 具

táng guǒ
10. 糖 果

shí wù
11. 食 物

yí tào
12. 一 套

qún zi
13. 裙 子

máo yī
14. 毛 衣

shàng yī
15. 上 衣

kù zi
16. 褲 子

mào zi
17. 帽 子

chèn yī
18. 襯 衣

qiú xié
19. 球 鞋

diàn qì
20. 電 器

三字詞組：

sòng gěi nǐ
1. 送 給 你

mài shí zhuāng
2. 賣 時 裝

wán jù xióng
3. 玩 具 熊

xiǎo lǎ ba
4. 小 喇 叭

yáng wá wa
5. 洋 娃 娃

xiǎo pí bāo
6. 小 皮 包

niú pí gǔ
7. 牛 皮 鼓

xī chén jī
8. 吸 塵 機

qiǎo kè lì
9. 巧 克 力

四字詞組：

bǎi huò gōng sī
1. 百 貨 公 司

shè bèi qí quán
2. 設 備 齊 全

gè shì gè yàng
3. 各 式 各 樣

bāo luó wàn yǒu
4. 包 羅 萬 有

rén shān rén hǎi
5. 人 山 人 海

mó xíng qì chē
6. 模 型 汽 車

單元：9. 職業

雙字詞組：

	jiàn	shī		yī	shēng
1.	教	師	2.	醫	生
	hù	shi		jǐng	chá
3.	護	士	4.	警	察
	shāng	rén		xué	sheng
5.	商	人	6.	學	生
	diàn	yuán		gōng	rén
7.	店	員	8.	工	人
	sī	jī		yǎn	yuán
9.	司	機	10.	演	員
	dǎo	yǎn		fǎ	guān
11.	導	演	12.	法	官
	jīng	lǐ		mì	shū
13.	經	理	14.	秘	書

三字詞組：

	shòu	huò	yúan		shì	yìng	shēng
1.	售	貨	員	2.	侍	應	生
	zuò	mǎi	mai		xiāo	fáng	yuán
3.	做	買	賣	4.	消	防	員
	gōng	chéng	shī		kē	xué	jiā
5.	工	程	師	6.	科	學	家

四字詞組：

	jiā	tíng	zhǔ	fù
1.	家	庭	主	婦

單元：10. 快餐店

雙字詞組：

	yì	bēi		yí	kuài
1.	一	杯	2.	一	塊
	wǔ	fan		zhōng	cài
3.	午	飯	4.	中	菜

xī cān
5. 西 餐

jī tuǐ
6. 雞 腿

qì shuǐ
7. 汽 水

dàn gāo
8. 蛋 糕

guǒ zhī
9. 果 汁

kě lè
10. 可 樂

niú nǎi
11. 牛 奶

miàn bāo
12. 麵 包

jī dàn
13. 雞 蛋

niú ròu
14. 牛 肉

diǎn xin
15. 點 心

huǒ tuǐ
16. 火 腿

zhū pái
17. 豬 排

xiāng cháng
18. 香 腸

niú pái
19. 牛 排

rè goǔ
20. 熱 狗

xiān nǎi
21. 鮮 奶

三字詞組：

kuài cān diàn
1. 快 餐 店

chī dōng xǐ
2. 吃 東 西

xǐ huan chī
3. 喜 歡 吃

bīng qí lín
4. 冰 淇 淋

rè kā fēi
5. 熱 咖 啡

hàn bǎo bāo
6. 漢 堡 包

sān míng zhì
7. 三 明 治

jú zi shuǐ
8. 橘 子 水

單元：11. 蔬果

單字詞組：

dòu
1. 豆

雙字詞組：

qīng cài
1. 青 菜

shǔi guǒ
2. 水 果

lí zi
3. 梨 子

xī gua
4. 西 瓜

bō cài
5. 菠 菜

fān qié
6. 番 茄

mù guā
7. 木 瓜

bái cài
8. 白 菜

chén zi
9. 橙 子

luó bo
10. 蘿 蔔

lì zhī
11. 荔 枝

xiāng jiāo
12. 香 蕉

mì guā
13. 蜜 瓜

pú tao
14. 葡 萄

jú zi
15. 橘 子

dōng guā
16. 冬 瓜

lóng yǎn
17. 龍 眼

qié zi
18. 茄 子

yáng táo
19. 楊 桃

yòu zi
20. 柚 子

pí pa
21. 枇 杷

yáng méi
22. 楊 梅

méi zi
23. 梅 子

lǐ zi
24. 李 子

bō luo
25. 菠 蘿

yē zi
26. 椰 子

三字詞組：

hú luó bo
1. 胡 蘿 蔔

xī hóng shì
2. 西 紅 柿

單元：12. 動物

單字詞組：

	xióng		zhū
1.	熊	2.	豬
	mă		xiā
3.	馬	4.	蝦
	yáng		xiăn
5.	羊	6.	蜆
	bàng		
7.	蚌		

雙字詞組：

	lăo	hŭ		shī	zi
1.	老	虎	2.	獅	子
	xī	niú		dà	xiàng
3.	犀	牛	4.	大	象
	luò	tuo		hú	li
5.	駱	駝	6.	狐	狸
	dài	shŭ		bān	mă
7.	袋	鼠	8.	斑	馬
	xiăo	lù		shuĭ	niú
9.	小	鹿	10.	水	牛
	tù	zi		huáng	gŏu
11.	兔	子	12.	黃	狗
	huā	māo		lăo	shŭ
13.	花	貓	14.	老	鼠
	wō	niú		xiăo	chóng
15.	蝸	牛	16.	小	蟲
	mì	fēng		mă	yĭ
17.	蜜	蜂	18.	螞	蟻
	qīng	wā		xiăo	guī
19.	青	蛙	20.	小	龜
	gōng	jī		bái	é
21.	公	雞	22.	白	鵝

wū yā
23. 烏 鴉
xiǎo niǎo
25. 小 鳥
hǎi tún
27. 海 豚
xīng xing
29. 猩 猩
bào zi
31. 豹 子
wén zi
33. 蚊 子
páng xiè
35. 螃 蟹
zhī zhū
37. 蜘 蛛
jīng yú
39. 鯨 魚
qīng tíng
41. 蜻 蜓

yā zi
24. 鴨 子
jīn yú
26. 金 魚
mò yú
28. 墨 魚
hóu zi
30. 猴 子
cāng ying
32. 蒼 蠅
bì hǔ
34. 壁 虎
wū guī
36. 烏 龜
yóu yú
38. 魷 魚
hú dié
40. 蝴 蝶

三字詞組：

zhuó mù niǎo
1. 啄 木 鳥
xiǎo gǒur o
3. 小 狗 兒

bā zhǎo yú
2. 八 爪 魚
xiǎo māor o
4. 小 貓 兒

GENERAL INFORMATION

通　　訊

FIFTH HONG KONG INSTITUTE OF LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

LULTAC '89
(Language Use, Language Teaching and the Curriculum)
Hong Kong 13–15 December 1989

Summary of Objectives:

The Conference will focus on issues relating to language use, language teaching and the curriculum. Extensive reassessments of language teaching approaches of the late 70s and early 80s have led to a review, reinstatement or reinterpretation of language teaching concerns within a context of new insights into language learning and language use.

The designing and implementing of the curriculum in schools and other institutions and the management of any changes in the curriculum need to be informed by this work. The conference will, therefore, encourage discussion of papers on topics such as the following:

1. Language Use and Language in Education
2. Language Learning and Teaching: Some areas for Re-Appraisal
3. The Place of Literature in Language Teaching
4. Curriculum.
5. Research

香港教育署語文教育學院
主辦
第五屆國際研討會

一九八九年十二月十三日至十五日（香港）

研討會主題

這次研討會的主題是「語文運用、語文教學與課程」。

研討會目標

研討會的目標，在於探討有關語文運用、語文教學與課程的問題。七十年代末至八十年代初的語文教學，曾有廣泛的重估。在對語文學習和語文運用有新看法的層面上，這種對語文教學的重估已經引起檢討、重新說明或給以不同解釋的討論。

院校課程設計者、執行人和管理課程改變的人員，需要得知討論情況。因此，研討會歡迎提交有關下列論題的論文：

1. 語文運用和語文教育
2. 語文的教和學：值得再評鑑的範疇
3. 文學在語文教學中的地位
4. 課程
5. 研究

ILE PUBLICATIONS AVAILABLE FROM THE GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS CENTRE

Title	*Year Published*	*Price*
Sample Language Tests for Primary Schools	1986	$18
Listening Comprehension for Primary Schools	1987	$20
Listening Comprehension for Secondary Schools	1988	$25
Developing Reading in English—Approaches and Techniques	1989	$46.50
A Handbook on 'Projects' for Teachers of English	Forthcoming	
常用字字形表	1986	$45
小學讀書百問	1986	$20
小學寫作教學	1987	$25
小學普通話科教學設計	1988	$35

All ILE Handbooks for teachers of English and Chinese in Hong Kong can be obtained from

Government Publications Centre
G/F G.P.O. Building
Central
Hong Kong

語文教育學院出版之中、英文教師手冊可於中環郵政局大廈政府刊物銷售處購買。

FUTURE ISSUES OF ILEJ

Volume 7 of ILEJ will be published in December 1990. Contributions will be welcomed. They should be sent to the editors before 31 June 1990 at the following address:

The Editors (English/Chinese): ILEJ,
Institute of Language in Education,
Park-In Commercial Centre 21/F.,
56 Dundas Street,
Kowloon
HONG KONG

Articles should be approximately 4 000 words in length. An English stylesheet is attached on the next page for your reference. A brief abstract in the same language as the articles should be included. Book reviews will also be welcome. Further information about the ILEJ may be obtained from Ms Madeleine LAU. Tel.: 3-7719552.

中文來稿稿例

《語文教育學院學報》主要刊載有關語文教學、語文應用、語文研究的學術論文。來稿如用中文撰寫，請閱下列說明：

一、來稿請用單面有格稿紙，以繁體正楷橫寫。
二、字數宜在四千至八千字之間。
三、引文請註出處，圖表、音標、古文字、外文等，務請繪寫清楚。
四、編輯顧問及委員對來稿有刪改權，不願者請註明。
五、來稿請附姓名、任職機構、通訊地址、電話、以便聯絡。
六、本刊不設稿酬，來稿刊載後，寄贈當期學報三冊。
七、本刊每年出版一期，每期截稿時間，為當期學報出版年份的六月底。
八、來稿請寄：

香港九龍
登打士街五十六號
柏裕商業中心二十一樓
香港教育署語文教育學院
語文教育學院學報編輯（中文）收

STYLE SHEET

1. Manuscripts should be typewritten, preferably on A4 size paper. Typing should be double-spaced and on one side of the paper only.
2. Items to be italicised should have single underlining. These include the following:
   a. Section headings and subheadings (which should not be numbered).
   b. Words or phrases used as linguistic examples.
   c. Words or phrases given particularly strong emphasis.
   d. Titles of tables, graphs and other diagrams.
   e. Titles or headings of other books or articles referred to or cited.
3. Capitals (no underlining) should be used for the following:
   a. Titles of article or review. (The author's name(s) may be in smaller type).
   b. Headings of NOTES and REFERENCES sections.
4. Single inverted commas should be reserved for:
   a. A distancing device by the author (e.g. This is not predicted by Smith's 'theory' . . .).
   b. A method of highlighting the first mention of terms specially coined for the paper.
5. Double inverted commas should be reserved for verbatim quotations.
6. The first page should contain the title of the article at the top of the page, in capitals, with the name of the author(s) immediately below and centred. A reasonable amount of blank space should separate these from the start of the text. Headings such as *Introduction* should be underlined and located at the left-hand side of the text. These should be two blank spaces between the subheading and the start of the first sentence of the text, which should be indented 5 spaces.
7. Tables and diagrams should each be numbered sequentially and their intended position in the text should be clearly indicated. Diagrams should be on separate sheets. All such graphic displays should have single underlining. Capitals should only be used for the initial letter of the word Table or Diagram and for the first word in the following sentence (e.g. *Table 2. Distribution of responses*).
8. Footnotes should not be used. Reference in the text should be to author's name, year of publication and, wherever applicable, page or pages referred to (e.g. 'This is refuted by Smith (1978a: 33–5). However, several authors take a different view (Chan 1978:13; Green 1980)').
9. Notes which require explanation should be indicated by superscript numerals in the body of the article and should be grouped together in a section headed NOTES (in capitals) at the end of the text. The number and quantity of notes should be kept to a minimum.

10. References should be listed in alphabetical order in a section headed REFERENCES (in capital letters), immediately following the NOTES section.
11. In cases of joint authorship, the name of the main author should be placed first. Where each author has taken an equal share of the work, the names should be sequenced alphabetically. The fact that the names are in alphabetic order may, if so desired, be pointed out explicitly in a note.
12. Journal articles should be referenced in the following way:
    Oller, J. W. and Streiff, V. 1975. 'Dictation: A test of grammar-based expectancies,' *English Language Teaching Journal* 30(1):25–36.
13. Books and pamphlets should be referenced in the following way:
    Foss, B. (ed.) 1974. *New Perspectives in Child Development*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
14. Articles in books should be referenced in the following way:
    Kvan, E. 1969. 'Problems of bilingual milieu in Hong Kong: Strain of the two language system.' In *Hong Kong: A Society in Transition*, edited by T. C. Jarvie and J. Agassi, pp. 327–343. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

The articles in this Journal record the personal views of the contributors and should not be taken as expressing the official views of the Education Department, Hong Kong.

本學報各篇文章內容，僅代表作者個人見解，並不代表香港教育署的意見。

722

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ILEJ

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724

INSTITUTE OF LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION JOURNAL

Volume 7 1990

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語文教育學院學報

一九九〇年

第七期

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前言

本期中文論文共有七篇，次序原則上按作者的姓氏筆畫作先後排列。七篇論文的內容，可約略歸納為幾類。吳家珍的《行業詞語在語文運用中的擴展性》，主要是從行業詞語的擴用走向、詞義分析、修辭效果，來討論行業詞語在言語活動中的擴性；徐思益的《孔子的語用學思想》，則強調了語言使用在社會生活中的重要作用，並從「使用語言交際如何做到說話得體」的角度，探討孔子的語用學思想；這兩篇文章，都屬於語文運用的討論。李文生的《淺談古代漢語名詞動用問題》，本來是一篇談論古代漢語語法的文章，值得留意的是，作者舉名詞用如動詞為例，詳細介紹了詞類活用的情況，因此這也可說是一篇討論語文運用的文章。許嘉璐的《漢字形符的類化與識字教學》和李學銘的《談語法教學》，都屬於語文教學問題的探究。前者根據漢字特質，討論漢字形符的類化、發展和識字教學等問題；後者則嘗試為本港一向以來甚多爭論的語法教學，提供建議，並討論了「教甚麼語法」和「怎樣教語法」的問題。何國祥的《中、台、港常用漢字的比較與普通話常用字拼音表》，內容主要是中、台、港漢字頻率統計中首二千字的比較論述，同時也說明了《普通話常用拼音表建議稿》的編製原則；這篇文章，是一份研究報告結果的撮錄。陳德錦的《語文教材的改進——略談一篇作品的新舊版本問題》，內容是就《古代英雄的石像》這篇教材的新舊版本，比較兩者的高低優劣，並建議有關當局應落實改進語文教材的方針。編者希望上述各篇論文，能為讀者提供啟發的意見和參考的資料。

本期學報英文稿件共七篇，內容範圍相當廣泛，其中有論及文學在語文教學中的角色的，（特別關注有關詩歌教學問題），有討論採用學校為本位策略去改進英語輔導教學的，有比較兩種不同的作文評卷方法的，有論述詞語的學習與教學問題的。作者所探討的，都是課堂英語教學所產生的問題，而他們的取向，則各有不同。

FOREWORD

The English articles in this issue of the Institute's Journal deal with a variety of topics, including the role of Literature, with a particular focus on poetry in the ESL classroom, the implementation of school-based strategies to improve remedial English teaching, comparisons of two methods of marking composition scripts, vocabulary learning and teaching. In different ways, they all address issues of interest to those concerned with classroom practices in ESL.

Ray Mackay explains why he thinks the section on Language Arts in the Hong Kong Syllabus for English (Forms I–V) should be rewritten. He thinks that the syllabus statement is ill-conceived, the choice of materials inappropriate and the suggested presentation techniques unfortunate. The answer he contends is a re-written Language Arts section plus the incorporation of literature in examination and course books right from Form One so that poetry becomes as familiar as all other forms of language.

Peter Kennedy's search for more appropriate teaching materials which would be interesting, contain surprise, suspense, something fresh and unpredictable led him to seek his 'unwobbling pivot' in literature. He suggests that texts drawn from a variety of sources-songs, ballads, prose, poetry, drama—should form a central pillar in ELT.

Philip Chan laments the separation of language from literature, particularly as the examination syllabus is mainly used by teachers in preference to the teaching syllabus, to the detriment, he feels, of the English language curriculum, both emotionally and intellectually. As a result, he would like to see the course books and English examinations reorganised to include literature.

Michael Murphy illustrates the value of exploiting Asian poems written in English in the Literature class. He indicates that using Asian poems can make reading poems more accessible and enjoyable to students. In this way, students will be better prepared to read and respond to English poetry.

Ora Kwo considers some ways through which slow learners in English can be brought up to the general level within each school's ability range. She argues for the importance of special curriculum materials for slower learners. The identification of precise mechanisms for the implementation of school-based strategies to achieve these goals, she believes, must be undertaken within the context of individual schools.

By examining the ways in which second language vocabulary is stored and retrieved and the ways in which learners activate the volcabulary, ***Arthur McNeil*** examines the role of vocabulary learning in language teaching in a recent research he has carried out. The findings of the study points towards the need for improving the teaching of vocabulary which must include morphological variation and the pronunciation of words, in addition to the semantic and collocational aspects.

David Coniam discusses whether criterion referencing or norm referencing is a more reliable method of marking composition scripts. With its new Form 7 Use of English Examination, the Hong Kong Examinations Authority is about to move from criterion-referenced to norm-referenced marking. The author in this paper examines the reliability of both types of marking.

Reports and Summaries

In this issue, the section on Reports and Summaries has been expanded to provide former or present participants of ILE Refresher Courses with an opportunity to share with other teachers their experience in classroom practices. Given the new syllabus to teach, the challenging teaching situations in which so many teachers find themselves and the new techniques and hardware available, there must be a number of ESL teachers using innovative and skilful ways to carry out their teaching tasks. May I appeal to any teacher or group of teachers who are tackling their tasks in what seem to them a useful method to write these up and send them in for publication.

Report summaries of three classroom-based research projects, namely, 'T.V. Simulation', 'Radio News Magazine', and 'Resource Bank of Graded Conversation Activities' carried out by groups of English Secondary teachers, former participants of ILE Refresher Courses, are included in this section. In addition to reports of work carried out by practising teachers there are three other reports of a different nature.

May Lee outlines the progress of work in the ILE Swapshop in which a group of former participants on the ILE Refresher Course for secondary teachers of English prepare and produce ELT materials as part of their own 'programme' of curriculum development. The primary team describes the development of a 'FUST' (Follow-up Support Team) which initiates, plans and implements a follow-up support project for participants who have completed ILE Refresher Courses. ***Ng Fung-ping*** reports on a study which examines the changes of speech patterns of velar nasal /ŋ/) and the zero-initial in Hong Kong Cantonese of different age groups.

The Chinese section contains seven articles. ***Wu Jia Zhen***'s analyses the expansion of 'occupational language'. ***Xu Si Yi*** provides valuable suggestions for the use of the language in 'The Pragmatics in Confucius Thought.' ***Li Wen Sheng*** discusses the use of noun phrases as verb phrases in classical Chinese. ***Xu Jia Lu*** explores methods of the teaching of Chinese characters. ***Lee Hok Ming*** reviews the teaching of Syntax. ***Ho Kwok Cheung*** reports on a study of the comparison of the 2,000 most frequently used Chinese characters found in three frequency counts carried out in China, Taiwan and Hong Kong. ***Chan Tak Kam*** gives his views on a comparative study of the old and new editions of a Chinese text.

CONTENTS 目錄

		Page
吳家珍	行業詞語在語文運用中的擴展性	9
李文生	淺談古代漢語名詞動用問題	16
李學銘	談語法教學	53
何國祥	中・台・港常用漢字的比較與普通話常用字拼音表	62
徐思益	孔子的語用學思想	75
許嘉璐	漢字形符的類化與識字教學	80
陳德錦	語文教材的改進——略談一篇作品的新舊版本問題	87

ARTICLES

Ray Mackay	Barbarian and Immaculate *How (not) to promote poetry in English Language Classrooms*	93
Peter Kennedy	The Unwobbling Pivot? The Place of Literature in English Language Teacher Education in Hong Kong	99
Philip K. W. Chan	Towards Reinstating Literature Into the Language Curriculum	108
Michael Murphy	The Cultural Bridge (From Asian Poems to English Poems)	127
Ora W. Y. Kwo	Keeping Students in the Mainstream: School-Based Remedies for Slow Readers of English	134
Arthur McNeil	Vocabulary Learning and Teaching: Evidence From Lexical Errors in the Spontaneous Speech of ESL Learners	141
David Coniam	Essay Marking: A Comparison of Criterion-Referenced And Norm-Referenced Marking	154

Continued on page 8

REPORTS AND SUMMARIES 滙報

Project Report summaries by ILE English Secondary Refresher Course participants:

'Radio News Magazine' 167
'Resource Bank of Graded Conversation Activities' 173
'TV Simulation' 178

May M. T. Lee The Swap Shop: Progress of Work 183

Amy Lai A Summary Report of the FUST Pilot Project 167

Ng Fung-ping The Changes of Speech Patterns of Velar Nasal /ŋ/ and the Zero-initial in Hong Kong Cantonese of Different Age Groups 191

GENERAL INFORMATION 通訊

ILE Publications Available from the Government Publications Sales Centre 205

Information for Contributors 206

行業詞語在語文運用中的擴展性

吳家珍

行業詞語是指某一行業、專業內運用的詞語，如商業教育、交通、農業等行業內運用的詞語，科技領域內如物理、數學、化學等運用的專門術語，也包括在內。它屬於非全民詞滙。與基本詞滙相比，行業詞語運用的範圍要小一些。我們對行業詞語的研究不夠，它常居於冷僻之一隅，如在高等院校使用的不少《現代漢語》教材中，對其介紹簡略，有關的論文和專著也較少。隨着社會不斷向前發展，人們的文化水平得到提高，行業詞語的運用發生了令人矚目的變化。許多行業詞語已不只是在本行業內表示單一概念的詞語，它們常常突破"行業"的限制，借助語境的幫助，以多彩多姿的形式在交際領域內發揮作用。"擴用"現象不是今日始有，但當前數量劇增，行業詞語擴展運用的修辭趨勢鮮明突出，它已經深入到交流信息的各種場合中去，具有良好的修辭功能。不論是以語文教學，還是從現代漢語研究的角度來看，它都是一個不容忽視的課題。

一、

當前，行業詞語在文藝語體中的運用頻率較高。小說、戲劇、詩歌、報告文學、歌詞中，都經常看到行業詞語擴用的現象。例如：

1. 傅家杰躺在床邊，一手撐着自己的頭，望着她說："金屬也會疲勞。先產生疲勞顯微裂紋，然後逐步擴展，到一定程度就會斷裂……

諶容：《人到中年》（小說）

2. 我的性格，可能正和我這門學科一樣，就好比氫原子核發生聚變，那是很困難的；可是一旦發生了聚變，再讓它裂變、分離，甚至可以是做不到的。媽媽，這些年您和外婆不是總為我着急嗎？您應該相信我的選擇！

白峯溪《明月初照人》（劇本）

3. 如果說人類社會是一曲龐雜的嘈嘈切切的協奏，那劉忠篤是一個怪異的不和諧的音符。

李樹喜《銷不住的歌》（報告文學）

4. 當他們掄圓胳膊
　　　　掄圓力的弧綫
把一個彈性的工作
　　　　掄出風聲的時候
她，卻遠遠地
　　　　站在人群後面
　　　　開始欣賞他的傑作
　　　　——那聳立的鋼鐵之魂

黃默《女焊工》（詩歌）

5. 《哈雷彗星》（歌曲名稱）

例①引自小說，其中的“顯微裂紋”是行業詞語；例②引自劇本，“氫原子核”，“聚變”是行業詞語；例③引自報告文學作品，其中的“協奏”，“音符”是音樂界的詞語；例④引自詩歌，“弧綫”是行業詞語；例⑤引自歌曲的標題，“哈雷彗星”也是專業詞語。

行業詞語中的科技詞語更加值得重視。從語體來看，科技語體與文藝語體在言語風格上相差較大。科技語體的言語特征是精確性和簡明性；文藝語體則要求在形象性、生動性、變異性、音樂性、獨創性等方面，突現自己的特色①。可以說，這是兩種有着鮮明不同特點的言語風格。當科技詞語進入文藝語體時，反差很大，顯得格外醒目，從而使文藝作品的多樣性表現得異常鮮明清晰。

行業詞語“擴展運用”到文藝語體中，常見的形式是與文藝語體中的辭格融合使用，即與文藝語體中的辭格比喻、比擬、誇張、回環等巧妙融合。例如：

6. 他的建立在愛情“優選法”和“篩選法”的戀愛史，從來沒有超過半年的。

王英琦《愛之廋》

“優選法”、“篩選法”是應用數學中的專業用語，這裡用它巧妙設喻。

7. 生活是一個愛開玩笑的傢伙。它總是把必然摻雜上偶然，又把偶然聯結着必然。

十五年以後，我又爬上這座大山來了，是季節召喚我去的。那位鄰舍大姐早已嫁到遠方。

唐紀《草木情》

“偶然”、“必然”是哲學中常用的詞語，它們和辭格“回環”融合在一起，靈巧地反映了事物之間的辯証關係。

8. 他長得很醜。你們一定看過他的照片了。他實際長相跟他的照片差不多。我愛上了他，使我們整個系爆發了一場名符其實的地震。

李功達《對一個失蹤者的調查》

“地震”是行業詞語，將它與辭格誇張融合使用，生動地表現了“出人意料”、“強烈振撼”的內心感受。

總之，行業詞語向其他語體的“擴用”，突出地表現在滲入文藝語體中，這是當前值得我們注意的一種走向。

二、

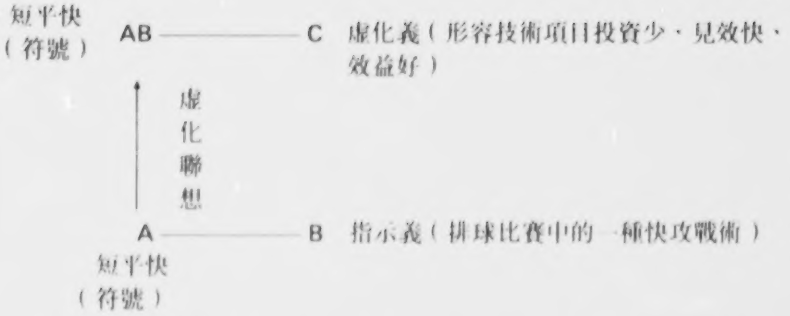
行業詞語（特別是其中的科技詞語）具有嚴格規定的意義，它們只有功能色彩，而無感情色彩，它的意義是單一的。但是，目前已有不少行業詞語由單義向多義發展，即原有的行業詞語在語境的幫助下產生新義，這使得漢語的表現力更加豐富、靈活、細膩。例如：

9. 重慶市通過改革原有的科技經費撥款制和實行新的貸款制，一些社會急需、經濟效益高的“短、平、快”項目很快搞上去，并且化為生產力。

文滙報　1986年3月29日

“短平快”是體育方面的行業詞語，指排球賽中的一種戰術，現在常常將它“擴用”到經濟之面，形容技術項目投資少，周期短，見效快，效益好的一些建設項目。例⑨中的“短平快”顯然是運用後面的意義，這是一種多義的現象。

這些行業詞語意義的擴用，經過了從指示義虛化義的“升華”過程。人們在言語交際中通過符號傳遞信息，應該注意的是：符號在傳遞信息的過程中，不是簡單地在一個平面上的擴展，而是在立體上產生不同層次的意義。即“根據不同情況，已經形成符號的整體還可以變成符號形式與一些新的符號內容對應，產生更高一級的意義作用。”②這種更高一級的意義為“虛化義”，③其原有意義為“指示義”。一般來說，指示義具體明確，虛化義則是在指示義基礎上的抽象與升華。相對說來，虛化義是比較空靈一些的。例如“短平快”原指排球的一種快攻戰術，這是指示義，現在則擴指形容一種高效、低耗、周轉快的經濟項目，這是用其虛化義。也就是說，從表意的層次來看，擴用的行業詞語的意義是在“指示義”的基礎上，進行又一層次的傳播，即利用“虛化義”傳送信息。下面用圖表示意：（以“短平快”為例）


短平快
（符號）
AB
C
虛化義（形容技術項目投資少、見效快、效益好）
虛化聯想
A
B
指示義（排球比賽中的一種快攻戰術）
短平快
（符號）

這種“虛化義”，不僅用於文藝語體，在其中語體中，例如應用語體的說明文字中，也有這樣的言語現象。請看下例：

《點面綫體讀書法》

“點”的讀書法是讀書的第一階段。首先根據學習的需要確定一個大致的攻讀方向，以此為前提，廣泛地閱讀有關的書。

“綫”的方法是讀書幾個階段中的重要一環，是在“點”的基礎上，尋求綫索，使知識條理化。

“面”的方法就是對某一門學科充分了解和把握大致脈絡的條件下，再學習與該學科有密切聯繫的鄰近學科的知識。

“體”的塑造是讀書的最終目的，就是將理論知識用於實踐。……概括起來，這種讀書方法就是堆積點，點串綫，綫織面，面組體。

摘自1988年第五期《知識文庫》

“點”、“面”、“綫”、“體”都是專門用語。在這篇說明文字中，顯然是在其指示義的基礎上，經過聯想升華，而取其“虛化義”巧妙地說明了讀書的方法，最後概括的十二字，言簡意賅，便於記憶。

上述的由“指示義——虛化義”的擴展，擴大了行業用語的交際功能，從而使它能進入其他語體。意義的擴展是語體運用範圍擴展的基礎。

行業詞語的虛化義十分靈活，它對語境有着極大的依賴性，常常“義隨境遷”。例如“老化”這一科技方面的專門詞語是指“橡膠，塑料等高分子化合物，在光、熱、空氣、機械力等的作用下，變得黏軟或硬脆。”這是其指示義。在不同的語境中，它的虛化義是有差異的。例如：

10. 目前，老齡人增多，存在着人口老化的問題。（報）顯然，例中的“老化”是采用了虛化義，是指老年人口的比例增長。

11. 老的知識不一定老化，新的知識不一定不老化。“磁石召鐵”已有千年歷史，卻并未老化，電子管計算機出現僅四十年，卻已淘汰，有關它的許多知識也就“老化”了。

《文滙報》 1984年1月4日

這裡的“老化”是指陳舊的意思。例⑩、例⑪都是運用“老化”的虛化義，但二者在不同的語言環境中，意義是有區別的。這說明“虛化義”之間存在着差異性。這種差別的存在為表達的多種需要提供了良好的條件。

三、

行業詞語之所以能夠由單義到多義，由限用到泛用，是因為這種發展走向符合當代言語交際的需求，具有模糊美、時代感、詼諧性的效果。

模糊美。

隨着模糊學的問世，人們已經從理論上認識到：“精確方法和模糊方法都可以做為科學的方法，在一定的範圍內，精確方法是更科學的方法，在另一範圍內，模糊方法是更科學的方法。”④模糊修辭便是模糊學在語言運用領域中的一種方法。模糊修辭着眼於言語活動規律，是人們有意選用語音、語法、詞滙方面模糊的言語形式，提高言語交際的效果。⑤在文藝語體中，有意選用行業詞語的虛化義，可以增加詞語的模糊度——需要人們在行業詞語指示義的基礎上去理解虛化義，這樣，就很容易存在着理解的距離、表意的空隙，需要讀者充分調動自己的知識，聯繫具體的言語環境去體會其中的內蘊，品味其中的情致，進行積極的思維活動。人們就在這種思維活動中，獲得一種模糊的美感。例如有一首小詩：《弧綫》

鳥兒在疾風中
迅速轉向

少年去檢拾
一枚分幣

葡萄因幻想
而延伸的觸絲

海浪因退縮
而聳起的背脊

（顧城《詩刊》1980年第10期）

“弧綫”的指示義是指“任何凸閉合曲綫的任意一段”，這裡取其虛化義，借助聯想而成詩。這四句詩呈現四幅具體形象的畫面：描畫的事物中，有飛翔的鳥兒，有涉世不深的少年，有葡萄綠色的觸絲，有聳起的海浪。不論是動物或是植物，亦或是萬物之靈中的“人”，它們生活中的“瞬間”，都呈現弧綫的運動。“弧綫”給我們以生活中哲理性的啟示，它是失敗者的退卻，冷靜後的思考，也是成功的先兆，前進中的儲備。總之，我們可以以不同的角度，聯繫生活中的種種感受，體味詩題《弧綫》的深藏內蘊與豐富涵意。其中較大的語意彈性空間，將會給人們帶來一種模糊的美感。這是一種動態模糊的言語現象。世上矛盾事物的雙方無不在一定的條件下向其相反的方向轉化。語意的動態模糊，也是一種轉化，是精確與模糊這一對矛盾的雙方在一定條件下的轉化——一些原來含義明確的行業詞語在一定的言語環境中可以表達的模糊的意義，《弧綫》一例便是如此。

總之，一些本來詞義明確的行業詞語向模糊轉化，這樣可以人為地製造出千千萬萬種模糊信息，“這些模糊信息常常使普普通通的文字展現出朦朧的神韻和絢麗的色彩。”⑥

時代感。

選用能夠反影當代各行各業水平的行業詞語（包括科技詞語），可以使言語表達具有鮮明的時代感，吻合人們要求新、求變的心理狀態。在言詞交際中，交際相方的心理活動是至關重要的。接受者總是樂於接受具有新鮮感的信息，聆聽時代的最強音。不少作家十分注意這一點。例如王戈，在他的小說《樹上的鳥兒》中，選用行業詞語設喻，使人感到不同凡響，新穎別致。

“象這樣甜蜜的、充滿詩意的旅行，在他廿六歲的生命旅途中，只體驗過一回，而且象流星一樣稍縱即逝，象UFO一樣難以捉模。”

‘UFO’指的是當代人們十分關心的“飛碟”，至今人們對它了解不多，用它作為喻體，給文字帶來具有時代特徵的神秘色彩。

詼諧感。

“雜混”是使言語表達詼諧、幽默的一種手段。它“就是風馬牛不相及的概念的不和諧并列，由於違反語詞組合的形式邏輯而顯得不倫不類。”⑦把專業性很強的行業詞語與風格完全不同的通俗的日常用語雜混在一起，可以使表達具有詼諧幽默的風格。例如：

乙：現在是原子時代，人類都飛上天空去了，到宇宙空間去了。人家研究原子、核子、電子、離子……

甲：這我懂，原子、電子、餃子、包子……

乙：包子？

候寶林：《陰陽五行》

“原子”、“電子”是行業詞語，當他們與“包子”、“餃子”這些日常用語雜混運用時，形成了異於常規的組合，不倫不類的并列，因而產生幽默的情致，詼諧的格調。

綜上所述，從行業詞語的擴用走向、詞義分析、修辭效果來看，當前，行業詞語在言語活動中的擴展性是十分鮮明的，它顯示了變化和創新的特點，豐富了漢語的表達形式。

註釋：

① 參閱鄭頤壽、林承璋主編的《新編修辭學》327頁。
鷺江出版社　1987年版。
② 引自日本池上嘉彥《符號學入門》第83頁。
國際文化公司出版　1988年版。
③ 池上嘉彥先生概括為指示義，內涵義。在高等院校《現代漢語》的教材中，有本義、轉義的提法。我以為“虛化義”能夠更加細致地概括行業詞語多義之間的關係。
④ 引自苗東升《模糊學導引》　中國人民大學出版社　1987年版第9頁。
⑤ 見拙作《試論漢語模糊修辭》　人民大學報刊複印資料《語言文字學》　1988年第12期第131頁。
⑥ 見陳紱《捕捉和揭示語言中的模糊信息》　《百科知識》　1988年第9期第25-27頁。
⑦ 引自胡范鑄《幽默語言學》　上海社會科學院出版社　1987年出版第174頁。

淺談古代漢語名詞動用問題

李文生

詞有定類，是漢語的一個顯著特點[1]。就是說，某個詞屬於哪種詞類，各類詞在句子中的語法作用，都是比較固定的。但在具體語言中，有些詞可以按照一定的語言習慣而靈活運用，如名詞、代詞、形容詞可以用如動詞，動詞、形容詞可以用如名詞，名詞、動詞可以用作狀語，以及使動用法、意動用法等等。許多語言學家對詞類活用問題早已作過充分的論述。本文僅就名詞用如動詞問題，談一點個人學習的心得。文中與他人論述相同之處，非敢剽人成果，只是表示贊同他人觀點，並進而發揮之；至於他人未曾論及或論述有欠充分、以及本人不敢苟同之處，則不揣冒昧，狗尾續貂，擬將自己的淺見作為引玉之磚，以期得到專家和讀者的教正。

一、 名詞動用的意義

名詞經常在句子中充當主語、賓語和定語，現代漢語是這樣，古代漢語也是如此。但在具體的語言當中，我們有時可以聽到或看到這樣的句子：

我算鐵了心了。
小心別電着！
你也太官僚了。
瞧他牛起來了。

這幾個句子中的"鐵"、"電"、"官僚"、"牛"，本來來都是名詞，可是它們在句子中卻臨時替代了動詞的職務，充當了謂語。這種情況，在現代漢語中畢竟是罕見的，可是在古代漢語中卻俯拾即是，極為普遍。這種名詞在具體語言中，按照一定的語言習慣靈活地用作動詞的語法現象，前人稱為"靜字用為動字""實字虛用""死字活用"、"名字假借為動字"等。當代學者一般通稱為"名詞用如動詞"或"名詞活用為動詞"，簡稱"名詞動用"。

一個名詞活用為動詞，不僅詞性發生了變化，詞義也隨之發生變化，由表示一種事物的名稱，變為表示一種動作或行為。這種變化有兩個特點：第一是名詞動用後所表示的動作或行為，與原來名詞所表示的人或事物有密切的關係。就是說新產生詞義與原來名詞的詞義仍有某些相通之處。如前面幾個例句中，"鐵了心"的"鐵"，是"下定"決心的意思。因為鐵是一種很堅硬而又極為普通的金屬，因此把代表這種物質的名詞活

用為動詞，表示使決心和意志像鐵那樣堅定，不可動搖。“別電着”的“電”，動用後變為“觸電”、“被電擊打”的意思，動詞的意義包含着原來名詞的意義。“太官僚了”，“官僚”變成了“不講民主”，“脫離群眾”的意思，因為“官僚”一詞的原義是“封建社會的官吏”而封建官吏的普遍特點就是高高在上，官僚主義。至於“牛起來”的“牛”，具有行為或態度固執、傲慢的意思，這似乎與表示一種動物名稱的“牛”關係不大。但我們一聯想起牛在耍脾氣、不馴服時那種掙拿不可駕馭的情態，就不難理解活用後的意義與原來詞義的關係了。

第二個特點是名詞動用後產生的新義，不能獨立存在，不能成為這個詞通常使用的意義，它只有在具體的語言中，即一定的上下文中才能體現出來。離開了上下文，“鐵”就只是一種金屬的名稱，“電”是一種物理現象的名稱，“官僚”是封建衙門辦事人員的名稱，“牛”是一種動物的名稱，根本不存在什麼“下定決心”之類的意思。清代袁仁林在《虛字說》中指出：“究竟耳目只耳目，視聽只視聽，造字之始，自是體用各出而不相假，迨涉筆之用，而始得其虛活處，然亦必藉上下文乃可照出，不能單行見意。此可知造時未嘗先寓意如此，不過用之者因其自然之理而通其一時之意耳。”這就是說，名詞也好，動詞也好，都有各自不同的固定的詞性和用法，而不互相假借，只是行文之中，偶然將名詞用如動詞，而動用後的詞性和詞義，只能在上下文體現出來，不能“單行見意”。

正因為活用後的詞義，受上下文的支配和影響。因此，同一個名詞，在不同的上下文裏被用作動詞，其意義也會有所不同。例如（為了便於分析和理解，把引用的文言句子都譯成現代漢語）：

(1)　晉侯圍曹，門焉。（《左傳》僖公二十八年）

（晉文公帶兵圍攻曹國，攻打曹國的城門。）

(2)　將納公子瑕，門于桔柣之門。（《左傳》僖公三十三年）

（楚國要把公子瑕送回鄭國去做國君，在鄭都遠郊的桔柣門攻城。）

(3)　勇士入其大門，則無人門焉者。（《公羊傳》宣公六年）

（勇士〔刺客〕進入趙盾家的大門，卻沒有人守衛大門。）

(4)　一人門于句冥鼆，一人門于戾丘，皆死。（《左傳》文公十五年）

（一個人在句冥鼆守門，一個人在戾丘守門，都戰死了。）很明顯，名詞“門”用如動詞後，都與其原義密切相關。但在①②句中是“攻門”的意思，在③④句中卻是“守門”的意思。

(5)　恃其讒慝詐偽，而不德于民。（《左傳》襄公四年）

（寒浞仗恃他的奸邪狡詐而不對百姓施恩德。）

(6) 然則德我乎？（《左傳》成公三年）

（既然如此，那麼你感激我嗎？）

名詞"德"用如動詞後，仍與"恩德"的意思有密切關係，不過⑤句中是"施恩德"的意思，⑥句中卻是"感恩德"的意思。這種情況，更加有力証明了名詞動用對上下文的依賴關係，只有在上下文中才能明確體現出它的意思。

由此可見，名詞動用只是行文時出於修辭或其他語言表達目的的需要，根據一定的語言習慣，臨時假借罷了。因此我們不能把活用為動詞的名詞，看作同時具有兩種詞性的兼類詞。

我們以"相"字為例，來說明詞類活用與兼類詞等的區別。"相"(xiàng)在古代漢語中是個動詞，它的一個通常的意思是"輔佐"、"扶助"：

(7) 今天相民。（《尚書·呂刑》）

（如今上天扶助老百姓。）

(8) 固相師之道也。（《論語·衛靈公》）

（這當然是幫助［引導］盲人樂師的辦法。）

(9) 管仲相桓公，霸諸侯，一匡天下。（《論語·憲問》）

（管仲輔佐齊桓公，稱霸諸侯，使天下一切得到匡正。）

(10) 今由與求也相夫子。（《論語·季氏》）

（如今仲由和冉求你們兩人輔助季孫氏。）

這四句話中的"相"，都是及物動詞，意義也完全相同，雖然它的賓語可以是普遍百姓、盲人樂師，也可以是君主、大夫之類。

"相"同時又是個名詞，表示擔任輔助任務的人，輔助別人的人：

(11) 危而不持，顛而不扶，則將焉用彼相矣？（《論語·季氏》）

（盲人站不穩也不把住他，要跌倒也不攙扶他，那麼還哪裏用得着那個助手呢？）

(12) 人主無賢，如瞽無相，何倀倀！（《荀子·成相》）

（人主若沒有賢臣輔佐，就像瞎子沒有攙扶的人一樣，多麼迷茫昏暗啊！）

(13) 宗廟之事，如會同，端章甫，願為小相焉。（《論語·先進》）

（諸侯祭祀祖先，或者會盟朝覲，我願意穿上禮服，戴上禮帽，做一個小小的贊禮者。）

(14) 孟嘗君為相數十年，無纖介之禍者，馮諼之計也。（《戰國策·齊策》）

（孟嘗君做了幾十年宰相，沒遇到一點點災禍，這都是靠馮諼的計謀啊。）

(15) 王侯將相寧有種乎？

（《史記．陳涉世家》）

（那些王爵、侯爵、大將、宰相難道是天生有種的嗎？）

這五句話中的"相"都是名詞。它們所代表的，都是佐助別人的人。擔負某種輔助的職務，是"相"這種人的共性。由於輔佐對象的不同，他們又有一些具體的差別：例(11)(12)中，指扶助，即幫助瞎子走路的人；例(13)中，指贊禮者，即會盟、祭祀時主持典禮和司儀的人；例(14)(15)中，則專指輔佐君王的人，即所謂國相、丞相、宰相，是古代的百官之長。

這兩組例句中的"相"，詞性雖不同，但詞義是有聯繫的。名詞"相"的意義是從動詞"相"的意義引申出來的。這兩種意義，在古代漢語中都可以獨立地自由運用，而且都是使用頻率很高的常用意義。在這種情況下，我們就可以從詞滙學的角度說"相"是個多義詞，既當"輔助"講，又當"起輔助作用的人"講，也可以從語法學的角度說它是個兼類詞[2]，既是動詞，又是名詞。

再看下面的例句：

(16) 相鼠有皮，人而無儀。

（《詩．鄘風．相鼠》）

（瞧那老鼠還有一張皮呢，做人卻不講儀表！）

(17) 曾從子，善相劍者也。

（《韓非子．說林上》）

（曾從子是個擅長鑒別劍的人）

(18) 伯樂教二人相踶馬。

（《韓非子．說林下》）

（伯樂教給兩個人識別會踢足的馬。）

(19) 楚人和氏得玉璞楚山中，奉而獻之厲王，厲王使玉人相之。

（《韓非子．和氏》）

（楚國人卞和在楚山中得到一塊玉璞，雙手捧着獻給了楚厲王，楚厲王派玉匠審視這塊玉璞。）

這四句話中的"相"也都是動詞，都是"仔細看"、"觀察"的意思。這是"相"的本義。《說文》："相，省視也，從目從木。"甲骨文作 很明顯，這是一個會意字，畫一只眼睛（目）在仔細觀察一棵大樹（木）。這種仔細觀察的動作就叫"相"。我們看，"相"字的前兩個常用意義（輔助、輔助的人），和它的本義（看）沒有什麼直接關係，或者說意思相去甚遠，已看不出二者的聯繫了，只能看作是該字的假借意義。我們不把這種形、音相同意義不相干的詞看作多義詞，更不能把它們當中詞性不同的詞看作兼類詞，而只能把它們視為同音詞。

至於像“不及黃泉，無相見也”（《左傳·隱公元年》），“慭慭然莫相知”（柳宗元：《三戒·黔之驢》）中的“相”（xiāng平聲），表示“互相”或“一方對另一方有所動作”。與前面各例中的“相”（xiàng去聲），只是字形相同，而音和義都不相同，這就更當別論了。

古代漢語中，還有許多像下面這樣使用“相”字的句子：

(20) 嚴遂相，而韓傀貴于君。

（《韓非子·說林上》）

（嚴遂做了宰相，而韓傀在國君跟前受寵。）

(21) 是時范睢亡魏相秦。

（《史記·魏公子列傳》）

（這個時候，范睢從魏國逃到秦國做了宰相。）

(22) 秦相張君，公知之乎？

（《史記·范睢蔡澤列傳》）

（秦國任用張君為宰相，您知道這件事嗎？——范睢逃到秦國化名張祿，故稱張君。）

(23) 張譴死，因相公乘無正。

（《韓非子·說林上》）

（韓國宰相張譴死了，於是讓公乘無正當了宰相。）

這幾例中的“相”，都是動詞。從意義上看，與“相”字的本義（仔細看）沒有關係。與作“輔助”解的“相”比較，意義和用法也都相差較遠。作“輔助”解的“相”，是及物動詞，必須帶受事賓語。而這幾例中的“相”是不及物動詞，一般不能帶賓語，例如⑳㉑[3]；例㉒㉓中，“相”字雖然帶了賓語，但賓語不是受事，而是施事，與及物動詞帶賓語意思正好相反。例(9)中“管仲相桓公”，意思是“管仲輔佐齊桓公”，賓語是動詞支配的對象。而例㉒中“秦相張君”，不是“秦國輔佐張祿”，而是讓張祿當宰相來輔佐秦君；同樣，例㉓中“相公乘無正”也不是“輔佐公乘無正”，而是讓他任宰相來輔佐韓君。兩句中的賓語不受謂語動詞的支配，而是動詞行為的主動者。

由此可見，這幾例中的“相”字，與當“輔助”講的動詞“相”的一般用法無關，卻與當“宰相”講的名詞“相”關係密切。它們是把“宰相”的“相”臨時假借來做動詞使用，產生了“當宰相”、“做宰相”、“成為宰相”的新義，如例⑳㉑；又進一步作使動用法（詳下文）產生了“讓某人做宰相”，“使某人成為宰相”的意義，如例㉒、㉓。這種臨時活用的意義是不確定的，只有在上下文中才能看出來；離開上下文，隨即消失。因此，在一般字書、辭典裏往往是查不到的。例如《辭海》對“相”字列十八條義項，《辭源》列十五條義項，都沒有收這種用如動詞後所產

生的新義。可見，名詞用如動詞——其他詞類活用也是一樣——並不產生新詞。用如動詞者，非動詞也，不過是名詞臨時代職罷了。只有這種臨時把名詞借來做動詞使用，才是我們所謂的名詞用如動詞。這種活用雖然只有一種臨時假借，但它卻是古代漢語主要語法特點之一，並且具有很重要的實踐意義，不搞清這一點，就難真正讀懂文言文，因此值得我們特別注意。

二、 名詞動用的鑑別方法

名詞用如動詞，既然是在具體語言中的臨時活用，是由上下文決定的，那麼，要判斷一個名詞是否用如動詞，也須要從上下文的意思來考慮。正如袁仁林所說，“實字虛用、死字活用”，“必亦由上下文知之，若單字獨出，則無從見矣”（《虛字說》）。一個名詞，如果按原來的詞性、詞義在上下文裏解釋不通，就要考慮它是否活用了。

我們還以“相”字為例。《史記・魏世家》中有這樣一段文字：

> 九年，與秦王會臨晉。張儀、魏章皆歸于魏。魏相田需死，楚害張儀、犀首、薛公。楚相昭魚謂蘇代曰：“田需死，吾恐張儀、犀首、薛公有一人相魏者也。”代曰：“然相者欲誰而君便之？”昭魚曰：“吾欲太子之自相也。”代曰：“請為君北，必相之。”昭魚曰：“奈何？”對曰：“君其為梁王，代請說君。”昭魚曰：“奈何？”對曰：“代也從楚來，昭魚甚憂，曰：‘田需死，吾恐張儀、犀首、薛公有一人相魏者也。’代曰：‘梁王，長主也，必不相張儀。張儀相，必右秦而左魏。犀首相，必右韓而左魏。薛公相，必右齊而左魏。梁王，長主也，必不便也。’王曰：‘然則寡人孰相？’代曰：‘莫若太子之自相。太子之自相，是三人者皆以太子為非常相也，皆將務以其國事魏，欲得丞相璽也。以魏之強，而三萬乘之國輔之，魏必安矣。故曰莫若太子自相也。’”遂北見梁王，以此告之，太子果相魏。

文中共用了18個相字。其中只有4個相字（字下面“・”的，包括一個雙音節詞“丞相”）是“丞相”、“宰相”的意思，是名詞。其餘14個字，用名詞的意思去理解，不但在上下文裏解釋不通，而且根本就不成其為語言。因為這14個相字都用如動詞。有11個（字下面“△”的用如一般動詞，是“做丞相”的意思；還有3個（字下面“。”的）是使動用法，是“讓某人做丞相”的意思。

對於具備一定閱讀古文能力的人，在閱讀過程中完全能夠從上下文的意思裏很自然地識別它們的詞性、用法和意義，從而通暢地理解全文，不會產生歧意。然而對於初學者，尤其是學習古代漢語的外國人，由於對文言接觸得不多，閱讀水平有限，他們對於所謂“上下文”就不一定讀得懂，又怎麼能根據上下文來鑑別某個詞是否活用為另一類詞以及活用後的意思呢？反之，正因為他們無從鑑別活用的詞，還按照原來的詞性和詞義去理解，就會百思而不得其解，也就更加讀不懂上下文，無法理解全篇文意。他們只好依賴書上的注釋和教師的講解。可是單憑注釋和講解，則往往注一句會一句，講一篇懂一篇，在其他文章中再遇到類似的詞類活用現象，仍然難以理解。因此，能否從形式上入手，找出一些名詞用如動詞的規律，以這些規律作為辨識名詞動用的條件，幫助讀者掃除這一語法障礙，使他們一眼即能看出哪個名詞用如動詞，從而提高讀懂文言的能力，這無疑是很重要的。

語法學告訴我們，各類詞都有自己的語法特徵。在具體的語言中，每個詞都按照自己所屬的那類詞的語法性質，與其他詞語構成一定的語法關係，在句子充當一定的語法成分。詞在語法上的性質和功能，正是劃分詞類的標準和依據。一個名詞如果活用為動詞，它就喪失了名詞的語法特徵，而且備了動詞的語法特徵。就是說，它在具體語言中，是按照動詞的性能而被使用，去與其他詞語結合的。因此，當我們從上下文的意思中還不能斷定某個名詞是否用如動詞時，就要看這個詞在句子中的位置，它前後都有哪種詞類的詞與它結合；構成了什麼樣的語法關係。通過這樣從語法上考察和分析，如果發現某個名詞在某句話中失去了名詞的語法特徵而具備了動詞的語法特徵。那就可以斷定該名詞用如動詞了。於是我們可以把名詞在句子中是否獲得了動詞的語法特徵，作為辨識名詞是否動用的條件。這些條件，大致可以歸納如下：

1. 代詞前面的名詞，用如動詞。因為代詞不受名詞的修飾。

先看“之”字的例子：

(24) 從左右，皆肘之，使立於後。

（《左傳·成公二年》）

（〔綦毋張〕無論站在左邊或右邊，〔韓厥〕都用胳膊肘制止他，讓他站到後邊。——“肘”在代詞“之前”用如動詞。意思是“用肘觸撞”以表示制止。）

(25) 龐涓果夜至斫木下，見白書，乃鑽火燭之。）

（《史記·孫子吳起列傳》）

（龐涓果然夜裏來到砍削的大樹下，看見白色樹瓤上的字蹟，就點火照着樹上的字。——“燭”，是古代照明的火炬，動用為“照”的意思。）

(26) 驢不勝怒，蹄之。

（柳宗元：《三戒・黔之驢》）

（驢遏止不住自己的憤怒，抬起蹄子踢老虎。——蹄，用如動詞，是“用蹄子踢”的意思。）

(27) 其謂之秦何？夷狄之也。

（《公羊傳・僖公三十三年》）

（《春秋經》上稱“敗秦”是什麼意思呢？是把秦貶為夷狄啊。——“夷狄”是古代對邊遠地區少數民族的稱呼，用如動詞有“把……看成夷狄”的意思。）

(28) 弗得，鞭之見血。

（《左傳・莊公八年》）

（徒人費沒找到鞋，齊襄公就用鞭子打得他脊背見血。——“鞭”，是古代的刑具，用如動詞是“用鞭子打”的意思。）

(29) 吾非悲刖也，悲夫寶玉而題之以石貞士而名之以誑。

（《韓非子・和氏》）

（我不是傷心自己被砍掉了腳。傷心的是寶玉被叫做石頭，忠貞的人被稱為騙子。——“題”、“名”用如動詞，是“命名”的意思。）

(30) 吾不知其名，字之曰道，強名之曰大。

（《老子》第二十五章）

（我不知道它的名稱，給它取個名字叫“道”，勉強給它起個稱呼叫“大”。——“字”、“名”用如動詞，也是“命名”的意思。）

“之”是第三人稱代詞。相當於現代漢語的“他”“它”等，既可以代人，也可以代事物，單數複數形式相同。它的特點是不能做主語和定語[4]只能作賓語（包括作“兼語”）。根據漢語語法詞序的一般規律，賓語前面的詞語有兩種可能：一是作定語修飾賓語。一是作謂語支配賓語。而名詞又不能修飾代詞，因此代詞賓語前面的名詞絕不會是定語，那麼這個名詞就只能用如動詞作謂語了。

這裏還要注意把人稱代詞“之”同動詞“之”和結構助詞“之”區別開來：

(31) 孟子之滕。

（《孟子・盡心下》）

（孟子到滕國去。）

(32) 遠方之人，聞君行仁政。

（《孟子·滕文公上》）

（我這個從遠方來的人，聽說大王施行仁德的政治。）

(33) 歲寒然後知松柏之後凋也。

（《論語·子罕》）

（天冷了以後才知道松樹柏樹是最後凋落的。）

(34) 吾盾之堅，物莫能陷也。

（《韓非子·難一》）

（我的盾牌很堅硬，任何東西沒有能刺穿它的。）

這幾例中"之"字前面的名詞都不用如動詞。因為句中的"之"字都不是代詞。㉛中的"之"字是動詞，相當於現代漢語的"去"、"到……去"，它前面的名詞是主語，它後面必須有一個處所名詞作賓語。㉜中的"之"字是結合定語和中心語的助詞。相當於現代漢語的"的"，它後面一定有一個名詞或名詞性詞組。㉝㉞中的"之"字是用在主語、謂語之間，把句子變成名詞性偏正詞組的助詞，它後面必須得有一個動詞或形容詞。而作賓語的人稱代詞，一般都處於句末煞尾。如㉔、㉕、㉖，有時"之"字後面還可用一個語氣詞煞尾。如㉗，有時後面有補語或者後置的狀語。如㉘、㉙。㉚中"之"字後面有動詞"曰"，是因為"之"充當了兼語。可見，只有代詞"之"前面的名詞才用如動詞，不能不加分析地把所有"之"字前面的名詞一律看作用如動詞。當然，這些區別說起很複雜，但在實際語言中並不難辨別。

再看"其"字的例子：

(35) 各親其親，子其子。

（《禮記·禮運》）

（人們各自孝敬自己的父母，疼愛自己的子女。——代詞"其"前的"親"和"子"用如動詞，是"以……為親"，"以……為子"的意思。）

(36) 布囊其口。

（柳宗元：《童區寄傳》）

（用布堵住他的嘴。——"囊"是口袋，用如動詞是"塞進"、"堵住"的意思。）

(37) 事其大夫之賢者，友其士之仁者。

（《論語·衛靈公》）

（事奉那些賢德的大夫，結交那些仁義之士。——"事"，動用後是"事奉"、"侍候"、"為……服務"的意思。"友"，動用後是"以……朋友"、"結交"的意思。）

(38)　乃使其從者衣褐，懷其璧，從徑道亡。

（《史記·廉頗藺相如列傳》）

（就派他的隨從人員穿着老百姓的衣服，揣着那塊和氏璧，操小路逃跑了。——“懷”，動用後是“藏在懷裏”的意思。）

“其”是表示領屬關係的第三人稱代詞，相當於現代漢語的“他（們）的”等（如“其口”、“其親”、“其子”）。“其”又是指示代詞，相當於現代漢語的“這個”、“那個”、“這些”、“那些”（如“其大夫”、“其士”、“其璧”）。“其”的特點是只能作定語。定語代詞（不僅限於“其”字）和它限制的中心語構成的偏正結構，還可以再作定語去限制另外的名詞，如“意其鄰人之子”（《列子·說符》）、“孔子，吾師之弟子也”（韓愈：《原道》）、“爾其無忘乃父之志”（《五代史·伶官傳序》），但是不能再受名詞或其他詞語的限制或修飾。這就是說，一個偏正結構的定語成分裏，如果有代詞的話，它一定處在最前面。因此，定語代詞前面的名詞也絕不可能是定語，那麼這個名詞就用謂語動詞了，而以代詞所限制的中心語作它的賓語。

這裏還要注意把代詞“其”與句中語氣詞“其”區別開來。語氣詞“其”在句子中間表示某種委婉語氣時，也往往處於名詞後面，如：

(39)　齊師其遁。

（《左傳·襄公十八年》）

（齊軍大概已逃走了。）

(40)　君其問諸水濱。

（《左傳·僖公四年》）

（您還是到水邊去問問這件事吧！）

(41)　齊國其庶幾乎？

（《孟子·梁惠王上》）

（齊國恐怕治理得差不多了吧！）

從這幾例中可以看出，語氣詞“其”前的名詞是句子的主語，不能活用；語氣詞後面則是動詞或形容詞作謂語。而代詞“其”後面則一定得是名詞或名詞性詞組。由於句中語氣詞“其”具有副詞的性質，因此它後面的名詞反倒用如動詞（參見下文）。如：

(42)　君其禮焉。

（《左傳·僖公二十三年》）

（國君還是以禮接待晉公子［重耳］吧。）

(43) 微禹，吾其魚乎！

（《左傳·昭公元年》）

（假如沒有大禹的話，我們恐怕要變成魚了吧［喻被洪水淹沒］？）

至於第一人稱、第二人稱的代詞，不僅可以作主語、定語，除個別者外，一般也可作賓語[5]；指示代詞則主要是作定語，有些（如"是"、"此"等）也可作主語和賓語。它們也和"之"、"其"一樣不受名詞修飾，它們前面的名詞也都用如動詞。如：

(44) 宋百牢我，魯不可後宋。

（《左傳·哀公七年》）

（宋國用百牢犒勞我，魯國不能比宋國差。"百牢"原義為牛、羊、豬各百頭，用為"用百牢享人"的意思。）

(45) 竊竊焉欲俎豆予于賢人之間。

（《莊子·庚桑楚》）

（私下議論要把我列於聖賢當中來崇拜我。——"俎豆"，古代祭祀的禮器，用如動詞有"祭祀"、"崇奉"之意。）

(46) 名余曰正則兮，字余曰靈均。

（《楚辭·離騷》）

（給我起個名字叫正則，給我取個表字叫靈均。——"名"、"字"用如動詞，是"命名"、"取名"的意思。）

(47) 吾將尸爾焉。

（《公羊傳·僖公三十三年》）

（我將在那裏收你的尸體。——"尸"用如動詞後是"收尸"的意思。）

(48) 叟不遠千里而來，亦將有以利吾國乎？

（《孟子·梁惠王上》）

（老人家不遠千里來到這裏，必將有什麼辦法拿來使我們國家獲得好處吧？——"利"動用後是"獲利"、"有利於"的意思。）

(49) 步余馬兮山皋，邸余車兮方林。

（《楚辭·九章·涉江》）

（讓我的馬在山坡下的河邊上慢慢散步，把我的車停留在方林。——"邸"原義是"客舍"、"旅館"，動用後有"止宿"、"停留"的意思。）

(50)　食夫稻，衣夫錦。于汝安乎？

（《論語·陽貨》）

（守孝期間吃着那白米飯，穿着那錦緞衣服，對於你能心安理得嗎？——“衣”動用後是“穿”的意思。）

另外，“諸”字是“之於”者“之乎”的合音字，故“諸”字前面的名詞也用如動詞：

(51)　而邑諸綸。

（《左傳·哀公元年》）

（而且把綸邑封給了他〔少康〕。——“諸”等於“之於”。
前面的名詞“邑”用如動詞，是“封給人城邑”的意思。）

(52)　有楚大夫於此，欲其子之齊語也。則使齊人傅諸，使楚人傅諸？

（《孟子·滕文公下》）

（假如有個楚國的大夫在這兒，要讓他的兒子學說齊國話，那麼讓齊國人教他呢，還是讓楚國人教他呢？——“諸”等於“之乎”。前面的名詞“傅”是“老師”、“師傅”的意思，用如動詞變成“教”、“教導”的意思。）

2.　副詞後面的名詞，用如動詞。因為名詞不受副詞的修飾。

(53)　請皆卒，自我始。

（《左傳·昭公元年》）

（請全部把戰卒編制改為步兵隊伍，就從我這開始。——“卒”原義是步兵，古代軍隊一百人為“卒”，動用後的意思為“使用步兵”〔不用戰車〕、“按步兵編制”。）

(54)　有君子白皙鬒鬚眉，甚口。

（《左傳·昭公二十六年》）

（有個君子白淨面皮，鬍鬚眉毛又黑又密，非常能罵人。——“口”動用後是“有口才”、“善罵”的意思。）

(55)　公將鼓之。

（《左傳·莊公十年》）

（魯莊公將要擊鼓進軍。——“鼓”動用後是“擊鼓”的意思，這是古代戰爭中的進軍號令。）

(56)　用訖再火令藥鎔，以手拂之。其印自落。

（《夢溪筆談》卷十八）

（用完後再用火烤使藥熔化，用手一彈，那些活字就自動落下。——“火”用為“燒”、“烤”的意思。）

(57) 范增數目項王。

（《史記·項羽本紀》）

（范增多次給項羽遞眼神。——“目”用為“遞眼神”、“用眼睛示意”的意思。）

(58) 公子遂將。

（《史記·魏公子列傳》）

（信陵君於是擔任了魏國的上將軍。——“將”，用為“就任將軍”、“做將軍”的意思。）

(59) 晉靈公不君，厚斂以雕牆。

（《左傳·宣公二年》）

（晉靈公不行國君之道，加重賦稅搜刮民財來雕飾牆壁。——“君”用為“行君道”的意思。）

(60) 微二子者，楚不國矣。

（《左傳·哀公十六年》）

（如果沒有子西、子期二人，楚國就不成為國家了。——“國”用為“成為國”、“像個國”的意思。）

(61) 小信未孚，神弗福也。

（《左傳·莊公十年》）

（這一點小小的信義行為，還不能使神相信，神是不會保祐你的。——“福”用為“賜福”、“保佑”的意思。）

(62) 毋友不如己者。

（《論語·子罕》）

（不要和不如自己的人去交朋友。——“友”用為“交朋友”、“結交”的意思。）

(63) 王無（毋）罪歲，斯天下之民至焉。

（《孟子·梁惠王上》）

（大王別怪罪年成不好，這樣天下的百姓就會往您這裏來了。——“罪”，用為“歸罪”、“怪罪”、“責怪”的意思。）

前六例是一般副詞後面的名詞用如動詞；後六例是否定副詞後面的名詞用如動詞。副詞只能修飾、限制動詞和形容詞，而不能修飾、限制名詞。名詞可受形容詞、代詞、數量詞和名詞的修飾、限制。而不接受副詞的修飾、限制。名詞自身可以做定語。這一點與形容詞的作用相似，因此名詞一般不需用作形容詞。那麼，副詞後面的名詞，就當然用如動詞了。也有人把程度副詞後面的名詞。說成是用如形容詞，因為程度副詞主要是

修飾形容詞的。如“甚口”，“口”用在程度副詞後面，也可看作形容詞，是“口才好”的意思。但翻成現代漢語時，須把“口才”放在主語位置上，譯成“口才很好”，倒不如譯成“很有口辯”、“很是能説會道”更直接。為了簡化詞類活用的分項，可以歸入名詞動用之內。

3. 助動詞後面的名詞，用如動詞。因為助動詞只能用在動詞前面表示能、願等情態，本身不能帶賓語。

(64) 假舟楫者，非能水也，而絶江河。

（《荀子·勸學》）

（憑借舟船的人，雖然不會泅水，卻能橫渡江河。——“水”用為“泅水”、“游泳”之意。）

(65) 左右欲兵之。

（《史記·伯夷列傳》）

（武王周圍的人要用兵器殺伯夷和叔齊。——“兵”原義是“兵器”，用為“殺戮”之意。）

(66) 左右欲刃相如。

（《史記·廉頗藺相如列傳》）

（秦王周圍的人要殺藺相如。——“刃”原義是“刀鋒”，也用為“殺戮”之意。）

(67) 子謂公冶長可妻也。

（《論語·公冶長》）

（孔子説公冶長這個人，值得把姑娘嫁給他。——“妻”用為“嫁女”之意。）

(68) 建可室矣。

（《左傳·昭公十九年》）

（太子建可以成家了。——“室”用為“有妻室”“娶妻”之意。）

(69) 二國有好，臣不與及，其誰敢德？

（左傳·成公三年》）

（兩國建立友好關係，我沒有參與其中，那還敢感激誰呢？——“德”用為“感恩”、“感激”之意。）

4. “者”字前面的名詞，用如動詞。

“者”字是古代漢語中一個構詞後綴（有人稱它為特殊現示代詞，有人稱它為助詞），它的語法功能是綴在動詞、動詞詞組或形容詞的後面，組成一個名詞性的結構，表示某種人或某種事物。又因名詞一般不用作形容詞，所以“者”字前面的名詞用如動詞。

(70) 冠者五六人，童子六七人，浴乎沂，風乎舞雩，詠而歸。

（《論語・先進》）

（約會五六個成年人，六七個少年，到沂河裏去洗澡，在舞雩台乘涼，唱着歌走回來。——“冠”是古代一種禮儀，男子二十歲行冠禮，表示已為成年人。用如動詞指“行過冠禮”的意思。因此“冠者”即指成年人。）

(71) 趙王之子孫侯者，其繼有在者乎？

（《戰國策・趙策》）

（趙王的子孫被封侯的，他們的後嗣還有存在的嗎？——“侯”用為“封侯”之意。）

(72) 相地之宜，宜谷者稼穡焉。

（《史記・周本紀》）

（觀察看土地的情況，適合種莊稼的土地，就在那裏耕種收穫。——“谷”是糧食作物的總稱。用為“種谷”之意。）

(73) 蓋聞王者莫高於周文，伯者莫高於齊桓，皆待賢人而成功。

（《漢書・高帝紀》）

（似乎聽說稱王的人沒有超過周文王的，稱霸的人沒有超過齊桓公的。他們都是依靠賢人才成功的。——“王”用為建立王業”、“統一天下”、“稱王”之意；“伯”即“霸”字，用為“建立霸業”、“做諸侯的盟主”、“稱霸”之意。）

這裏值得注意的是，“者”字前面的時間名詞在句中作狀語，一般不視為用如動詞，如“莫春者”，此外還有“今者”、“古者”、“昔者”、“曩者”、“鄉者”等等。另外一點，在判斷句中，“者”字在主語後面表示提頓，絕不能把“者”字前面作主語的名詞也看成用如動詞。如“南冥者，天池也”（《莊子・逍遙遊》）、“項籍者，下項人也（《史記・項羽本紀》），句中的“南冥”、“項籍”都是主語，不存在活用問題。

5. “所”字後面的名詞，用如動詞。這有兩種情況：

第一，“所”字是古代漢語中的一個構詞前綴。它的語法功能是用在動詞或動詞詞組前面，組成一個名詞性的結構，表示某種人或某種事物。它與“者”字的區別在於：一、位置不同，“者”字綴於動詞之後，而“所”字綴於動詞之前。二、意義不同，“者”字結構一般指代行為的主動者，而“所”字結構則一般指代行為的對象。如一個從事學習、研究的

人，我們稱他為“學者”，而他學習的內容、研究的學問，即是他的“所學”。既然“所”字只能用在動詞之前，那麼它後面的名詞，無疑是用如動詞了。如：

(74) 乃丹書帛曰陳勝王，置人所“罾”魚腹中。

（《史記·陳涉世家》）

（就用朱砂在白綢子上寫了“陳勝將成為大王”的字，放進別人打來的魚的肚子裏。——“罾”是魚網，用為“用網捕魚”之意。）

(75) 是以令吏人完客所館。

（《左傳·襄公三十一年》）

（因此派負責人員去修繕來賓所住的旅館。——“館”用為“住旅館之意。）

(76) 形之所形者實矣，而形形者未嘗有；聲之所聲者聞矣，而聲聲者未嘗發；色之所色者彰矣，而色色者未嘗顯；味之所味者嚐矣，而味味者未嘗呈。

（《列子·天瑞》）

（形體所表現出來的形狀是具體的，可是形成這種形體的因素是從來看不到的；聲音所表現出來的音響是能聽得到的，可是產生聲音的因素是發現不出來的；顏色所表現出來的色澤是很明顯的，可是形成顏色的因素是顯示不出來的。味道所表現出來的滋味是能品嚐的，可是形成味道的因素是不曾呈現出來的。——“形”、“聲”、“色”、“味”用為“顯形”、“顯聲”“顯色”、“顯味”之意。）

(77) 其所謂道，道其所道，非吾所謂道也；其所謂德，德其德，非吾所謂德也。

（韓愈：《原道》）

（老子所說的道，是把他認為是道的稱為道，不是我所說的道。老子所說的德是把他認為是德的稱為德，不是我所說的德。——“道”“德”用為“以為道”、“以為德”之意。）

第二，“所”字與“為”字構成“為…所…”的格式，用在動詞前面表示被動。因此，“為…所”之後的名詞，也用如動詞：

(78) 必以非辜為孔子所妻，則是孔子不妻賢，妻冤也。

（《論衡・問孔篇》）

（如果因為公冶長無罪受冤才被孔子招為女婿，那麼，這等於說孔子不把女兒嫁給賢人，而是嫁給冤屈的人了。——“妻”用為“嫁女”之意。）

(79) 毋徒使母子為太子所魚肉也。

（《史記・晉世家》）

（不要讓我們母子白白地被太子申生欺凌殘害。——“魚肉”用為“當作魚肉”之意，比喻任人殘害。）

(80) 誠恐己離兵為人所禍也。

（曹操：《讓縣自明本志令》）

（實在擔心自己離開軍隊而遭人謀害。——“禍”，用為“加禍”、謀害之意。）

(81) 孤山有陳時柏二株。其一為人所薪。

（蘇軾：《孤山二詠引言》）

（孤山上有陳代時的兩株柏樹，其中一株被人砍伐了。——“薪”用為“采薪”、砍伐”意。）

6. 名詞直接與介詞詞組相連，而句中又無其他動詞時，則這個名詞用如動詞。

介詞結構（“於”字結構另述）一般只能用作狀語修飾動詞，而不能用作定語修飾名詞，而句中又沒有別的動詞受它修飾，因此，名詞活用為動詞。

(82) 管仲以其君霸，晏子以其君顯。

（《孟子・公孫丑上》）

（管仲憑着他的國君而稱霸，晏子憑着他的國君而顯名。）

(83) 以齊王，由反掌也。（同上）

（憑齊國的條件統一天下，就像翻轉手掌一樣容易。）

(84) 象往入舜宮，舜在牀琴。

（《孟子・万章上》）

（象進到舜的房間裏，舜坐在牀上彈琴呢。——“琴”用為“鼓琴”、“彈琴”之意。]

(85) 士人為知己者用，女為悅己者容。）

（司馬遷：《報任少卿書》）

（士人為了解自己的人效力，女人為喜愛自己的人打扮。——“容”用為“美容”、“打扮”之意。）

(86) 以叔隗妻趙衰，生盾。

（《左傳・僖公二十三年》）

（把叔隗嫁給了趙衰，生下了趙盾。）

(87) 堯不德，舜不辭，妻以二女任以事。

（《荀子・成相》）

（堯不自誇其德，舜不推卸責任，堯把兩個女兒嫁給他，把大事委任給他。——“任”，擔子，用為“承擔”“擔負”。）

介詞詞組作狀語，一般置於動詞之前。但有時也置於動詞之後86、87中“妻”字用如動詞都是“嫁女”的意思，但狀語的位置不同。如果介詞結構中的介詞賓語是疑問代詞或指示代詞“是”，賓語則在介詞的前面。如：

(88) 君子質而已矣，何以文為？

（《論語・顏淵》）

（君子樸實無華就可以了，為什麼還要文飾呢？“文”用為“文飾”、“講究文彩”之意。）

還有介詞的賓語承前省略，不要把動用的名詞誤認為介詞的賓語。如：

(89) 吾觀晉公子之從者，皆足以相國；若以相，夫子必反其國。

（《左傳・僖公二十三年》）

（我看晉公子的隨從人員，都足以成為國家的輔佐之臣；假如用他們做輔臣，那晉公子一定能返回他的國家去掌權。）

此例中，“以相”不是介賓關係，而是偏正關係。“以”的賓語“之”（代“晉公子之從者”）承前省略了，“相”字是位於介賓結構後面的名詞，因此用如動詞。

7. 名詞位於介詞“於”（或“乎”）的前面，而句中又無其他動詞時，則動詞用如動詞。

因為介詞“於”經常用在動詞及其賓語的後面，引出處所、時間、範圍、行為的對象等，作動詞的補語。它前面的名詞如果沒有動詞來支配，那麼這個名詞就用如動詞。

(90) 請句踐女女於王，大夫女女於大夫，士女女於士。

（《國語・越語上》）

（請讓句踐的女兒給吳王做女奴，越國大夫的女兒給吳國大夫做女奴，越國士的女兒給吳國士做女奴。——“女”用為“做女奴”“做妾”的意思。）

(91) 二月甲午，晉師軍於廬柳。

（左傳・僖公二十四年》）

（二月甲午這天，晉國的軍隊駐紮在廬柳。——“軍”，
用為“屯兵”、“駐紮的意思。）

(92) 己巳，晉師陳於莘北。

（《左傳・僖公二十八年》）

（己巳這天，晉國軍隊在莘北擺開陣式。——“陳”，
古“陣”字，用為“列陣”、“擺陣式”的意思。）

(93) 趙旃夜至於楚軍，席於軍門之外。

（《左傳・宣公十二年》）

趙旃夜間來到楚軍營前，在軍門之外席地而坐。——
“席”用為“布席”、“鋪席”以坐於其上的意思。）

(94) 孟子之滕，館於上宮。（《孟子・盡心下》）

（孟子到滕國去，住在賓館的樓上。）

(95) 一命齒於鄉，再命齒於族。

（荀子・大略》）

（公侯之士，在鄉裏按年齡大小排列順序；大夫在宗族
裏按年齡大小排列位置。——“齒”由“牙齒”引申為“年
齡”，用為“按年齡排列位次”的意思。）

(96) 太尉曰：“無傷也，請辭於軍。

（柳宗元：《段太尉逸事狀》）

段太尉說：“不要緊，請讓我到郭晞軍中去解釋。”——
“辭”由“言辭”的意思用為“解釋”、說明”的意思。）

“乎”字在句尾，是語氣詞，凡在句中者，都是介詞，
相當於“於”字。“乎”字前面的名詞也用如動詞。如：

(97) 浴乎沂，風乎舞雩。

（論語・先進》）

（到沂河裏去洗澡，在舞雩台上乘涼。——“風”用為吹
風“乘涼”的意思。）

名詞前面如果還有其他動詞，則名詞是動詞的賓語，
“於”字結構就修辭那個動詞，這時就不存在動用問題了。

如：

(98) 鄭伯克段於鄢。

（《左傳・隱公元》）

（鄭莊公在鄢打敗了共叔段。）

(99) 戊申，使殺懷公於高梁。

（左傳・僖公二十四年》）

（戊申這天，晉文公派人在高梁殺死了晉懷公。）

(100) 季氏將有事於顓臾。

（《論語・季氏》）

（季孫氏將要對顓臾有軍是事行動。）

這三例中“於”字前面的名詞，都是自己的前面動詞的賓語，因此都不用如動詞。

另外，“於”字表示“對於”的意思時，“於”字組成的介詞結構必須用在動詞之前，這時，“於”字前面的名詞是句子的主語，也不能誤認為用如動詞。如：

(101) 君子於其所不知，蓋闕如也。

（《論語・子路》）

（君子對於自己所不知道的事情，似乎應採取存疑的態度。）

(102) 君於大夫，三問其疾，三臨其喪。

（荀子・大略》）

（國君對於大夫，生病的三次前去存問，死亡的三次去吊唁。）

8. 名詞位於“焉”字或處所名詞的前面，而句中又無其他動詞時，則名詞用如動詞。

焉字是個代詞兼語氣詞。經常用在動詞（及其賓語）的後面指代處所及對象等，並兼表陳述的語氣。用在不及物動詞或帶上賓語的及物動詞後面，它相當於“於之”（介詞結構）；用在沒帶賓語的及物動詞後面，它相當於“之也”（代詞賓語加句尾語氣詞）。因為無論“於”、“之”字前面的名詞都用如動詞，因此，“焉”字前面的名詞也必用如動詞。如：

(103) 巍巍乎！唯天為大，唯堯則之，蕩蕩乎民無能名焉。

（論語・泰伯》）

（多麼高大啊！只有天最偉大，只有堯能效法天，恩德浩蕩無邊，百姓簡直不知道該如何讚美他。——“名”用為“稱讚”、“形容”的意思。）

(104) 晉鄭同儕，其過子弟，固將禮焉。

（左傳・僖公二十二年》）

（晉國鄭國是地位平等的國家，他們的子弟經過鄭國，當然應該以禮接待他們。）

(105) 勇士入其大門，則無人門焉者；入其閨，則無人閨焉者。

（《公羊傳・宣公六年》）

（刺客進入趙盾家的大門，卻沒有人在門口守衛；進入他的室內，卻沒有人在內室把守。“門”、“閨”用為“守門”、“守閨”的意思。）

(106) 老者孝焉，長者弟焉。

（《荀子・大略》）

（老年人，要對他們孝敬；年長者，要對他們順從。“孝”、“弟”用為“行孝道”、“行弟道”的意思。）

(107) 子焉而不父其父，臣焉而不君其君，民焉而不事其事。

（韓愈：《原道》）

（做人的兒子卻不孝敬自己的父親，做人的臣下卻不忠於自己的國君，做人的百姓卻不從事自己的事情。——“子”、“臣”、“民”，用為“為子”、“為臣”、“為民的意思。”）

(108) 愛其子，擇師而教之；於其身也，則恥師焉。惑矣！

（韓愈：《師說》）

（愛自己的孩子，選擇好的老師來教他們，對於他本人呢，卻以向老師學習為恥。真糊塗啊！——“師”，用為“師事”、“學習”的意思。）

處所名詞可以省略介詞“於”，直接用在動詞後面作補語，所以它前面的名詞也往往用如動詞。如：

(109) 晉軍函陵，秦軍氾南。

（《左傳・僖公三十年》）

（晉國的軍隊駐紮在函陵，秦國的軍隊駐紮在氾南。）

(110) 沛公軍霸上，未得與項羽相見。

（《史記・項羽本紀》）

（劉邦的軍隊駐紮在霸上，未能和項羽見面。）

(111) 項王軍壁垓下。（同上）

（項羽的軍隊在垓下紮下營壘。——“壁”用為“紮營”的意思。）

(112) 燕雀烏鵲，巢堂壇兮。

（屈原：《九章・涉江》）

（燕子、麻雀、烏鴉、喜鵲，在殿堂、祭壇上築巢。——“巢”用為“築巢”的意思。喻小人在朝受寵。）

“焉”字或處所名詞前面的名詞，如果前面還有一個動詞，那麼名詞就是動詞的賓語，而不存在動用問題了。如：

(113) 三人行，必有我師焉。

（《論語·述而》）

（三個人一起走路，一定會有可以作為我的老師的人在裏邊。）

(114) 余收爾骨焉。

（《左傳·僖公三十二年》）

（我就在那裏收你的屍骨。）

(115) 寡人有罪國家。

（《戰國策·齊策》）

（我對國家有罪。）

9. “而”字前後的名詞，一般也用如動詞。

“而”是連詞。它能連接形容詞、動詞和動詞性詞組，也可以連接兩個句子，卻不能連接名詞及名詞性詞組。名詞一般又不活用為形容詞，這樣，當名詞與“而”直接相連，名詞的另一側又無其他動詞時，名詞就用如動詞了。

(116) 夫子式而聽之。

（《禮記·檀弓下》）

（孔子在車上俯身扶軾，關切地傾聽。——“式”同“軾”車前做扶手用的橫木。因為“扶軾”的意思。）

(117) 若闕地及泉，隧而相見，其誰曰不然？

（《左傳·隱公元年》）

（如果挖地達到泉水深處，挖成隧道來見面，那誰說不是黃泉相見呢？——“隧”用為“挖隧道”的意思。）

(118) 孟嘗君怪其疾也，衣冠而見之。

（《戰國策·齊策》）

（孟嘗君奇怪馮諼回來得這麼快，就穿好衣服、戴好帽子鄭重地接見他。——“衣”、“冠”用為“穿衣”、“戴帽”的意思。）

(119) 賢者與民並耕而食，饔飧而治。

（《孟子·滕文公上》）

（聖賢的君主與百姓一起種地打糧食吃飯，每天自己動手做飯而兼治理國家。——“饔飧”是熟食，“饔”是早餐，“飧”是晚餐，用為“做飯”的意思。）

(120) 不耕而食，不織而衣。

（《莊子·盜跖》）

（不種地就吃飯，不織布就穿衣。）

(121) 天子諸侯子十九而冠，冠而聽治。

（《荀子·大略》）

（天子、諸侯的兒子十九歲就舉行冠禮，加冠後就管理政事了。）

(122) 子胡不相與尸而祝之，社而稷之乎？

（《莊子·庚桑楚》）

（大家何不共同為庚桑楚設置尸祝祈禱表示對他敬慕，立社稷壇祭奠表示對他崇拜呢？——“尸”是古代祭祀時代替鬼神的人，“祝”是與鬼神通言語的人。用如動詞是“設置尸祝進行祭祀禱告”，以比喻崇敬、仰慕之意；“社”是土神，“稷”是谷神，古代統治者掌權必先立壇祭祀社稷，故往往用作國家、政權的代名詞。用如動詞是“立壇祭祀社稷”，比喻崇拜、並尊為君主之意。）

我們看，(116)–(119) 中，名詞在“而”字前而用如動詞；(120) 中，名詞在“而”字後而用如動詞；(121) 中，同一個名詞，或在“而”前，或在“而”後，也都用如動詞；(122) 中，則把兩個經常並列的名詞拆開分置於“而”字前後，也都用如動詞。可見其用法是多麼靈活多樣啊！

“以”字作連詞用時，用法與“而”相似。所以連詞“以”前後的名詞也用如動詞。如：

(123) 六月，知悼子合諸侯之大夫以城杞。

（《左傳·襄公二十九年》）

（六月份，知悼子召集諸侯的大夫為杞築城。——“城”用為“築城”、“修城”之意。）

(124) 余姑為之求士，而鄙以待之。

（《左傳·昭公二十年》）

（我暫且為公子光尋找勇士，而自己退居邊野等待他弒殺吳王僚。——“鄙”是“邊邑”、“邊遠地區”，用為“處於邊遠之地”的意思。）

如果名詞與連詞“而”、“以”中間介入其他動詞、形容詞，或者名詞另一側與其他動詞、形容詞相連時，那麼名詞就與動詞、形容詞構成動賓關係或主謂關係，而不存在活用問題了。如：“提刀而立”（《莊子·養生主》）、“林木茂而斧斤至焉”（《荀子·勸學》）、“殺身以成仁”（《論語·衛靈公》），其中“提刀”、“殺身”、“成仁”是動賓

關係，"林木茂"、"斧斤至"是主謂關係，名詞或作賓語，或作主語，都不用如動詞。

10. 兼語後面的名詞，用如動詞。

兼語結構是動賓詞組與主謂詞組的部份重合，動賓詞組的賓語兼作主謂詞組的主語。名詞處於兼語之後，它就充任了主謂詞組的謂語，也就用如動詞了。兼語結構的第一個動詞多為使令性動詞。因此，當名詞處於一個使性令的動賓詞組之後，它就用如動詞了。

(125) 有與疑年，使之年。

（《左傳·襄公三十年》）

（有個在一起的人懷疑他的年齡，就讓他說說自己的年齡。"年"指年齡，用為"報年齡""說出年齡"的意思。）

(126) 齊桓公置射鉤而使管仲相。

（《左傳·僖公二十四年》）

（齊桓公不追究管仲曾射中他衣帶鉤的事，並且讓管仲當了宰相。）

(127) 魏王使客將軍辛垣衍令趙帝秦。

（《戰國策·趙策》）

魏王派客將軍辛垣衍來讓趙國尊秦為帝。——"帝"用為"稱……為帝""承讓……為帝"之意。）

(128) 天帝使我長百獸，今子食我，是逆天帝命也。

（《戰國策·楚策》）

（天帝派我做百獸的首領，你現在要是吃我，這是違背天帝的命令。——"長"，用為"做首長"、"成為長"、"統領"、"管理"之意。）

(129) 命子封帥車二百乘以伐京。

（《左傳·隱公元年》）

（鄭莊公命令子封統率二百輛兵車去攻打京城。——"帥"用為"率領"、"統率"之意。

(130) 乃遣當陽君、蒲將軍將卒二萬，渡河救鉅鹿。

（《史記·項羽本紀》）

（項羽就派遣當陽君、蒲將軍領二萬士卒，渡過黃河去救鉅鹿。——"將"用為"帶領"、"統率"之意。）

(131) 已卻秦存趙，使將將其軍歸魏。

（《史記·魏公子列傳》）

（已經打退秦兵保存了趙國，信陵君就派將帶着那支軍隊回到魏國。）

(132) 使齊人傅之。

（《孟子·滕文公下》）

（讓齊國人教他。）

(133) 一齊人傅之，眾楚人咻之，雖日撻而求其齊也，不可得矣。（同上）

（一個齊國人教他，許多楚國人干擾他，即使每天用鞭子打他而讓他說齊國話，也是不能做到的。——“齊”用為“說齊話”之意。）

這最後一例中，兼語是代詞“其”。前面說過，代詞“其”不能作賓語，一般也不在句中作主語，為什麼卻兼作了賓語和主語呢？“其”字所代替的是一個名詞加上一個結構助詞“之”。當“其”在名詞前面時，助詞“之”是用在定語和中心語之間表示領屬關係；當“其”用在動詞前面時，等於“之”用在主語和謂語之間，取消句子的獨立性，使它變成一個名詞性詞組。如“吾見師之出，不見其入也”（《左傳·僖公三十二年》），“其”等名詞“師”加助詞“之”，“其入”等於“師之入”，“之”在主、謂之間，把句子變成名詞性詞組做動詞“見”的賓語。當這種“其”加動詞構成的詞組前面是使令性動詞時，“其”就處在了兼語的地位。這和“不見其入也”這種主謂詞組作賓語的句子，在形式上是完全一樣的。但前面的使令性動詞要求帶兼語，因此我們便把“其”看作兼語，並以此判定後面的名詞用如動詞。

11. 兩個名詞（或名詞性詞組）連用，如果既不是並列關係，也不是偏正關係，那麼二者就構成了主謂關係或動賓關係。這時，其中一個名詞用如動詞。

當二者呈主謂關係時，則後面的名詞用如動詞：

(134) 若士必怒，伏屍二人，流血五步，天下縞素，今日是也。

（《戰國策·魏策》）

（假如士真正發怒了，倒下兩具屍體，流血不過五步之內，可是天下的人都穿孝服，今天就是這樣！“縞素”，白色織品，借指孝服，用為“穿孝服”、“戴孝”之意。）

(135) 嫋嫋兮秋風，洞庭波兮木葉下。

（《楚辭·九歌·湘夫人》）

（秋風輕輕地吹拂，洞庭湖蕩漾着微波，樹葉紛紛下落。“波”用為“波動”之意。）

(136) 許子冠乎？

（《孟子·滕文公上》）

（許先生戴帽子嗎？）

(137) 夷吾桎梏。

（《史記·游俠列傳》）

（管仲被戴上腳鐐和手銬。——“桎梏”，刑具，用為“戴刑具”“囚禁”之意。）

(138) 竊鉤者誅，竊國者侯。

（《史記·游俠列傳》）

（偷衣帶鉤的人受到懲罰，竊取國家權柄的人成為王侯。）

(139) 臣諸侯者王，友諸侯者霸。

（《荀子·王制》）

（使諸侯臣服的人成為帝王，使諸侯成為盟友的人做了霸主。）

當二者呈動賓關係時，則前面的名詞用如動詞：

(140) 曹子手劍而從之。

（〈公羊傳·莊公十三年〉）

曹劌手裏握着劍緊跟着魯莊公。——“手”，用為“拿在手裏”之意。）

(141) 鬼侯有子而好，故入之於紂，紂王以為惡，醢鬼侯；鄂侯爭之急，辨之急，故脯鄂侯。

（《戰國策·趙策》）

（鬼侯有個女兒侯很美，所以獻給了紂王，紂王認為長得醜，就把鬼侯剁成肉醬；鄂侯急切地諍諫、爭辯，所以又把鄂侯做成肉乾。——“醢”，肉醬，用為“剁成肉醬”、“使……成為肉醬”之意；“脯”，肉乾，用為“弄成肉乾”、“使成為肉乾”之意。）

(142) 太尉大泣曰：“乃我困汝！”即自取水洗去血，裂裳衣瘡，手注善約。

（柳宗元：《段太尉逸事狀》）

（太尉一邊大哭一邊說：“是我使你受痛苦！”就親自取來水洗去農夫身上的血漬，撕破自己的衣服給他紮傷口，並親手給敷上好約。——“衣”用為“包裹”、“包紮”之意。）

(143) 你作言造語，冠枝木之冠，帶死牛之肋。

（《莊子·盜跖》）

（你編造言辭，戴着像樹枝一樣華麗的帽子，繫着像牛肋一樣寬闊的革帶。——“帶”，衣帶，用為“繫帶”、“紮帶”之意。）

從上面例句中可以看出，相連的兩個名詞，當前者是專名詞、或表示人的名詞及詞組，而後者為表示事物或職位的普通名詞時，則往往構成主謂關係。這是因為專名詞、表示人的名詞，相對地說要比普遍名詞、表事物的名詞穩固一些。當兩個名詞呈動賓關係時，則有以下特點：第一，前者多為普遍名詞；第二，後者前面有修飾成份；第三，句中或上下文裏有明顯的主語。由此可知，當三個名詞相連，如果相鄰的兩個名詞不是並列和偏正關係，則三者構成主、謂、賓的關係，中間的名詞用如動詞。如：

(144) 許子衣褐。

（《孟子·滕文公上》）

（許行先生穿粗麻布短衣。）

(145) 遙望老子杖藜而來。

（馬中錫：《中山狼傳》）

（遠遠看見一個老人拄着藜杖走過來。——“杖”，手杖，枴杖，用為“拄着”“拄杖”之意。）

名詞除了一部份可以重疊表示“每一”的意思（如“人人親其親”——《離婁上》）之外，一般是不能重疊的。因此，同一個名詞重疊出現時，常常有一個用如動詞。如：

(146) 有形者，有形形者；有聲者，有聲聲者；有色者，有色色者；有味者，有味味者。

（《列子·天瑞》）

（有形體，有形成形體的因素；有聲音，有形成聲音的音素；有顏色，有形成顏色的因素；有味道，有形成味道的因素。）

(147) 親卿愛卿，是以卿卿，我不卿卿，誰當卿卿？

（《世說新語·惑溺》）

（親您愛您，因此管您叫“卿”，我不管您叫“卿”，誰該管您叫“卿”呢？——“卿”是對人的敬稱，又作男女間的昵稱。這裏用為“稱為卿”的意思。）

(148) 如曰今日當一切不事事，守前所為而已，則非某之所敢知。

（王安石：《答司馬諫議書》）

（如果說現在什麼事情都不該做，只守着從前所做的事情罷了，那不是我所敢領教的。“事”用為“從事”、“做事情”之意。）

(149) 天下乖盭，无君君之心。

（柳宗元：《封建論》）

（天下背離反常，沒有效忠天子之心。——“君”用為“把……當成君主”之意。）

以上各例中重迭的名詞都構成動賓關係，因為從意思上看，在句中和上下文裏可找到明顯的主語，即使有的主語省略了，也完全可以補得出來；從形式上看，第一個名詞前面有副詞、助動詞、介詞結構等。

(150) 齊景公問政於孔子。孔子對曰：“君君、臣臣、父父、子子。”公曰：“善哉！信如君不君、臣不臣、父不父、子不子，雖有粟，吾得而食諸？”

（《論語·顏淵》）

（齊景公向孔子請教政事。孔子回答說：“國君要像個國君，臣下要像個臣下，父親要像個父親，兒子要像個兒子。”齊景公說：“對呀！真的若是國君不像國君，臣下不像臣下，父親不像父親，兒子不像兒子，即使有許多糧食，我還能吃得着嗎？”）

(151) 君君、臣臣、父父、子子、兄兄、弟弟，一也。農農、士士、工工、商商，一也。

（《荀子·王制》）

（君主要像君主、臣下要像臣下、父親要像父親、兒子要像兒子、哥哥要像哥哥、弟弟要像弟弟，這是禮義的一貫原則。農民要種田，士民要學習，工民要做工，商民要做買賣，這也是禮義的一貫原則。）

這兩例中重疊的名詞，都構成主謂關係。因為每個重疊形式都能表達一個完整的意思，再找不到也補不出另外的主語了。(150)中，我們更可以從下文的“君不君、臣不臣、父不父、子不子”斷定它們是主謂關係。因為後面的名詞處於否定副詞“不”的後面，所以用如動詞。

12. 方位名詞東、西、南、北、前、後、左、右、中、裏、外等[6]用如動詞的情況更為多見。鑒別方位詞動用的方法，也與其他名詞一樣。

(152) 江水又東。

（《水經注·江水》）

（長江又向東流。——“東”在副詞“又”之後。）

(153) 楚遂拔成皋，欲西。漢使兵距之鞏，令其不得西。

（《史記·項羽本紀》）

（楚軍就攻打成皋，要往西進。漢派兵在鞏阻擊，使楚軍不能往西進。——兩“西字分別處於助詞“欲”、“得”之後。）

(154) 漢敗楚，楚以故不能過滎陽而西。（同上）

（漢軍打敗楚軍，楚軍因此不能過滎陽向西進。——"西"用在連詞"而"之後。）

(155) 子路從而後。

（《論語·微子》）

（子路跟隨孔子卻落在了後面。——"後"用在連詞"而"之後。）

(156) 此君人者所外也。

（《韓非子·愛臣》）

（這是當國君的人應當疏遠的。——"外"前面有"所"字。）

(157) 遂弗毀，日中而葬。

（《左傳·昭公十二年》）

（於是就不拆毀游氏之廟，到中午時再安葬鄭簡公。——"日中"是主謂關係，是"日行至中天"的意思，用以表示"中午"。）

方位詞比一般名詞靈活得多，不僅活用的頻率高，而且用起來也更為自由，簡直就如它本身就是動詞那樣。試看：

(158) 齊宣王見顏斶曰："斶前！"斶亦曰："王前！"宣王不悅。左右曰："王，人君也；斶，人臣也。王曰'斶前'，斶亦曰'王前'，可乎？"斶對曰："夫斶前為慕勢，王前為趨士；與使斶為慕勢，不如使王趨士。"（《戰國策·齊策》）

(159) 項王至陰陵，迷失道，問一田父，田父紿曰："左"。左，乃陷大澤中。以故漢追及之。項王乃復引兵而東，至東城。

（《史記·項羽本紀》）

我們從中可以看出，在秦漢時代的口語中，方位詞用如動詞是多麼普遍，多麼自由！

上面列舉十二項辨認名詞動用的條件，是就各種情況分別分析而言的。在實際語言中，即具體的古文中，各種條件往往是結合的。如"左右欲兵之"，"兵"既是在代詞之前，又是在助詞之後；"令其不得西"，"西"前面不僅有助動詞，還有否定副詞，還有兼語成份。這種現象，在我們所舉的例句中，佔極大比例。因此，名詞用如動詞，是不難鑒別的。

有些名詞用如動詞以後，讀音發生了變化，如衣 (yī) 讀成yī，冠 (guān) 讀成“guàn”， 王 (wáng) 讀成“wàng”， 女 (nü) 讀成“nǚ”， 妻 (qī) 讀成“qī”，將 (jiāng) 讀成“jiang”，等等。我們如果知道了它們在句子中的讀音，也就知道它們是否用如動詞了。但是，如果借助讀音的不同來斷定名詞是否用如動詞，是沒有實用意義的。因為：第一，先秦漢魏時代，名詞動用以後並無讀音的差異。自晉宋以後，訓詁學家在教學過程中為使學生辨認詞類活用、同字異指現象，“而恐其遺忘，乃令作別音以紀其義之殊” [7]，因此這種同字異讀現象，實乃“後人強分之”。第二，讀音的變化並無嚴格的規律可循。雖然相當多的名詞動用後由平聲轉變為去聲，但也有由去聲轉為平聲者（如“將”字）。還有的轉為入聲字，如“帥”，名詞讀“shuài”，去聲，動詞讀“所律切”，入聲，而現代漢語普遍話語音裏，已經沒有聲調，除部分方言區的人或少數專門研究音韵的人，一般都讀不出這種字音。更何況還有許多“意分而音不轉者”，如“君君”、“臣臣”“農農”“士士”之類，又怎麼能憑讀音區別呢？另外，其他詞類活用也有轉音現象，如“飲”(yǐn)，使動用時讀“yìn”，“食”(shì)，使動用時讀“sì”，這就更加無法分辨了。第三，漢字是表意文字，字形不能標志字音。雖然形聲字比例最大，但由於古今語音的變化，聲符並不都能準確地表示字的讀音，更何況同一個字的聲符，怎麼能表示兩個以上的不同讀音呢？讀者只有閱讀別人的注解時，才能發現這種異讀現象（當然，也有的注解並不注音的）。我們知道，別人的注釋，只能幫助而不能替代自己對原文的理解，況且沒有注釋時，又怎麼辦呢？我們不能只依賴注釋，我們的目的正是要盡可能地擺脫注釋，提高自己獨立閱讀、理解古文的能力。只要我們能掌握名詞和動詞的主要語法特徵，在閱讀過程中，注意把名詞在句子中的意思和語法關係結合起來分析，經過多次練習，在一定的量的積累基礎上，必然會產生一個質的飛躍，使之能在鑒別名詞動用方面獲得一定的自由，從而大大地提高閱讀文言文的能力。

三、 使動用法和意動用法

動詞有使動用法，形容詞有使動用法和意動用法。名詞也有使動用法和意動用。

所謂名詞的使動用法，就是名詞帶上賓語，活用為動詞後，帶有“使…”的意思。就是說，名詞由表示事物的名稱，變為表示某種行為或變化，可是主語並不發生這種行為或變化，而是使賓語發生這種行為或變化。具體地說，就是名詞動用後，使賓語所代表的人或事物，成為產生或支配這個名詞所代表的人或事物。如果活用的名詞是方位詞，那就是使賓語所代表的人或事物處於這個方位詞所代表的方向或位置。例如：

(160) 爾欲吳王我乎？

（《左傳·定公十年》）

（你要讓我成為〔被專諸刺殺的〕吳王僚嗎？）

(161) 奪之人者臣諸侯，奪之與者友諸侯。

（《荀子·王制》）

（爭取人心的人使諸侯稱臣，爭取盟國的人使諸侯成為盟友。）

(162) 縱江東父兄憐而王我，我何面目見之？

（《史記·項羽本紀》）

（即使江南的父老兄弟們同情我讓我稱王，我還有什麼臉面去見他們呢？）

(163) 人其人，火其書，廬其居。

（韓愈：《原道》）

（要讓那些佛道信徒成為普通的百姓〔反俗〕，燒毀佛老之書，把寺觀廟宇改為民用住房。）

(164) 吾見申叔夫子，所謂生死而肉骨也。

（《左傳·襄公二十二年》）

（我見到申叔夫子，就是所說的起死回生，使白骨長肉啊。）

(165) 齊桓公合諸侯而國異姓。

（《史記·晉世家》）

（齊桓公會合諸侯而使異姓建立國家。）

(166) 父曰："履我！"良業為取履，因長跪履之。

（《史記·留侯世家》）

（老年人說："給我把鞋穿上！"張良業已替他取了鞋，於是就直跪着給他穿上鞋。）

(167) 使齊之封內盡東其畝。

（《左傳·成公二年》）

（讓齊國境內田地的隴埂完全朝東西方向。）

(168) 今也欲治其心，而外天下國家者，滅其天倫。

（韓愈：《原道》）

（如今那些想要正心誠意卻又把天下國家置之度外的人，都喪滅了人的天倫。）

所謂名詞的意動用法，就是名詞帶上賓語，活用為動詞後，帶有"認為……"、"以……為……"的意思。它與使動用法不同，是把賓語所代表的人和事物看成（而不是使之成為）這個名詞所代表的人或事物。例如：

(169) 夫人之，我可以不夫人之乎？

（《穀梁傳．僖公八年》）

（國君把成風當作嫡夫人對待，我可以不把她當作夫人嗎？——魯僖公的母親成風乃其父之妾，已死。“夫人之”不是使她成為夫人，而是用嫡夫人之禮在太廟舉行大祭，把她當成嫡夫人對待。）

(170) 今君有區區之薛，不拊愛子其民，因而賈利之。

（《戰國策．齊策》）

（如今您只有個小小的薛邑，不把那裏的人民當成子女來撫愛他們，卻就此用商賈之道向他們謀利。——“子其民”不是讓薛邑百姓做孟嘗君的子女，而是要孟嘗君把他們看成跟自己的子女一樣。）

(171) 公子乃自驕而功之，竊為公子不取也。

（《史記．魏公子列傳》）

（公子竟然自我驕傲把救趙這件事看成是自己的功勞，我認為您不應該採取這種態度。——“功之”不是使此事成為功勞。救趙確係一大功勞，但絕非個人之功，不應居功自傲。）

(172) 孔子之作《春秋》也，諸侯用夷禮則夷之；進於中國則中國之。

（韓愈：《原道》）

（孔子在寫《春秋》時，中國漢族諸侯用夷狄禮俗的，就把他們看成夷狄；而對夷狄進入中國用漢族禮俗的，就把他們看成中國。漢族。——“夷之”、“中國之”，不是實際上把漢族人變成外族人，把外族人變成漢族人，而只是孔子寫歷史時如此評價，以寓褒貶之義。）

(173) 孔子師郯子、萇弘、師襄、老聃。

（韓愈：《師說》）

（孔子曾向郯子、萇弘、師襄、老聃等人學習。——“師……”不是孔子與他們有真正的師徒關係，只是在某些方面曾向他們請教，認為他們可以做自己的老師。）

名詞使動用法、意動用法，也須憑上節所述各項條件來判斷。一個名詞是用如一般動詞，還是使動用法或意動用法，則主要得上下文的意思來斷定。但也可以找出一些比較帶規律性的辦法。一般地說，方位名詞通常用如不及物動詞，不能帶賓語；如果方位詞帶上了賓語，那就是使動用法。試比較：

(174) 秦師遂東。

（《左傳·僖公三十二年》）

（秦國軍隊就向東開進了。）

(175) 王不如東蘇子。

（《史記·蘇秦列傳》）

（大王不如讓蘇代到東方各國去。）

前一句中“向東”是主語“秦師”自己的行為，不涉及其他對象，不能帶賓語；後一句中帶上了賓語，“向東”就不是主語“王”的行為了，而是使賓語“蘇子”有這種行為。

再者，名詞用如及物動詞時，如果帶上受事賓語，就是一般用法；如果帶上施事賓語，則為使動用法。試比較：

(176) 老者衣帛食肉。

（《孟子·梁惠王上》）

（老年人穿上絲綢衣服、吃上肉。）

(177) 富貴不歸故鄉，如衣綉夜行，誰知之者？

（《史記·項羽本紀》）

（富貴不回家鄉，就像穿着錦綉衣服在夜裏行走，誰能看得見呢？）

(178) 歲終，布帛取二制焉，余以衣士。

（《韓非子·外儲說右上》）

（年終，棉布絲綢各留取二制〔三丈六尺〕，把剩下的給士人們穿。）

(179) 解衣衣我，推食食我。

（《史記·淮陰侯列傳》）

（漢王〔劉邦〕脫下衣服給我〔韓信〕穿，把東西讓給我吃。）

四句中“衣”用如動詞，都有“穿”的意思。但前兩句中賓語“帛”、“綉”是穿的對象，新動詞支配，後兩句中賓語“士”、“我”是行為的主動者，是發出動作的主體。所以前兩句中“衣”用如一般動詞，後兩句中是使動用法。

名詞用如不及物動詞，並且帶上了賓語，則不是意動用法就是使動用法。但這只能從上下文的意思來斷定。因為意動用法、使動用法，在形式上完全一樣，只是意思上有所差別。意動用法是動賓結構表達主謂結構作賓語的內容，而使動用法，則是用動賓結構表達兼語式的內容。一般地說，意動用法偏於表示意念，是主觀上認為一種事物具有另一種事物的性質，在認識上把一種事物當成另一種事物，多是表示對人和事物態度和看

法。而使動用法偏於表示實際行動，是實際上把一種事物變成另一種事物，使一種事物通過具體行為去支配另一種事物，多用於表現某種行為所達到的具體結果和目的。因此，意動用法是“以之為……”的意思，比較“虛”；使動用法是“使之為……”的意思，比較“實”。試比較：

(180) 不如吾聞而葯之也。

（《左傳·襄公三十一年》）

（不如我們聽取這些議論，並把它當作苦口良葯。）

(181) 得而臘之以為餌。

（柳宗元：《捕蛇者說》）

（捉到毒蛇並把它晾成肉干用來作葯餌。）

“葯”的賓語“之”，指代鄭人在鄉校裡的議論。言論當然不能治病，不能成為葯。但可以針砭時事，評論政治上的利弊得失，使執政者從中得到教益。可見“葯之”不過是一種比喻，就像吃葯治病一樣來聽取百姓對政事的意見。因此是意動用法。“臘”的賓語“之”指代毒蛇。蛇不能看成是肉乾，但能做成肉乾。這必須通過晾晒烘烤等乾燥過程才能實現。可見“臘之”是通過具體行動，把蛇真正弄成肉乾用作葯餌治病的。因此是使動用法。

(182) 何以王齊國、子萬民乎？

（《戰國策·齊策》）

（怎麼當齊國的國王，做百姓的父母〔把全國人民當作自己的子女〕呢？）

(183) 文王以百里之壤而臣諸侯。

（《史記·平原君虞卿列傳》）

（周文王僅憑百里大小的疆土就使諸侯們臣服了。）

“子萬民”也是一種比喻，並不是說國君與全國人民真正結成父子關係（那也是不可能的），而是說國君應該關心人民，對待人民應像對兒女一樣。因此是意動用法。“臣諸侯”卻絕不是周文王主觀上要把諸侯曾作臣下來對待，而是他和諸侯真正結成了君臣關係，君臨其上，對其發號司令了。因此是使動用法。

(184) 孟嘗君客我。

（《戰國策·齊策》）

（孟嘗君把我當客人對待了。）

(185) 是欲臣妾我也。

（《宋史·胡銓傳》）

這是要讓我們成為金人的奴僕啊。）

“客我”不是“讓我做客人”的意思，“我”（馮諼）早就是孟嘗君門下的食客了，只是孟嘗君看不起“我”，不把“我”當“客人”看待，現在改變了態度，把我看成客人了。因此是意動用法。“臣妾我”是說奸臣和敵國的所作所為，目的就是要滅亡我宋朝，使我們成為他們的奴隸，而不僅僅是看不起我們，把我們看成奴隸。因此是使動用法。

(186) 過我而不假道，鄙我也。

（《左傳・宣公十四年》）

（楚使通過我們〔宋國〕的國境，卻不正式向我們借路，這是把我們國家看成他們自己的邊邑了。）

(187) 越國以鄙遠，君知其難也。

（《左傳・僖公三十年》）

（越過另一個國家而要把遠方的土地變成自己的邊邑，您知道那有多麼不容易啊！）

前句中“鄙我”，不是把宋國變成了楚國的邊邑，當時楚未向宋進攻，更沒有佔領宋國，也還沒有滅宋的目的和計劃，只是使者出入宋國國境不申請宋國批准，故意違反外交禮節進行挑釁，以表示宋國的蔑視。因此是意動用法。後句中的“鄙遠”，雖然是假設未來的事情，但明確指出秦國的野心和目的就是想跨過另一個國家（晉）而把鄭國滅掉，妄想把遼遠的鄭國領土劃入自己的版圖，而且正在採取具體行動以使目的變成現實。因此是使動用法。

通過上述分析，似乎可以作出這樣的結論：名詞意動用法，是使賓語（所代表的人和事物）產生與這個名詞一致的概念，是對賓語作出一種新的判斷。名詞使動用法，是使賓語產生涉及這個名詞的行為和變化，是對賓語進行陳述。

※ ※ ※ ※

談到這裡，我們已經接觸了一定數量的關於名詞動用的語言材料。在此基礎上，我們再把問題歸結到名詞動用的意義上來。前人指出，“虛用活用，亦非修辭者勉強杜撰如此。蓋天地間虛實亙相倚，體用不相離，至靜之中而有至動之理。凡物皆然，彼字之死實者，亦一物也，故其理自然可以如此”。〔8〕認為名詞動用，是“因其有自然之理而過其一時之意”。這所謂“自然之理”，就是指事物與行為之間的內在聯繫。如“耳目”是人和動物身上的兩種感官，是具體的事物，古人稱之為“體”，是“實”的、“死”的、“靜”；而“視聽”是耳目的功能，也是他們的行為動作，古人稱之為“用”，是“虛”的、“活”的、“動”的。正因為

“耳目”與“視聽”有着不可分割的聯繫（即所謂虛實相倚，體用不離），因此才可以將“耳目”活用為“視聽”之意。例如：

(188) 若先，則恐國人之屬耳目於我也，故不敢。

（《國語·晉語五》）

（如果我搶先回來〔爭功〕，那麼恐怕國內的人們都在聽着我、看着我呢〔對我探聽、察看、注意我的行為表現〕。所以不敢先回來。）

可見，名詞動用雖是臨時假借，卻不能隨便亂用。必須事物與行為有聯繫，才能根據古漢語的這種語言習慣，用事物的名稱來表示事物的行為。

名詞動用是古代漢語的一個重要語法現象，然而又不純屬語法範疇。如果用得恰當，它可以大大加強語言的表現力，收到簡潔精練而又生動形象的效果。因此，這種活用也是重要的修辭手段。陳望道先生所著〈修辭學發凡〉，就把“轉類”（即詞類活用）單獨作為一個辭格，進行專門論述，並且在“復疊”辭格中，也講到了名詞動用問題。就以“耳目視聽”為例，如果例(188)中“耳目”直接改用視聽，則“意盡言中”而索無餘味，活用“耳目”，“則體用俱來，而形神飛動”。〔9〕又如：

(189) 君執弓，腰二矢，指一矢而興。

（韓愈：《國子助教河東薛君墓志銘》）

（薛君挽着弓，腰裡挎着兩枝箭，用手指挾著一支箭站了起來。）“腰”、“指”兩個名詞活用為動詞，不僅能表示出挎、帶、操、持等動作，而且還表示出挎矢的位置、握矢的方式，綜合起來，便把薛君的舉止神態描述得維妙維肖。可見它比用動詞所表達的內容要複雜，豐富得多，一個字既起到謂語的陳述作用，又起到狀語的修飾作用，真是既新奇，又簡練。如果只用一個動詞，就顯得平淡無味了；若再加上一些狀語，也不見得能夠生動，反而顯得語得囉嗦，並失去句式的整齊，破壞了語言的節奏美。本文所舉大量例句，如“手劍而從之”、“驢不勝怒，蹄之”……，等等，都有這種生動精練的效果。試想，如果把“腰二矢”、“指一矢”、“手劍”、“蹄之”改為“挎二矢於腰中”“挾一矢於指間”、“以手握劍”、“以蹄踢之”不但文字增多了，神韵也消失了。

有些動詞如用名詞，本身就是為了進行比喻。如“葯之”把議論比作苦口良葯，以表現古代政治家的廣開言路；子萬民”把百姓比作子女，以體現古代所謂“仁君”的要求；“俎豆予”，則用祭祀的禮器比喻尊敬崇拜；“所魚肉”則以烹調的菜餚比喻任人宰割；“吳王我”用吳王僚被專

諸刺殺的史實比喻使我處於被殺地位，既是活用，又是比喻，還是用典，其表達效果，是不待多言的。至於使動、意動用法，則是用簡單的動賓結構來表達兼語句式和主謂結構作賓語的複雜內容，其句法精練之效，就更可觀了。

從文中所引的例句中，我們還可以看出，古漢語中大量名詞都可以活用。不僅普遍名詞、方位名詞活用的頻率很高，就是穩定性極強的專有名詞也可以活用（如"吳王我"、"鍵而求其齊"等）；不僅單音節詞可以活用，雙音節、多音節詞組也可活用，有時甚至幾個名詞並列起來，一齊活用為動詞。如：

(190) 故齊冠帶衣履天下。

（《史記・貨殖列傳》）

因此齊國的帽子、帶子、衣服、鞋子可足供天下人穿用。）

僅僅四字，把齊國生產興旺、經濟發達、物資豐富，流通活躍等繁榮景象生動地表現出來了。

(191) 晉車七百乘，韅靷鞅靽。

（《左傳・僖公二十八年》）

這四個名詞都表示馬身上的韁繩籠頭之類，韅是套在背上的，靷是兜在前胸的，鞅是兜在腹部的，靽是兜在後大腿的。單是馬身上的韁繩就如此齊全，全軍裝備精良就可想而知了。僅僅四字就把晉軍裝備齊全、陣容整肅的狀態形象地表現出來了，而且能使人透過這種表面的現象，看到這只軍隊的強大戰鬥力，預見到戰則必勝的結果。這種活用之妙，真令人讚嘆稱绝，"古人用字之神，有味哉！有味哉！"〔10〕

註：

1 關於漢語的詞有無定類問題，語言學界曾有過爭論。本人採納大多數人的觀點，並據之立論。
2 關於兼類詞概念，語言學界似乎還沒有統一的、明確的定義。本文中提法，是個人的理解，很可能是錯誤的。
3 例(21)中"相秦"不是動賓關係，而是動補式的偏正關係。古漢語中，國名、地名等處所名詞，經常省略介詞"於"而置於動詞後做補語。"亡魏相秦"實際上等於"亡於魏，相於秦"。
4 "之"字作定語時是指示代詞，而不是人稱代詞。如："之子於歸，宜其室家。"（《詩・周南・桃夭》）"之二蟲又何知？"（《莊子・逍遙游》）
5 人稱代詞"而"、"乃"不能作賓語；"吾"不能在肯定句中作賓語。
6 "上"、"下"也是方位詞，但它們做動詞用的頻率幾乎比做方位詞用的頻率還高，可以把它們就看作動詞。因此"上"、"下"是"兼類詞"。
7 參見王夫之《說文廣義》。
8 9 參見袁仁林《虛字說》。
10 見馬建忠《文通》。

談語法教學

李學銘

一、 引言

語法，最初稱為「文法」。1627年李之藻譯的《名理探》出版①，首先提出了「文法」一名，後來又有「文通」、「文典」、「文式」、「文規」、「文譜」等名稱，都是外國文法(GRAMMAR)的譯名。這些名稱，與講究文章寫作的人所說的「文法」、「文則」、「文例」、「文軌」等等不是同一樣東西②。

1898年，馬建忠《馬氏文通》出版③，是一部參考了拉丁語法而寫成的專著，對當時中國來說，是一部較全面、較有系統的創新之作，但無可避免地有生搬硬套、不盡符合漢語特質的缺點，即陳寅恪先生所謂「格義」式的語法著述④。其後，許多人提倡研究漢語語法要結合漢語特質，並且有過不少貢獻，只是生搬硬套的情形，還是不時出現；這不但影響了語法研究的成果，也影響了語法教學的實效。

五十年代以前，本港中小學教語法的安排，在國語、國文課中並不明確，一般的做法是，或設專課，或併合於讀文教學，或索性不教。如果教的話，教師大多傾向於講解語法知識，於是常常出現大談術語、大講理論的情形。五十年代以後，漸漸有較多人覺得語文教學中的語法教學，必須結合語文運用的實際，必須結合讀寫的實際，這樣，學生的語法學習，才能學以致用。這種「致用」的想法，使語法教學由術語、理論的講解，逐漸落在實際應用的要求上。到了六十年代，無論是國內、台灣或本港、新加坡，愈來愈多人留意到語法教學與語文教學的密切關係。到了七十年代，甚至有人倡議在中國語文教學中為學生設語法專課，使他們對語法的認識，既可見樹木，又可見森林。他們的意見，容或有不切實際的地方，我們不必一定信從，但語法教學倡議之盛，也就可以推想而知了。

現在，語法教學已不是個新鮮的話題，但由於爭論甚多，待解決的問題也不少，許多語文教育工作者，仍然對語法教學有不知所從的困惑。為了要取得交換意見的機會，我嘗試就語法教學的問題，引述一些學者意見，也提出自己的看法，藉供大家討論。

二、 教不教語法

在中、小學的中國語文教學中，要不要教語法，是長期以來頗富爭論的問題。很多人，包括不少中、小學語文教師，都不贊成跟學生講語法。他們認為，自古迄今，許多中國讀書人都不講語法甚至不懂語法，但文章

寫得不錯，甚至其中有些是傑出文學家；反而現在有些學了語法的人，包括一些語法學者，文章卻寫得不好；可見語法是沒用的東西，語法教學只是浪費時間⑤！呂叔湘先生不同意這種論調，他在《怎樣跟中學生講語法》中說：

> 文章的好壞，語法只是其中一個因素，還要多讀範文，講究作文法，講究邏輯思維。可是就拿語法這一件事情來說，學過語法的人比起沒有學過語法的人來，文字通順的比例也總要大些。古時候不講語法，出了不少文人學士，一點不錯，可是同時也出了數不清的文理不通的讀書人，不過他們寫的東西都沒有傳下來，大家都把他們忘了就是了。人們的各種技能很多是靠經驗得來的，是不知不覺學會的。可是能夠把經驗總結，懂得其中的道理，把不自覺的變成自覺的，不但知其當然，並且知其所以然，他的技能就會得到鞏固和提高。這個原則也適用於語言文字，語言文字運用也是一種技能⑥。

古人其實並不是沒有學語法，只不過他們通過多讀、熟讀、浸淫的方式，直觀地、不自覺地去學。呂氏的意見，雖為中學立言，但在原則方面的提示，我認為也適用於小學。張志公先生有類似意見，他在《教不教語法》中說：

> 所謂「教語法」，可以有兩種理解。一種是專指向學生系統地講解語法知識……另一種主要是指有計畫地指導學生作組詞成句的練習（講一點或者完全不講語法知識），使學生在語言的實際運用去體會、掌握語言的一些規律。前一種意義的「教語法」，我認為，不是絕對必要的，至少在某些學校的某些階段可以不要，或者不應當要；後一種意義的「教語法」，則由小學直至高中畢業，任何時候都是必要的，當然分量多少和程度高低當有所不同⑦。

張氏指出「教語法」有兩種不同理解，並認為如果「教語法」指的是教學生「掌握語言的一些規律」，則由小學直至高中畢業都要教。

根據上述兩位語文學者的意見，可見在中、小學的中國語文教學中，「教不教語法」不是問題，最低限度，不少語文學者也有同樣的主張。至於《中學中國語文科課程綱要》(1978)，並沒有「教不教語法」的明確提示，但在「應用練習方式舉例」中，有用詞、句型、句法變換、標點符號等練習⑧。而《中學中國語文科課程綱要（初稿）》(1989)「附錄一」的說明，則清楚地列出「語文基本知識的教學項目」，其中「語法」項下，有：(1) 詞類及其作用；(2) 句子的主要成分；(3) 單句和複句⑨。可見本港中學的語文教學，是要教語法的。在小學，中國語文教學要不要教語法？由於《小學中國語文科課程綱要》(1975) 和《小學中國語文科課程綱要（初稿）》(1987) 都沒有清楚說明，因此不少小學中國語文教師對這個

問題，往往提供分歧的答案，而且有相當大的一部分，認為自己從來沒有教過語法。不過我們如果細察這兩份《課程綱要》有關教學和練習的提示，例如字詞的教學和練習、句子的教學和練習、標點符號運用等等，其實都已涉及語法的認識和討論⑩。可見「教不教語法」，在本港小學也不是問題，「教甚麼」和「怎樣教」才是問題。

三、 教甚麼語法

本港中、小學的中國語文教學要教語法，本來是不爭的事實。但部分語文學者和語文教育工作者仍然提出「教不教」的疑問，主要理由，除了《課程綱要》的提示不夠明確外，是大家對「語法」這個名詞有不同的概念。如果有人問：「甚麼叫做語法？」我相信不同人可能有不同答案。呂叔湘先生在《怎樣跟中學生講語法》中把「語法」分為三種。他這樣說：

> 一般說「語法是一種語言的詞句組織規律」，這是「語法」的第一個意義，可以稱為「語法一」。語言學家研究了一種語言的語法，寫成一篇篇論文，一本本書，管它叫《某某語法》，這是「語法」的第二種意義，可稱為「語法二」。……此外還有一種情形，就是某些詞句，它的結構完全合乎這種語言的組織規律，可是不合事理……或者字眼搭配不當……有人說這不是語法問題，有人說是語法問題。如果我們承認這是語法問題，那就應該算是「語法三」了⑪。

一種語文本來只該有一種語法（語法一），但如果大家的概念不同，在理解時就會有上述三種分歧，加上各人掌握事實的廣度可能不同，分析事實的深度可能不同，看問題的角度也可能不同，再增添各人不同的性分，因此同一語文的語法（語法一），在不同的語法著作（語法二）中，就會呈現大同小異甚至表面上很不相同的情況⑫，而這些情況，往往困擾了不少語文學者和語文教育工作者。難怪不少從事實際教學工作的語文教師，都提倡「語法無用論」，都反對在中小學的語文課中教語法，雖然在實際的語文課中，他們其實正在不自覺地、經常地指導學生學習語法（語法一和語法三），也即是指導他們掌握語言規律和運用語文。

關於「語法一」，照常理而論，是人人都該學的，因為語法既然是語言規律，誰要是沒有掌握一種語言規律，誰也就沒法應用這種語言。只是有人仍然認為用不着學，理由是許多作家都沒學過語法，可是能寫出好作品。也有人初時主張人人要學語法，但讀了些語法書後，卻改變了心意，認為語法不必學，理由是發覺一個事實，就是學了語法，可沒有顯著地提高自己的寫作能力。上述兩種意見，都不能說不對，原因是他們所說的語法——語言規律，已基本為我們掌握了。一個小孩子能夠用母語來表情達

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意，證明這個小孩子已掌握了母語語法，只是他所掌握的，是口語語法，而不是書面語語法[13]。呂叔湘先生在《怎樣學語法》中，指出兩者的分別：

> 書面語言的語法是用口語法做基礎的，可是有兩點小小的差別：一、詞句的組織比口語要求嚴格些，也常常比較複雜些；二、有些語法格式（包括虛詞）只在書面上常見，在口語裏不大用到[14]。

因此，呂氏認為，這一部分的語法，還有必要學習，而且學習的範圍，可能還要包括「語法三」，即詞語選用、詞句結構以至篇章結構等等語文運用的問題。儘管語法學家可提出多種理由來反對詞語選用、詞句結構等等不屬於語法的範圍，但他們應該不會認為這不需要學習[15]。在本港，無論是教學或日常生活的溝通語言主要都是廣州話，廣州話這種口頭語的語法與現代漢語口頭語的語法已有距離，與現代漢語書面語的語法更有差別，因此分量適切、程度適切、教法適切的語法指導，對本港中、小學學生的書面語學習來說，是非常必要的。

關於「語法二」，不要說中、小學的學生吃不消，許多語文教育工作者和語文學者也受不了。因為一種語言的規律（語法一）本來只有一種，但「語法二」卻可以百家爭鳴，各持一說。這些語法學者的著述，大抵都能自圓其說，各有體系，但其中不免各有短長，例如某部分說得詳細些，某部分說得簡略些，某一點分析得較為深入、透徹，某一點解說得較為浮泛、膚淺，等等。這些著述的最大問題，是體系分歧，術語不一，除非是研究語法的學者，否則多讀這類著述，只會徒亂人意，更不必說要用來教學生了。對待這些著述，一般語文教育工作者不妨利用空餘的時間，翻閱最新出版的三幾種，藉以擴大、加深自己的認識，至於各家各說的比較研究，倒不如留待語法學者去傷腦筋了。

不過，無論是教「語法一」、「語法三」或認識「語法二」，無論在教語法時提或不提術語和理論，語文教育工作者都不應不留意語法規範的問題，否則放任自流，泛無所主，不但會妨礙學生的認知，而且也會影響語文教育工作者自己的語文修養。談到語法規範，該根據國內還是台灣方面的意見？周法高先生在《中國語文教學方面語法體系的問題》中說：

> 台北一帶的語言學者雖然努力介紹國外新的語法理論，似乎比大陸的語文學者要新潮一點；可是語文教學的踏實功夫卻嫌不夠。我曾經說：現代語法學理論太多了，一般大眾面對這麼多的語法學理論，真是無所適從。這種情形在大陸也出現過，但是因為一個軍中同仁的建議，於是統一使用較易使人瞭解的結構語言學派語法，和傳統語法理論相結合。雖然這種語法理論比較舊，但是比較容易使人懂，所以大陸的語法教育相當普及[16]。

我同意周氏的意見。站在教學的立場，我們如果不好高趨新，《中學教學語法系統提要（試用）》（以下簡稱《試用系統》），或可以用來作為語法規範的重要參考材料。在國內，進行系統的語法教學始於五十年代中期，當時有所謂《暫擬漢語教學語法系統》（以下簡稱《暫擬系統》）的產生。1981年7月，「全國語法和語法教學會議」在哈爾濱舉行，在會議中，制訂了《暫擬系統》的修訂方案，並在1984年2月發表了《試用系統》，這個《試用系統》，就是在《暫擬系統》的基礎上修訂而成的。有了《試用系統》，不但在教「語法一」和「語法三」時可以作為準則，就是在閱讀「語法二」的著述時，也較易於把不同說法湊合起來，以作對比。

四、 怎樣教語法

「怎樣教語法」是個教學法問題。談到教學法，有人認為：教亦多術，教學不必有常法；最有效果的施教方法，就是最好的教學法。我同意這樣的看法，只是在「多術」之中，也要根據一些原則，否則所謂「最有效果」，可能會引起「見仁見智」的爭論。我在這裏談的，主要是原則問題。讓我們先看看語文學者的一些意見。

張志公先生在《語法的內容、用處和學習方法》中說：

> 學語法的目的主要不在於記住一大堆術語、定義，而在於提高我們運用語言的能力[17]。

提高語文運用能力，是教語法的主要目的，而怎樣通過語法教學來「提高」能力，就是怎樣教的問題。張氏在《教不教語法》中認為：從語文教學的角度考慮，教師有計畫地指導學生組詞成句，即掌握語言規律，有更大的重要性，而系統地講解語法知識，則不必或不應每個階段都要[18]。他提到語言規律，屬「語法一」；語法知識，屬「語法一」的有關說明；組詞成句的練習，屬「語法三」。可見他心目中的語法教學，並沒有包括「語法二」在內。值得留意的是，他對「指導語言規律」與「講解語法知識」兩者，有不同的處理態度。

呂叔湘先生在《怎樣跟中學生講語法》中，也提出了怎樣教語法的意見。他說：

> 我認為應當把語法教活。就是說，不僅僅告訴學生這是甚麼詞，那是甚麼句，而是着重講用法，着重引導學生觀察人們怎樣運用各種虛詞和各種句法。簡單說，就是少問幾個「甚麼？」多問幾個「怎麼樣？」……這就要求教師每教一課語法都得做出很多的設計。第一步，先把課本和必要的參考書裏邊有關這個問題的情況整理出來。第二步，決定哪些內容要講，哪些內容不講。第三步，也是最費心思的一步，設計如何把要教給學生的內容在一定時間內按一定程序教給學生[19]。

「把語法教活」，「着重講用法」，這可說是教語法的原則。要符應原則的要求，就得要有很好的設計和具體的步驟。設計須包括教學內容和施教程序兩方面；具體步驟有三：第一步是盡量採用課本和必要參考書中的語法資料，第二步是內容的取捨或補充；這兩步屬教學內容的計畫。第三步則要設計把內容「在一定時間內按一定程序教給學生」，這是施教程序的計畫。可知他很重視整個教學的設計與安排。所謂「在一定時間」和「按一定程序」，是不是要集中時間、按既定施教方式把內容集中地教給學生？我看並不如此。因為「一定時間」指的是在計畫之內的適當時間，「一定程序」指的是在計畫之內的適當施教方式，因此時間會有短長，施教方式會有變化，教學內容會有多寡，加上要教得「活」，要着重「用」，當然絕不可能集中時間、內容大講術語、理論。換句話說，呂叔湘先生的意見，跟張志公先生不同意「系統地講解語法知識」的意見並不矛盾。我的理解是，張氏無疑很重視怎樣指導學生掌握語言規律，重視學生語文應用的練習，他所反對的是以語法書為據、按本宣科式的語法知識講解。這種講解，即使很有「系統」，但在中、小學某些階段，張氏認為可以不要，或不應當要。

五、「隨,機施教」與「系統施教」

提到「系統」兩字，使我想起了語法教學中有所謂「系統施教」和「隨機施教」的爭論。我的印象是：主張「隨機施教」的一些人，往往把自己與「系統施教」的說法對立起來，認為所謂「系統施教」，必然會只講語法知識，必然會大講術語、理論，必然會集中時間、內容來教。主張「系統施教」的一些人，一般會強調語法體系，一般會提倡要用專課來教；他們往往會刻意排斥「隨機施教」的說法，認為所謂「隨機施教」，必然會缺乏系統，必然會毫無計畫，甚至有人故意把「隨機教施」與「亂七八糟地教」等同起來。我以為，上述兩種說法，都犯了各趨極端的毛病。其實「隨機」與有「系統」或有「計畫」之間，並不衝突、矛盾。因為「隨機」不一定沒有預作教學內容和施教程序的計畫，也不一定沒有留意語法體系的規範，但面對不同施教對象，處身不同教學環境，配應不同語文應用的需要，再加上突然產生的影響因素，教師必須隨機作靈活的調整、改變。這些調整、改變，當然會對預期教學成果有好或壞的影響。針對壞的影響，就要有課後的檢討和補救。這些檢討和補救，不但語法教學需要，語文教學以至其他學科的教學也需要。主張「隨機施教」的人，如果以為真的可以毫無計畫、隨意所之去教，那就會應了「亂七八糟地教」的評論了。

至於所謂「系統施教」，除了使我們想到語法體系以外，是不是也可理解為有條理地、有計畫地施教？如果我們在這方面有共同的理解，則「系統施教」與「隨機施教」並不對立。因為主張雖然不同，重視教學計畫則一。能重視教學計畫，教師就會在語法教學之前，既考慮施教程序的設計，又考慮教學內容的主從先後。例如：指導學生掌握語言規律，要不要講語法規範？要不要選擇語法體系？實詞較虛詞易掌握，會不會先教實詞的運用？實詞和虛詞各有難點，會不會把難點放在稍後施教？單句一般較複句易學，會不會先指導學生掌握單句？單句和複句也有難易之別，會不會由易入難？句子是句群的基礎，會不會先教學生寫好句子，才進一步學寫句群？配合語言規律掌握的指導，會不會講一點或者完全不講語法知識？等等。有了上述種種考慮，再結合課本或必要參考書的資料和學生語文應用的需要，才來釐訂整個語法教學計畫。這樣的計畫，無論主張「系統施教」或「隨機施教」，都是不可忽略的。至於實際效果，就要看具體教學情況。

說到底，「系統施教」也要教得活，也要隨機作適當的調整；「隨機施教」也要有計畫、有條理去教；語法體系牽涉到規範問題，無論講或不講語法知識，只要是語言規律的指導，作為指導者的教師，都要心裏有數。按照目前客觀條件，例如教學時間、學生的程度和興趣、課程的規範、教材的編排等等，我以為有計畫、有條理的「隨機施教」，在中、小學似乎較為適合。利用專課來作「系統施教」是否可行，得看將來的客觀條件是否能夠配合。如果利用專課大講特講語法術語、理論，卻不理會學生所用語文課本和必要參考書的語法資料，甚至拿一本語法書按本宣科，而忽略語文的運用，自己卻宣稱「系統地教語法」，這是我所不敢苟同的，我知道這也是呂叔湘先生、張志公先生等語文學者所不同意的。

六、 結語

談語法教學，不免會引起爭論。有些爭論本來不該有，例如「教不教」的問題。但「語法」的概念如果不盡相同，爭論就會出現，而且爭論會延伸到「教甚麼」方面去。

在中、小學階段，恐怕絕少人會主張教「語法二」，即各家語法學者的學說介紹。爭論較多的，應該是「語法一」和「語法三」的分量和程度，其中更牽涉是否講解語法知識的問題。在小學階段，大多數人認為不必講解或不應講解語法知識，即使講解大抵也限於利用課文資料引導學生認識名詞、代詞、數量詞、動詞、形容詞、單句、複句等等，副詞、介詞、連詞、助詞的掌握，大抵會歸併到句子仿寫方面去；至於句子成分和

複句分類，一般不會提出術語來說明。在中學階段，《課程綱要（初稿）》(1987) 的提示具在，語法知識非要講解不可，不過怎樣講解，爭論也就大了。我以為語法知識只是語法教學的一部分，而且不是最重要的一部分。語法教學應該着重在「用」，應該要結合學生的已有知識和語文應用的需要，去訓練學生掌握語言規律。語法知識的提供，應該要配合指導學生掌握語言規律的需要。這一點，我在「怎樣教語法」這一節中已有說明，在這裏就不必再覆述了。「隨機施教」與「系統施教」之間，我嘗試調協兩者的矛盾，到頭來可能兩面不討好。

語法認識，對每個人的語文修養都應該有利，那是毫無疑問的，只是不要目光狹隘、主觀片面、鑽牛角尖，否則就會有害。從事語文教育工作的人（尤其是語文教師），最好能對語法有較多、較深的認識，例如能了解語法最基本的情況和最容易出錯的地方等等，這樣在作語文學習的提示時，就會較有信心、較有把握。不過這並不表示知得多、知得深，就要教得多、教得深，個人認識與教學要求，絕不可混為一談，教學要為施教對象着想，這是每個明白事理和了解教學之道的人，都應該知道的⑳。

附註：

① 李之藻 (1565–1630)，字振之，仁和（今浙江省杭縣）人，明萬曆進士，官至太僕寺少卿，與徐光啟篤信西洋人利瑪竇之學。著有《頖宮禮樂疏》、《圜容較義》、《新法算書》、《渾蓋通憲圖說》、《天學初函》、《同文算指通編》；又譯《名理探》一書，是邏輯學的最初課本。

② 參閱朱星《漢語語法學的若干問題》，1979年4月河北人民出版社，頁1。朱氏指出：「語法和文法今有區別：語法指語體文的法，文法指文言文的法」。這個意見，或可商榷。因為我們現時談到語法時，有所謂「古代漢語語法」和「現代漢語語法」的分別，而古代漢語本來亦應包括古代語體文，只是大多數「古代漢語語法」參考書的內容，其實都以文言文為主。換句話說，「語法」也可指「文言文的法」。

③ 馬建忠 (1845–1900)，字眉叔，丹徒（今江蘇省丹徒縣）人。光緒二年 (1876) 留學法國，曾任駐法使館翻譯，歷官至道員。精通英文、法文及希臘、拉丁古文。他參考王引之《經傳釋詞》、俞樾《古書疑義舉例》等書，並從經、史、子、集中選出例句，用西方拉丁語文法，研究古代漢語的結構規律，撰成《馬氏文通》一書，這是我國第一部較全面而有系統的語法著述。他另有《適可齋紀言》四卷、《紀行》六卷。

④ 參閱拙文《陳寅恪先生談語文測試和語法研究》，語文教育學院中文系編《本文化和跨文化的教與學方式：語文教學的含義》，1989年10月香港政府印務局，頁191至194。

⑤ 參閱張志公《教不教語法》，《語文教學論集》，1981年2月福建教育出版社，頁287；呂叔湘《怎樣跟中學生講語法》，《呂叔湘語文教學論集》，1983年7月商務印書館，頁169。

⑥ 見《呂叔湘語文教學論集》，同上，頁169至170。

⑦ 見張志公《語文教學論集》，1981年2月福建教育出版社，頁287。

⑧ 參閱香港課程發展委員會編《中學中國語文科課程綱要》，1979年5月香港政府印務局，頁40至45。

⑨ 參閱香港課程發展委員會編《中學中國語文科課程綱要（初稿）》，1987年油印本，頁69至61。

⑩ 參閱香港課程發展委員會編《小學中國語文科課程綱要》，1984年2月香港政府印務局修訂本，頁10至12及頁14至39；香港課程發展委員會編《小學中國語文科課程綱要（初稿）》，1987年油印本，頁22至26。

⑪ 見《呂叔湘語文教學論集》，1983年7月商務印書館，頁171。在本文，呂氏在提及「語法」時，只舉詞語選用、詞句結構為例，而在《怎樣學語法》中，他則指出「語法」還包括篇章結構等等。（參閱《呂叔湘語文教學論集》，同上，頁157。）

⑫ 參閱同上，頁157。

⑬ 參閱呂叔湘《怎樣學習語法》，《呂叔湘語文教學論集》，同上，頁156至157。

⑭ 見同上，頁157。

⑮ 參閱同上。

⑯ 見香港中文教育學會編《中文科課程教材教法研討集》，1989年9月香港文化教育出版社有限公司，頁7。

⑰ 見張志公《語文教學論集》，1981年2月福建教育出版社，頁286至287。

⑱ 參閱同上，頁287。

⑲ 見《呂叔湘語文教學論集》，1987年7月商務印書館，頁173至174。

⑳ 參閱呂叔湘《怎樣跟中學生講語法》，《呂叔湘語文教學論集》，同上，頁172至173。

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中、台、港常用漢字的比較與普通話常用字拼音表

何國祥

1. 前言

1.1 《中國、台灣、香港漢字頻率統計中首二千字的比較》是我在語文教育學院所做的個人小型研究，用英文撰寫的研究報告將於1991年出版①，現在用中文撮錄其中的重要發現。

1.2 《普通話常用字拼音表建議稿》是該報告的附錄，收錄漢字3,154個，包括見於中、台、港頻率統計首2,000字的2,451個不同的漢字。關於此表編製的原則，本文也準備作具體的說明。

2. 中、台、港常用漢字的比較

2.1 中國、台灣、香港出版的書籍報刊中，哪一個漢字最常用？很多人都會猜到是「的」字；可是，在這三個華人聚居的地方哪10個漢字最常用？在中國最常用的10個漢字是否也是在台灣和香港最常用的10個漢字？這就不是那麼容易猜測、回答了。

2.2 根據分別在中、台、港進行的頻率統計結果②，三地最常用的10個漢字和先後等序為：

表一

等序	中國	台灣	香港
1	的	的	的
2	一	一	一
3	了	是	是
4	是	我	不
5	不	了	有
6	我	有	在
7	在	國	了
8	有	不	人
9	人	在	我
10	這	他（她牠）	為

2.3 比較三地最常用的10個漢字，可以發現其中有八個是相同的（即「的、一、了、是、不、我、在、有」）；另有五個漢字只見於一地或兩地的最常用10字之列。這五個漢字在中、台、港統計的先後等序為：

表二

漢字	中國	台灣	香港
人	9	11	8
這	10	19	11
他	11	10	13
國	37	7	55
為	39	95 wéi 98 wèi	10

2.4 值得注意的是：「國」字在台灣比在中國、香港常用。此字在台頻率統計中高踞第七；而在中、港頻率統計中只分別位列37及55。明顯地，「國家、中國、我國」等詞語在中、台出版文獻中的常用度會比在港出版文獻中的常用度高（香港統計採用的語料是1983年或以前出版的教科書、課外讀物及報章等，如果該統計在1984年後，香港前途明朗化後的今天進行，「國」字相信會跳升至一較高的位置）。

2.5 上述討論可知在不同地方進行漢字頻度統計會出現不同的先後等序。我在《西文漢語教科書中詞彙的比較研究》③中曾提到掌握最常用的2,000字已可滿足一般傳意的需要，因為這個字量在陳鶴琴和台灣統計④中分別佔有採用語料總量的96.5%和97.09%。下列數字可進一步支持上述論據：

(*a*) 首2,000字的累積出現次數在中國統計⑤中構成語料總字數的98%⑥；

(*b*) 首2,000字的累積出現次數在香港統計⑦中構成語料總字數的97.08%。

這觸發我探討中、台、港頻率統計中首2,000字異同的興趣。上文1.1節提到的研究報告第二部分便是一個詳細的比較表。⑧

3. 關於三種漢字頻率統計的資料

3.1 中國出版的頻率統計

《漢字頻度表》，見《現代漢語頻率詞典》，北京語言學院語言教學研究所編著，北京語言學院出版社，1986年，頁1299–1338。整項研究

及出版工作由語言學專家及教師歷時五年工作，方告完成。語料抽樣範圍包括報刊政論文章及專著、科普書刊材料、劇本和日常口語材料、各種體裁的文學作品和中小學語文課本等。實際統計的漢字共180萬。字表有累計百分率。

3.2 台灣出版的頻率統計

《國民學校常用字彙研究》，台灣國立編譯館出版，1967年。這個字彙研究由十數位語言、文字、教育、統計、心理各方面的專家領導，工作四年，方克完成。資料之選取，包括報章、國民學校課本、兒童作品、課外讀物、廣播稿和民眾讀物等六種資料計約75萬字。上文2.5節提及的首2,000字累計百分率(97.09%)由本文作者計算。請參閱拙作《西文漢語教科書中詞彙之比較研究》的表六（頁32，註③）。

3.3 香港出版的頻率統計

《常用字表》，見《香港初中學生中文詞滙研究》，香港教育署教育研究處，1986年，頁493–503。這是集合多方面的人力、物力和心力，歷經三年方完成的一個研究報告。詞語樣本取自初中學生所接觸的漢語語料，包括五個主要科目的課本及初中學生較常閱讀的課外讀物，共約78萬字。首2,000字的累積出現次數(763,000)及累計百分率(97.08%)（2.5節）亦由本文作者計算。香港人口90%以上是廣東人，因此字表上出現一些廣東方言字以「佢」、「嘅」等。

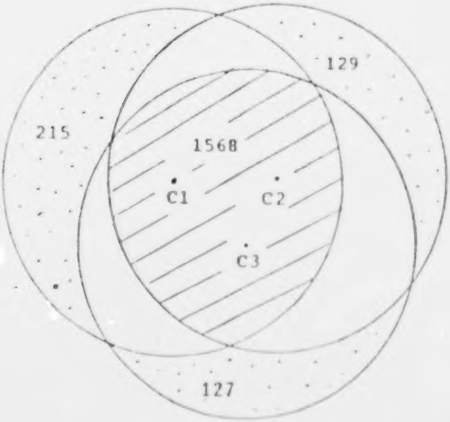
4. 統計與發現

4.1 得到的不同漢字數目與並見於三種資料的漢字數目

連異體字計算在內，三種資料比較下，可找到2.451個不同的漢字；其中1,568字在三種資料都出現（圖一），佔2,451字的63.9%，或2,000的78.4%。

圖一

三組常用字的重疊情況


129
215
1568
C1
C2
C3
127

C1: 中國最常用 2,000 字
C2: 台灣最常用 2,000 字
C3: 香港最常用 2,000 字

4.2 漢字分佈情況（按漢語拼音開頭字母分類）

研究報告（1.1 節）第二部分逐一比較中、台、港常用 2,000 字的先後等序，資料是按漢語拼音序的。表三是一個簡單的漢字分佈統計表，詳細的統計表請參閱報告第八至第九頁。

表三

字母	不同漢字數目	並見於三種資料漢字數目
a	21	9
b	116	77
c	155	90
d	124	83
e	12	7
f	92	57
g	113	74
h	122	78
j	200	134
k	64	36
l	154	87
m	105	68
n	51	30
o	4	0
p	72	39
q	97	59
r	35	23
s	188	134
t	98	68
w	80	51
x	141	92
y	191	133
z	216	139
總數	2,451	1,568

23組漢字中，漢字最多的是z字母開頭的一組，有216個不同的漢字；其後是j、y和s⑨，分別有漢字200，191和188個。四組字總數佔2,451字的32.4%。類似的分佈模式亦見於表三的第三欄。

值得注意的是，四組字中有三組是z、j和s，包括z、zh、j、s和sh聲母，這都是廣東人易犯錯的聲母。廣東人易混或發音易犯錯的聲母有三類，即：舌面音j、q、x；翹舌音zh、ch、sh、r和舌齒音z、c、s。我的另一項研究《漢語常用音素研究》[10]指出：這三類聲母的總出現次數佔有語料總數的39.1%。表四顯示這三類聲母在表三的分佈情況。

表四

字母	不同漢字數目	並見於三種資料漢字數目
z^a	216	139
c^b	155	90
s^c	188	134
r	35	23
j	200	134
q	97	59
x	141	92
總數	1,032	671
佔各自總數%	42.1%	42.8%

a包括聲母z和zh
b包括聲母c和ch
c包括聲母s和sh

在中、台、港最常用的2,000字中，這三類聲母的漢字也佔有一個很大的比例（在2,000字中佔40%以上）。在中、台、港最常用的2,000字中，較罕見的是拼音o、e、a開頭的漢字，字數只佔各自總數的1.2%至1.3%（表三）。

4.3 中國統計首2,000字累計百分比較高的原因

上文2.4節提到中國統計首2,000最常用字的出現次數佔去語料總數的98%；比台灣香港統計中相對的百分比低（即97.09%和97.08%）。做成這差異的其中一個原因可能是中國統計採用簡體字而其他兩個統計用傳統的繁體字。一個簡體字可以取代幾個繁體字。拿中國統計首2,000個（簡體）漢字與台灣香港統計首2,000個（繁體）漢字比較，可以發現前者多收見於後者的漢字34個[11]。事實上，中國漢字頻率統計收錄不同漢字4,574個，比台、港的4,708和4,902為少。表五為有關的簡體字和繁體字。

表五

簡體字	繁體字
表	表、錶
并	并、併
才	才、纔
采	采、採
冲	冲、衝
斗	斗、鬥
复	復、複
干	干、乾、幹
后	后、後
迹	迹、跡
系	系、係、繫
卷	卷、捲
里	里、裡、裏
历	曆、歷
念	念、唸
舍	舍、捨
松	松、鬆
台	台、臺
它	它、牠
余	余、餘
欲	欲、慾
赞	贊、讚
占	占、佔
只	隻、只、祇
制	制、製
致	致、緻
钟	鍾、鐘
周	周、週
准	准、準
折	折、摺

換句話說，中國統計的2,000簡體字實際上最少相當於2,034個傳統漢字。

異體字在香港統計中分開處理，首2,000字中發現異體字18對，其列如下（漢字右方為等序）：

塲361，場62；，擔1281、担1376；[illegible]141 and 737（其中一個可能是「[illegible]」的誤植）；款726，欵1325；決580，决940；你56，妳965；舉783，擧1103；况936，況1085；脚717，腳1441；雞1419，鷄1833；夠542，够1858；恒1500，恆1871；裏100，裡1146，線172，綫305；卻461，却668；只138，衹981；證536，証1061；煙1115，烟1139。

如異體字不作獨立漢字處理，則首2,000字可多收18字，這多收18字的首2,000字的累計百分比一定較高。

4.4 見於中國統計首2,000字而不見於台灣香港統計首2,000字的漢字

哎 挨 碍 俺 昂 澳 傲 叭 綁 傍 碑 蔽 鞭
扁 辮 剝 脖 [illegible] 艙 槽 蹭 抄 扯 徹 趁 襯
恥 醜 串 闖 唇 湊 攛 蕩 瞪 櫈 顛 雕 釣
吊 盯 逗 抖 堵 墩 蹲 噸 盾 閥 墳 糞 傅
咐 溉 肝 鋼 搞 擱 胳 [illegible] 鞏 拱 鈎 咕 刮
櫃 跪 棍 裹 旱 焊 嘿 哼 哄 猴 吼 嘩 幻
晃 悔 渾 伙 豁 饑 嫁 稼 艱 殲 揀 鍵 匠
漿 驕 澆 鯨 橘 倦 砍 炕 咳 墾 酷 誇 跨
框 筐 虧 愧 捆 [illegible] 辣 攔 撈 愣 簾 僚 咧
劣 淋 榴 攏 蘆 綸 駱 驢 掠 嘛 盲 矛 霉
眯 綿 畝 捏 扭 嗯 噢 哦 啪 攀 棚 捧 披
脾 闢 蘋 樸 竊 丘 嚷 惹 撒 灑 傘 嗓 嫂
啥 哨 嬸 豎 摔 霜 撕 塌 攤 灘 嘆 趟 掏
挖 娃 歪 頑 挽 妄 [illegible] 緯 喂 嗡 臥 捂 犧
媳 蝦 瞎 掀 鍁 餡 刑 丫 崖 咽 艷 秧 冶
姨 湧 猶 御 冤 猿 勻 允 糟 扎 眨 宅 帳
漲 偵 掙 皺 燭 樁 綜

細讀上列215字，可以發現一個有趣的現象：漁農業方面的漢字在中國統計似佔一較重要的位置，例如：

農業：糞、溉、槽、墩、旱、稼、澆、砍、炕、橘、筐、捆、淋、榴、蘆、畝、棚、闢、蘋、樸、丘、撒、灑、秧等。

漁業：釣、鯨、撈、蝦、艙、刮、湧、漲等。

此外，有「女」字偏旁的字在中國亦十分常用，如：嬸、嫂、媳、姨、娃、嫁等。

三個北方方言常用字「俺、[illegible]、啥」也在首2,000字中出現。

這些漢字足以令人聯想一幅幅優美的「農家樂」和漁村圖畫。

4.5 見於台灣首2,000字但不見於中國香港首2,000字表的漢字

笨 濱 丙 渤 泊 埠 曹 巢 黛 誕 蒂 甸 蝶
鵝 娥 帆 鳳 腹 竿 桿 贛 缸 岡 葛 閣 恭
躬 穀 桂 杭 亨 宏 蝴 黠 淮 徽 輝 霍 祭
艦 疆 將 蔣 蕉 鋸 捐 娟 凱 柯 墾 寇 壘
寮 陵 盧 鹿 螺 呂 螞 芒 黴 枚 緬 麵 咩
閩 姆 慕 諾 佩 澎 屏 浦 祁 僑 喬 禽 卿
瑞 薩 桑 陝 瀋 逝 獅 淑 薯 飼 寺 綏 潭
淘 蚊 錫 轄 咸 湘 巷 孝 洩 忻 匈 巡 雁
妖 疫 蟻 鷹 蠅 螢 嶼 譽 袁 粵 岳 宰 髒
鑿 藻 澤 贈 浙 蔗 貞 祇 芝 秩 仲 胄

比較台灣常見的129字與4.4節中國常見的漢字（圖一），可見一明顯的對比。與中國文獻常見漁農業漢字不同，台灣文獻常被染上濃厚的中國文化色彩，有關字例如：恭、躬、徽、祭、陵、祈、卿、瑞、淑、寺、綏、孝、貞、祇、秩等。

台灣統計中，中國地名和姓氏十分常見：

地名：渤（海）、贛、桂、杭、淮、閩、澎（湖）、屏（東）、浦（里）、陝、瀋、湘、粵、浙等。

姓氏：曹、葛、霍、蔣、盧、呂、袁等。

有關海洋或海軍的漢字在台灣會較中、港常見，這是不難理解的，字例有：濱、泊、埠、艦、凱、壘、轄、巡、嶼等。

4.6 見於香港首2,000字但不見於中國台灣首2,000字表的漢字

癌 斑 箔 搏 償 鈔 撐 橙 催 摧 脆 玳 氮
蹈 澱 碟 董 蕃 肪 彷 沸 啡 彿 嘅 庚 侯
弧 宦 迴 嬌 皆 捷 儘 菁 頸 拘 懼 矩 爵
咖 款 葵 闊 濫 廊 吏 瞭 鱗 玲 餾 絡 濾
氓 唔 瑁 蜢 乜 皿 寞 鈉 奈 妮 逆 廿 帕
胚 賠 膨 劈 曝 鰭 乞 氣 佢 軀 趣 荃 券
儒 茹 莎 衰 舜 艘 隋 遂 倘 骰 汪 旺 韋
勿 隙 霞 狹 弦 嫌 薪 羞 蓄 玄 循 詢 遜
押 姚 嬰 盈 泳 幽 浴 娛 悅 孕 砸 燥 賊
詹 診 箏 趾 誌 擲 驟 賺 錐 濁

見於香港首2,000字但不見於中國台灣首2,000字表的漢字有127個。值得注意的是，香港出版物常見反映香港生活的漢字，如：搏、償、鈔、爵、骰、薪、咖（啡）、款、（儲）蓄、娛、孕、賺等。

由於香港統計採用教科書語料，首2,000字中就出現了不少有關學校科目名稱的字詞，這都不是中國或香港統計常見的，如：

生物學字詞：橙、玳瑁、（脂）肪、胚、鰭、（蚱）蜢等。

化學字詞：箔、氨、沸、（蒸）餾、濾、氧、鈉、氫等。

數學字詞：弧、[illegible]等。

歷史學字詞：舜、隋等。

首2,000字中，發現兩個香港地名：「葵（涌）」和「荃（灣）」；也發現五個粵語方言詞：「佢、廿[12]、袞[13]、嘅、唔，相信這是部分香港報刊採用方言入文的原故」。

5. 結語

由於最常用2,000字在中、台、港三種漢字頻率統計中都有97%以上的累計百分比，由上述三組字得出的2,451個不同的漢字就表示覆蓋了97%以上中、台、港的出版物。海內外中國語文科教師、學生或教科書編者會發現這個有2,451字的字表具參考價值。字表除可幫助評估和修訂教材外，更可為編寫香港普通話測試常用常用字拼音表提供參考資料。

6. 香港通用普通話常用字拼音表建議稿

6.1 為了利用上文的發現，我另外編寫了一個《香港通用普通話常用字拼音表建議稿》，作為研究報告（1.1節）的附錄[14]。編寫時參考了香港教育署課程發展委員會的《小學中國語文科課程綱要初稿》(1987)中的《小學常用字表》。

6.2 拼音表收字3,154個，破讀另列但不另作計算。拼音表漢字總數(3,154)是這樣計算出來的：

$$\underset{}{2{,}451} - \underset{(6.3節)}{18} - 7 + \underset{(6.4節)}{479} + \underset{(6.5節)}{249} = 3{,}154$$

6.3 拼音表只收錄第5節提到的2,451字中的2,426字。異體字18對（4.3節）在表中用括號處理，如場（塲）、[illegible]（狗）。刪去下列七個方言字：

(*a*) 見於中國字表：俺、[illegible]

(*b*) 見於台灣字表：忻

(*c*) 見於香港字表：嘅、唔、廿、佢

6.4 根據《小學中國語文科課程綱要初稿》(1987)《小學常用字表》增加的漢字。

磅慚懲啜檔踱幅偏貿彙蝠誡楷纜琳鑼媚撓畔剖慳攘擅嚓隧涕婉熄罵嗅筵誼輿躁杖帚
榜怖澄蠢傲鈍俘乏禾爛傢劫措艦潦邏媒饞徘魄謙裙柵嗜嗽蹄丸嬉宵綉淹毅誘蚤脹粥
絆哺辰疳耽妒敷垢浩恍忌窖俊垃嘹淪玫喃嘔乒泣痊刪侍誦啼毆侮黯洶啞溢踴贓輾腫樽
拌跛掣矗息賭忿鴿憾謊坡僥掘潰聊碌茂募虐聘契娶霎恃頷濤彈蕪翔凶涯倚傭熨斬滯咀
頒駁澈鋤歹痘焚糕酣惶緋矯訣曠諒賂毽脊懦翩砌囚痢誓聳滔襪誣鑲倖馴怡穎韶債稚踪
跋柄炒櫥挫叮氛肴駭渙畸狡炬筷樑擄茅蔡鈕辮歧蜻澀屍耍潑託鳴羨屑穴謠瑩韭窄旨淳
扒庇鏟躇磋弔吩斡骸瘓稽嚼颶窟礫虜莽拇濘砰棋擒齒甥豎歉頹紊衙懈喧遙贏寓榔姹啄
凹艷蟬綢悴殿吠尷詭煥惑倔俱叩慄陋瞞沫釀烹棲欽騷滲怨壇屠吻鹹蟹婿漾鶯癒詐吱隊
慷弊詫躊簇惦坊丐瑰猾穗濺菊苛荔朧蠻渺匿袍淒怯衛慎激痰凸蔚俠卸恤瘤吟顫紮蜘綴
唉鄙廁寵肉笛販尬龜划夥賤鞠烤俐嚨侶覓溺龐瀑峭辱呻贖颱蜓畏暇瀉畚噍姻喻閘揉蛙
藹崩嘈侈蔥悼舵縛逛狐檻儉趟悚狸淩褸謎膩膀圃憔絨紳梳榕帖餵徙挾絮焰蔭裕淆枕囑
捱狽糙癡賜搗惰斧乖虹晰煎謹堪梨伶裸朦亮乓譜歉飪奢抒瑣眺萎膝攜鬍宴殷禦憎爪蛛
埃卑燦逞雌禱隨俯寡烘晦奸襟慨籬吝籮萌餒拚僕遣饒梢匙祟嗝枉夕諾墟臍逸愚噪賬咒

（479字）

6.5 作者增加的漢字

鞍 庵 壩 雹 刨 鮑 蹦 蝙 貶 彬 瀕 膊 蔔
卜 攙 嬋 丞 匙 稠 鎚 篡 搓 撮 銼 逮 貸
叨 狄 墊 奠 諜 咚 緞 哦 鄂 厄 梵 楓 孵
釜 賦 阜 柑 槓 骼 蛤 蚣 弓 菓 函 罕 褐
赫 鴻 胡 滬 桓 簧 煌 几 箕 蹟 唧 戟 撿
柬 繭 鑒 槳 蛟 酵 轎 疥 芥 靖 鵑 侃 吭
框 魁 傀 崑 剌 撈 姥 犁 莉 栗 鏈 廖 麟
霖 菱 琉 簍 爐 臚 祿 崙 蘿 堰 饅 獼 泌
銘 陌 牡 穆 妮 尿 挪 糯 嫗 琶 潘 螃 沛
澎 劈 琵 疋 僻 萍 鄱 蒲 崎 琦 籤 鉗 黔
嵌 蹺 翹 茄 擎 頃 瓊 鞦 銓 犬 糅 熔 冗
揉 汝 鰓 僧 擅 汕 腎 昇 矢 樞 塾 黍 蜀
帥 蟀 涮 朔 爍 淞 訟 叟 蒜 髓 穗 梭 癱
譚 檀 毯 滇 桐 屯 陀 唾 拓 罔 薇 巍 偎
煨 渭 尉 倭 沃 吾 梧 蜈 戊 晤 熙 蟋 禧
暹 絃 啣 腺 襄 餉 瀟 朽 醉 薰 勳 旬 殉
蕈 衙 醃 妍 彥 夭 耶 椰 夷 胰 羿 櫻 庸
蛹 佑 逾 榆 毓 淵 垣 嶽 鑰 云 寨 彰 漳
昭 兆 肇 禎 衷 舟 紂 貯 卓 濯 茲 諮 棕
粽 佐

（249字）

6.6 漢字讀音根據《現代漢語詞典》(1980)。1986年普通話審音委員會頒布《普通話異讀詞審音表修訂稿》，拼音表也作相應的修訂。

註釋：

① 英文名是A Comparison of the 2,000 Most Frequently Used Chinese Characters Found in Three Frequency Counts Carried out in China, Taiwan and Hong Kong。報告由教育署語文教育學院出版，香港政府印務局印行。

② 詳見下文3.1-3.3節。

③ 何國祥，A Comparative Study of the Chinese Vocabulary in Several Textbooks for Westerners（英文稿），香港中文大學出版社，1979。請參頁33第一部分序言和統計報告。

④ 陳鶴琴統計工作於1928年在上海進行。該書所說的台灣統計亦即本文引用的台灣統計。

⑤ 詳見下文3.1節。

⑥ 這個百分率比台灣和香港的高因為中國統計採用簡體字，參4.3節。

⑦ 詳見下文3.3節。

⑧ 同①頁27至67。

⑨ 開頭字母z包括漢語拼音聲母的z和zh，同樣的，字母s包括聲母s和sh。

(10) 何國祥，A Study of the Relative Frequency Distribution of Syllabic Components in Mandarin Chinese（英文稿），香港中文大學中國文化研究所學報第八卷第一期，1976，頁275-352。

(11) 同註(8)。

(12) 此字有普通話讀音「niàn」。

(13) 普通話讀shuai，意為微弱、衰弱。

(14) 同註(1)頁68-90。

孔子的語用學思想

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一、 引言

語用學 (pragmatics)，通常認為是研究語言符號跟使用語言符號的人之間的關係，或者也可以廣義地理解為，人們使用語言進行交際如何做到說話得體的問題。我願意暫持後一種理解來探討孔子的語用學思想。

孔子（公元前五五一——前四七九年）是我國古代最著名的教育家和思想家，據記錄孔子言行的《論語》記載，他的門人中有擅長德行、言語、政事、文學四個方面的人才；也有人說是孔子設這四科教育他的門人。不管持哪種說法，"言語"在孔門中佔有重要地位。《論語．先進》說，"言語：宰我、子貢。"這裏的"言語"就大體相當於我們現代所說的"言談"或"說話"。這句話是說宰我、子貢是孔門中善於說話的代表人物。據《史記．仲尼弟子列傳》記載記，宰我、子貢都以"利口巧辭"稱著，即這兩個人都善於辭令，能說會道。特別是子貢，司馬遷稱贊他的辯才說，"故子貢一出，存魯，亂齊，破吳，強晉而霸越"。這真可以說"一言興邦"、"一言喪邦"，足見"言語"（說話）作為一門學問在孔門中佔有非常重要的地位。

"言語"在《論語》裏合用的只有上舉這一處，其他所有篇章都是"言"和"語"分用，其中"言"用了一百二十二次，"語"用了十三次。"言"常用作名詞，當"言談"解，"語"多用作動詞，當"說"或"說話"解。結合用例，《論語》裏所談到的"言"或"語"都與人們日常生活使用語言無關，只涉及倫理政治一類大事如何言談的問題。從這方面看，籠統地講孔子的語用學思想是不恰當的，毋寧說孔子在對待倫理政治方面如何教育弟子注意言談或說話的。因此，或可以把我們研討的問題限定為孔子的倫理語用學思想。

二、 言談的原則

孔子生活在春秋晚期，正是"禮壞樂崩"、西周宗族制度逐漸解體的時代。他為了拯救崩潰的宗族制度，在政治上主張恢復周禮，要糾正"君不君、臣不臣、父不父、子不子"那種違禮的現象，在意識形態上提倡仁

德，要達到“愛人”和“己所不欲，勿施於人”（《論語·子路》）的境地。因此，他以“仁以為己任”（《論語·泰伯》）和“克己復禮為仁”（《論語·顏淵》）的信條來約束自己及其門弟子的言行，於是他在言談準則上提出“正名”（《論語·子路》）和“非禮勿言”（《論語·顏淵》）的倫理政治標準。

孔子認為，“天下有道，禮樂征伐自天子出；天下無道，禮樂征伐自諸侯出。”（《論語·季氏》）所以“正名”，就是為了“復禮”，即把當時“天下無道”而搞亂了的名份關係按照周禮制度復興起來，天下才得太平，這是“為政”的要道。否則，就是“名不正則言不順”，從而會引出“事不成”、“亂樂不興”、“刑罰不中”的連鎖反應。簡言之，“名不正則言不順”、“非禮勿言”，這是孔子為拯救行將崩潰的西周宗族制而提出的“言談”（說話）最高原則，違背這一最高原則的話，不管你多麼會說話，都是不合時宜的違禮行為。

與言談的最高原則相悖，盡管如孔門中善於辭令的代表人物宰我、子貢，孔子都持指責的態度。宰我欲改“三年之喪”，孔子斥之為“予之不仁也！”（《論語陽貨》）；子貢“欲去告朔之餼羊”，孔子表示出“賜也，爾愛其羊，我愛其禮”（《論語·八佾》）原則分歧。因為“三年之喪”、“告朔之餼羊”是西周時代的古制，改變古制的言論，不管你講得多有道理，都是“不仁”和“非禮”。這說明違背“仁”、“禮”原則的言談，孔子一概持否定態度。同時也說明，孔子並不是單純的、抽象地評價言談，而是依據言談的內容（仁、禮）作為臧否人物的準則。如果說“言為心聲”、“言如其人”是至理名言，那麼孔子早就提出了“知言”是“知人”的前提，“不知言，無以知人也”（《論語·堯曰》）。他把“知言”同“知命”、“知禮”並提，更可看出他對言談的重視程度。

由於明確限定了言談的倫理政治原則，孔子進一步提出“慎言”的規定。《論語》記載孔子提出“慎言”的語錄很多，如“敏於事而慎於言”（《論語學而》），“慎言其余則寡尤”（《論語·子張》），“君子欲訥於言，而敏於行”（《論語·里仁》），“仁者，其言也訒”（《論語·顏淵》），“君子欲其言，無所苟而矣”（《論語·子路》），“君子恥其言而過其行”（《論語·憲問》）；他的門人也牢記其教誨，“君子一言以為知，一言以為不知，言不可不慎也”（《論語·子張》），等等。這裏的“訥於言”、“其言也訒”，都指的是說話要謹慎。這些規定是孔子教育他的門人，要做一個“復禮”的君子，說話要特別謹慎。如果隨便說話，言過其實，不僅犯錯誤，遭人恥笑，而且是嚴重的違禮行為。

與"慎言"相對，孔子十分痛恨"巧言"。他厲聲斥責"巧言令色，鮮矣仁"（《論語·學而》），"巧言亂德"（《論語·衛靈公》），"巧言，令色，足恭，左丘明恥之，丘亦恥之"（《論語·公冶長》），"惡利口之覆邦家者"（《論語·陽貨》），"御人以口給，屢憎於人，不知其仁"（《論語·公冶長》）。"利口"、"口給"，都是說"口辭敏捷"，與"巧言"同義。由此看出，孔子認為，長於辭令、口才敏捷的人是"鮮仁"、"亂德"以致"覆邦家"的罪人，是社會動亂的禍根。這從反面又証明，孔子的語用學思想不是憑言談的表達形式論好壞，而是以說話的內容是否符合倫理政治原則定是非。

當然，孔子也主張說話"辭達而已矣"（《論語·衛靈公》）。孔子這句話常被引用作為修辭的準則。皇侃義疏說："言語之法，使辭足達其事而已，不煩美奇其言以過事實也。"這自然無可非議。但我以為，根據上述孔子的倫理語用學思想，他不是抽象地談使用語言的表達形式，做到"辭達而已"；而是一方面與"慎言"相契合，不多說話；另一方面，與"巧言"相對立，反對"美奇其言以過事實"，這才符合"訥於言"的"君子"、"其言也訒"的"仁者"的思想。

三、 說話的方式

說話是有目的的使用語言的行為。要使說話達到預期的目的，必須考慮說話者的身份和說話的對象、場合、時間、地點以及說話環境諸種因素，才能收到良好的交際效果。通俗地說，就是必須考慮對什麼人說什麼話，說話要分場合，才能做到說話得體。

孔子是一位恢復周禮、維護西周宗族制的君子人物，是興辦教育（立私學）的師長，有他高貴的身份和教養。所以他總是站在維護封建統治階級利益的立場說話，而絕不失身份說出與"仁"、"禮"無關的話，"子不語怪、力、亂、神"（《論語述而》）；或者"小人"常說的話，"子罕言利"（《論語·子罕》）。"言利"是"小人"經常掛在口邊的話，"君子喻於義，小人喻於利"（《論語·里仁》）。可見孔子說話原則界限分明。孔子言傳身教，並用這一原則教育他的學生。上面說到的"言談的原則"已經証明了這一點，這裏不贅述了。

在遵守言談原則，不失"君子"身份的前提下，對於說話的方式孔子是很講究的。孔子很注意說話的對象和場合。"孔子於鄉黨，恂恂如也，似不能言者。其在宗廟朝庭，便便言，唯謹你"（《論語·鄉黨》）。"恂恂"，溫和恭順的意思；"便便"即"辯辯"，"便便言"意即善於說話。這是說，孔子在家鄉父老面前，顯得溫和恭順腼腆，好像不會說

話的樣子；而在宗廟祭祀和朝廷議事的場合，卻善於說話，只是說話比較謹慎罷了。“朝，與下大夫言，侃侃如也；與上大夫言，誾誾如也。君在，踧踖如也，與與如也”（《論語·鄉黨》）。“侃侃”，形容說話理直氣壯，從容不迫。“誾誾”，和顏悅色的樣子。“踧踖”，恭順而不安的樣子，“與與”，小心謹慎的樣子。這是說，孔子在朝廷上，同下大夫說話，理直氣壯；同上大夫說話，和顏悅色。當君主在場的時候，顯得恭順而不安，小心而謹慎的樣子。根據不同對象和場合採取不同的說話方式，這是孔子嚴格遵守“在上位不陵下，在下位不援上”的“君臣有敬”、“尊卑有序”的周禮原則說話的。

說話也要注意環境。大到一個國家的政治氣候，小到人與人之間的言談氣氛，都得考慮該說什麼話和怎樣說話，這就是注意說話的環境。孔子在這方面也有講究的。“邦有道，危言危行；邦無道，危行言孫”（《論語·憲問》）。“危”作“直”解，“孫”同“遜”。這是說，國家有道，就直言直行；國家無道，仍舊直行，但說話要隨和謹慎。這潛在的意思或是避免“忠言逆耳”帶來的不幸。“侍於君子有三愆：言未及之而言謂之躁，言及之而不言謂之隱，未見顏色而言謂之瞽”（《論語·季氏》）。“愆”，罪過，過失。“瞽”，盲人。這裏的“君子”，應指在位者。這是說，侍奉君子的時候，要注意避免三種過失：當君子還未說話的時候，你先說，就是急躁；當君子已經說到了，你還不說，就是隱瞞（自己的觀點）；不看（君子）臉色而貿然說話，就是瞎子。這說明孔子很注意說話環境，根據不同的環境採取不同的說話方式。

孔子根據他“克己復禮為仁”的倫理政治標準，通過言談，網羅人才，提出“不失人，亦不失言”的原則。《論語·衛靈公》說：“可與言而不與之言，失人；不可與言而與之言，失言。知者不失人，亦不失言。”這裏的“知”同“智”。就是說，可以同他說話的人卻不同他說話，就是失掉了（同道的）人才；不可以同他說話的人卻同他說話，就是說錯了話。聰明的人既不失掉人才，又不說錯話。這段話除了表明注意說話對象外，還要善於把握住說話時機，意即當說而不說，錯過了時機，不對；不當說而說，也不對。孔子對公叔文子（衛國大夫）“時然後言，人不厭其言”（《論語·憲問》）的話持肯定態度，就是說，該說話的時候才說，因此別人不厭惡他說話。這更足以証明孔子注意把握說話時機的重要性。

孔子還提出“食不語，寢不言”（《論語·鄉黨》）、“車中，不內顧，不疾言”（《論語·鄉黨》）的戒條。這也是遵循周禮，保持“望之儼然”的“君子”風度；但同時也啟示人們注意說話的地點，不是說話的地點，就不宜隨便說話。

綜合上述，孔子的語用學思想是他為振興西周宗族制度整個思想體系的一個重要組成部分，是統治階級精神文明建設一大法寶，具有鮮明的階級性和時代烙印。但是，如果把語言作為人類社會的文化載體來觀察，孔子作為一位歷史上偉大的教育家和思想家，他認識到了語言使用在社會生活中的重要作用，提出了一套調節人際關係的語言使用的原則和方式，這是對人類文化的一大貢獻。如果我們持批判繼承的態度，孔子的語用學思想對我們仍有啟發和借鑒作用。

漢字形符的類化與識字教學

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0. 圍繞着漢字改革問題而展開的關於漢字優劣的爭論近年來已經較過去深入多了。人們發現過去對漢字的一些指責缺少科學實驗的基礎，因而也是膚淺的。例如，說漢字"難記難認"因而阻礙了文化科學的普及和發展，就沒有兒童和成人識字、讀書、寫作全過程的實驗和論證，所謂的"難"其實僅限於識字的初始階段。漢字與詞的關係遠比拼音文字與詞的關係密切得多；而一旦識字者結束了識字階段進入單純的閱讀和寫作階段，那麼他的學習速度就要比使用拼音文字者快得多。這是因為"漢字辨義性強"、"不少字能見形知義"；其所以能見形知義，則與這一事實有關："漢字形體結構的獨特性，使它能夠隨漢語的發展，適應社會交際的需要而不斷創造新字，分化舊字，從而保持漢字記錄漢語的明確性。"① 但是，漢字是如何"適應社會交際的需要而不斷創造新字，分化舊字"的？這是深入研究漢字優劣應該搞清楚的問題。正是這一問題的驅使，近年來我對漢字的分化和發展產生了濃厚的興趣。漢字形符的類化問題就是對漢字分化和發展的考察之一。

1.0 形符又稱意符，"意符表示形聲字本義所屬的意義範疇"。②換言之，形符是形聲字字義所屬類的標誌。③意義範疇、字義所屬的類並不等於字義自身，而字義，在上古基本上就是詞義。因此可以說形符反映出先民對詞及其所表示的概念分類的認識。

1.1 所謂"形符的類化"指的是這樣的現象：一個字（多數是象形、指事、會意字）受與其字義同類的形聲字的影響（實際也就是受其字義所屬範疇的影響）而變成了形聲字，原字則成為該形聲字的聲符；或是在同樣的影響下形聲字的這一形符換成了另一形符，而這兩個形符所標誌的類往往相近或相同。前者如：

帝：蒂　《廣韻》謂蒂為俗字。

肅：[illegible]　《小雅·鴻鴈》："鴻鴈于飛，肅肅其羽。"《釋文》："肅肅，本或作[illegible]。"

曼：漫／蔓　《離騷》："路曼曼其修遠兮。"《釋文》作漫漫。《爾雅·釋草》："[illegible]，蔓于。"《釋文》："本作曼。"

卷：[illegible]　《陳風·澤陂》："有美一人，碩大且卷。"《釋文》："本又作[illegible]。"

後者如：

蔦：樢　　《說文》："寄生草也。"以樢為蔦之重文。段玉裁云："草屬，故從草，寓木，故從木。"《廣雅》收樢字，入《釋木》。

苦蔞：栝樓　　情形與"蔦：樢"同。

眡：眎：視　　《說文》以眡、眎為視之古文。眎與視為形符類化。

穅：糠　　《說文》作穅，重文作康。糠為後起。

1.2 形符的類化最初是在非形聲字身上發生的，待到形聲增多，又出現了此形符易為彼聲符的現象，再到後來，又有在形聲字上再加義符的現象，例如：

然：燃

羕：漾　　羕字僅見《說文》，段氏謂漾為羕之譌字；不應作如是觀。

奉：捧

感：憾

但這一類為數不多。不過這倒給我們一個明確的啟示：形符的類化是一個過程，是在民族文化歷史的漫長時間中不斷發生的。在下文分析形符類化的類型時，我們從所舉的例證中會時時感到這一類化的歷時性。

2.0 現在我們考察形符類化的類型。需要說明的是：這裏所分的各種類型，界限並不嚴格，因為形符的增添與改易主要是反映人的觀念的明確與變化（詳下），而各種觀念之間的分界有時是很模糊的。因此下面的敍述與其說是分類，還不如說是力圖描繪出形符類化所反映的幾種觀念。

2.1 區分專用型，例如：

垂：陲　　肅：䎘

曼：漫／蔓　　右：祐／佑

"垂"之邊界義乃下垂義之引申，為區別二者著明邊界義之類，遂加阜旁，蓋古之邊界常以山或人為之土包為準。肅字用於形容鳥羽，本為象聲，其形體結構屬象形抑或其它本無關係，而《釋文》所記或本卻用形聲字，其類化既有從羽諸字如翊、翩等的吸引，又受其語境(CONTEXT)"于飛"、"羽"的影響。右字本義為"助"（《說文》），神助、人助既分別另製從示、從人之字，右字遂為左右字之專用。曼字的情形略異，漫專用於水，蔓專用於草類，二字字義與曼的距離不若右與祐、佑之遠，而曼又分別可與漫、蔓通用。陲、䎘等四字均為標明其所屬意義類別而造，其絕大多數是為原字（如右、曼）或增添形符後的字（如陲、䎘）的專有化而存在。此類還有諸：藷，尉：慰/熨，干：竿等。

2.2 標示質用型。例如：

尊：樽／罇　尊之本義為酒器，段氏謂"自專用為尊卑字而別製罇、樽為酒尊字矣"。其說是。而《集韻》又有[illegible]、[illegible]，亦同此理，均為標示其質料與功用。

監：鑑　監字《說文》釋為"臨下"，實為引申義，臨皿自視或所以自視之皿方為本義。然則監之形體係為表其"用"而設，後加金旁以示其質料。

栰：筏　二者皆為後起字。時作栰，時作筏，係據所以為之之質料而異。

杇槾：釫鏝　杇槾見於《說文》，釫字見於《廣韻》，鏝見於《爾雅·釋宮》，但《釋文》云"本或作槾。》古代工具一般木製在前，故疑作槾是，段云"杇槾古字也，釫鏝今字也"亦即此意。

此類中增添形符者如尊：樽、監：鑑等，蓋係原字形體與其意義間的關係因字體變化而鮮為人知，增符後原字充字之聲。替換形符者如栰：筏、杇槾：釫鏝等，則為不同時代或地區構成該物之原料不同而易。由此也可見漢字作為一個係統總是頑強地保持住自己表意的特點。此外還有塼：[illegible]：磚、椀：盌：[illegible]：碗、韤：[illegible]：襪等。

2.3 觀念演變型。例如：

佼：姣　輓：挽

猨：[illegible]　鼺：[illegible]

佼，《說文》訓為交，《陳風·月出》："佼人僚兮"，佼為美好義，《釋文》云又作姣。古人以為美好者常屬之於女性，故佼以及儇、伃等字類化為女旁；又常以性情人際之壞事歸於女子，於是淫、干、愧皆改換或增添女旁以類化之。輓字屬車類，後世着眼於以手引之，遂改從手。[illegible]，《說文》、《爾雅》皆從虫，蓋以其古。《干祿字書》云："猿俗，猨通，[illegible]正"，則是古人先視之為虫（至宋猶稱虎為大蟲，至今北方呼蛇為長蟲，即是此理），後以為類犬。[illegible]之與[illegible]與此相近，以其似鼠、似鳥，故字或從鼠，或從鳥，各自表現了製字者的觀念、分類標準。[5]此類還有嬎：[illegible]、[illegible]：[illegible]、媿：愧等。

2.4 視角相異型：例如：

壻：婿　煖：暖

[illegible]：[illegible]　谿：溪

此類型皆因觀察角度的變化而類化。"壻為男子之美稱"（段玉裁），《爾雅·釋親》："女子之夫為壻"。是原初壻字從士乃因"壻"係就男方設字，從女子之親（主要是父）着眼。"婿或從女"（《說文》）則以

女方角度改寫。煖與暖相同，道理昭然，日與火為人類受暖的兩大來源。螭魑同物，谿溪共指，所以形符之異更清晰地表明觀察角度的不同。《說文》收螭字，解云"若龍而黃，北方謂之地螻"，是以螭為鱗蟲之類。龍字下云："鱗蟲之長，能幽能明，能細能巨，能短能長，春分能登天，秋分而潛淵。"則以[illegible]蟲又屬鬼神一類，故後世又造魑字，⁶另行歸類。谿出現在先，其所以從谷，係因"兩山之間必有川焉"，故《說文》注云："山[illegible]無所通者"（從段改），即山間小河。字形突出了與山的關係，字改從水，則強調了谿溪的另一方面，後世用以泛稱小河，與形符類化不無關係。此類現象還有糠：穅，[illegible]：糖，隄：堤等。

2.5 這裏需要專門討論聯綿字形符類化的情況⁷。聯綿字大多僅記其音，形體與所記錄之詞義並無關係，所以同一聯綿詞，往往有不止一種書寫方法。例如：

方羊：方洋：仿佯：彷徉

相羊：襄羊：尚羊：[illegible]羊：倘羊：仿佯：[illegible]徉：徜徉

裴回：俳[illegible]：徘徊

委蛇：委佗：委移：[illegible]蛇：逶蛇：逶移：逶迤

這裏所列四組聯綿字，都是有關行走的，其中方羊組與相羊組又有聲轉變形關係。羊易為洋、蛇易為移、相易為襄或尚，都是純同音代替，與形符類化無關。有趣的是，這四組經歷了同樣的過程：

寫法不定階段——從[illegible]或從虫——從彳或從[illegible]。

方羊、相羊、裴回進入彳類，是因為這些詞都是表現行走狀態的，委蛇最後"定居"在[illegible]類，是因為形符[illegible]是彳的源頭。作為中間階段的[illegible]，有可能被認為是彳的訛誤，但委蛇經過了從虫的階段寫作[illegible]蛇給了我們重要啟示：委蛇之狀很像爬蟲行進之態，所以從虫；那麼我們就可以作出這樣的假設：裴回多用以描寫人的動態，所以從[illegible]；而[illegible]顯然是受相伴出現的蛇的影響而造的。

由以上所舉的這組例證及其大量同類現象，我們是否可以得出這樣的結論：聯綿字的定形，通常是通過形符的類化完成的。

3.0 形符類化現象何以會出現在漢字的發展進程中？這需要從創造和使用文字的人群的主觀方面和文字發展演變規律的客觀方面去探尋。

3.1.0 形符類化的主觀動力是人們頭腦中概念的類化。人類認識事物，是從事物的個體開始的。當初民逐漸發現不同事物間的相同或近似處，從而對事物進行分類時，認識事物的能力就有了質的飛躍。這時人們頭腦中就形成概念，並學會了聯想。而概念和聯想能力又促進了事物個體的認識和對事物類別的認識。中國最古老的辭典《爾雅》把詞語分成了普通語詞（釋詁、釋言）、疊用詞和聯綿詞（釋訓）、專業語詞（釋親以下），而專業語詞又按親、宮、器、樂、天、地、丘、山、水、草、木、

蟲、魚、鳥、獸、畜分類，正是這種認識發展到相當高級階段的反映。

3.1.1 人們對概念和事物進行了多角度、多層次的分類，就要在記錄和超時空的表達時力求書寫符號在其形式上能呈現出類的差別和各類的特點。各種形符的形成以及其後的擴展，從字的個體說即形符的類化，就是為滿足這一要求而出現的。與記錄、超時空表達共生的是識字活動。而從實質上說，形符及其類化現象並不是為了書寫，而是為了辨識而設。傳說是漢元帝時代 (B.C. 48–B.C. 33) 史游編撰的《急就章》，是當時的童蒙識字課本，大體按姓名、衣帛、飲食等分類分章，蓋亦《爾雅》之流。但在同一類中字又盡量依形符再分類，例如第十三章：

甑[illegible]甂[illegible]罌[illegible]，絲[illegible]繩索紡絞[illegible]。
簡札檢署槧牘家，板柞所産谷口茶。
水虫科斗[illegible]蝦[illegible]，鯉鮒[illegible]鰤鮐鮑鰕。
妻婦娉嫁齎媵[illegible]，奴婢私隸枕牀杠。
蒲蒻藺席帳帷[illegible]。

本章中集中了較多的字的形符有瓦、糸、木、虫、魚、女、艸、巾，這些形符在其它各章中也都較集中地出現過，這正證明撰者在同一意義範圍中按形符將字再度歸類是有意為之的，目的使童蒙易學。

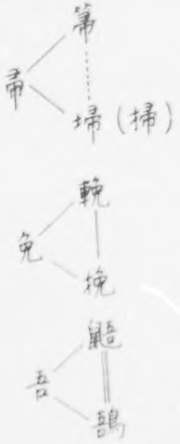
3.1.2 形符類化實際上也是人們對文字整齊化、系統化追求的結果。如果把形體作為綱，那麼幾千乃至數萬個個體字就會分類別分層次地排列，構成有序的羣體網絡。這對於識字者的確是很有利的。這是問題的一個方面。問題的另一個方面，形符的類化卻又滿足了人們對漢字區分性的要求。某一個字或一羣字只有明顯地區別於別的字或字羣才易辨易識。區分性與整齊性、系統性是相輔相成的。形符及其類化對漢字進行區別劃分有以下幾個層次：

A. 一個字加上形符，就與不加形符的和加了別的形符的字區分開了。如是：隄：由：釉。

B. 以同一個字作為字根（同時也是聲符），加上不同的形符，所指的事物即有明顯的區分[9]。如告：牿：窖：梏；支：枝：肢；咸：感：憾。

C. 形符改換，雖然形符所屬義類隨之改變，但由於前後所從之形意義相同或相近，所以其所標誌的詞所反映的概念並無不同，這是本文所討論的重點。如髀：䏶；壻：婿。

某一個形聲字靠了增加或更換形符而類化，就其與原聲符（字根）或原形聲字而言則是分化。其情形如下表：



整齊與區分，類化與分化，兩兩相反相成。追求整齊的結果是形符類化，進行區分的結果是字的分化。這就是漢字發展過程中人的主觀動力所引起的變化。

3.2 形符類化的客觀動力是漢語日益豐富的詞彙對記錄符號的需求。漢字為適應語言的發展逐步形成了一套自我完善、利用舊字或改造舊字以記錄新詞的方法。利用舊字計有二途：A、僅借其音以記新詞或他詞，此即通常所謂通假；B、詞義演變或至已分化為新詞，仍不造新字而以舊字記之，此即所謂"引伸假借"，《說文·敘》所說的"令、長"二例即是。改造舊字途徑主要亦有二：A、利用舊字創造新的會意字，如歪、孬、尖等；B、在舊字上加形符，造成新形聲字，如上文所舉各例即是。形聲字的不斷出現和調整也就是形符不斷類化的過程。因此我們也就可以說，漢字的使用不中止，新的形聲字也就不會不產生，形符類化現象也就不會完全消失。例如近時還有菲、氰、搞、、錶之類產生。據此我們不妨說形符的類化也反映了漢字發展到一定階段時漢民族對"文字——語言"關係的認識。

4.1 形聲字約占全部漢字的百分之九十以上。因此，形符類化現象對於漢字教學是有啟示有影響的。既然類化現象的出現與人的歸納、聯想能力有關，那麼在進行識字教學時也就應該啟發學習者（尤其是兒童）對形符進行歸納，調動其聯想類推能力，由此及彼，舉一反三。上文已述，形符的類化可分為若干類型，如果參考這些類型及其特點對教學者講解形符

的標誌和區分字義的作用以及形符改換的道理，一定會增加學習者的興味而收到更好的效果。至於形符類化對漢字系統性的強化，更可以提高學習者對漢字規律的認識，以助其從整體上有條理地掌握漢字。

4.2 但是，上述這些有助於漢字教學的因素至今仍未受到應有的注意。目前流行的教學方法是分散識字，結合文章識字。這種方法的長處是難點分散、漸進、記得牢。如果能從形符類化現象得到啟發而進行相對集中地識字、結合語言（對於兒童和把漢語作為第二語言的人具備的講漢語的能力尤為重要）識字的活動，效果可能更佳。

4.3 形聲字的系統性並非只體現於形符及其類化一方面；形聲字的另一半——聲符也是有規律、有系統的。前人對此進行了深入的研究，並得出了可觀的成果⑩。綜合其結論，約有數事：

聲符大多有義；

同聲符者（除假借用法外）往往同源，義有關聯；

聲符有"假借"現象，即聲符不同而其古音相同或相近者意義往往相通；

聲符（於語言即其語音形式）所表者係字（詞）族(或云字詞根）所標誌概念之性狀。如曼表長，卷表柔弱卷曲，耑叀表圓，屈曲，尊表敦重，等等。

要言之，形聲字的意義是靠形與聲兩部分共同表示的，"聲"表客觀的某種狀態，"形"表具有該種狀態的某一範疇（包括實、德、業），兩者結合即構成某字的字義。據此，我們是否應該創造一種形與聲交叉教學法呢？寫到這裏，已經涉及到本文題目之外的問題，我將在另一篇文章中詳細論述。

附注：

① 張拱貴〈對方塊漢字的再認識〉，《漢字文化》創刊號，1989。

② 王力主編《古代漢語》，164頁。

③ 形符並不等於部首，雖然二者大體重合。僅在字書中統領若干有相同構件的字而不能標記字義所屬類別者不能視為形符，如[illegible]、、、等。參王力主編《古代漢語》，151頁。

④ 《文選．北征賦》："過長城之漫漫。"此漫漫即前所引《離騷》句中之曼曼；《漢書．王莽傳》："遂至延曼連州。"顏注："曼與蔓同。"

⑤ 參《說文解字注》"[illegible]"字下。

⑥ 《左傳》中已有[illegible]字見文公十八年，疑非古文蟬字。

⑦ 聯綿字又稱聯綿詞。這裏討論其字形問題，姑且將二者分開。同時，聯綿字與上述幾種類型的類化現象並不屬同一個邏輯分類，但因它確有給予特殊注意之處，所以單分出一項進行分析。

⑧ 《急就章》各種版本略有異同，今以顏本為主，參以《玉海》等本。

⑨ 前人稱之為分別文、累增字，見清．王筠《說文釋例》卷八。

⑩ 例如章太炎（《文始》）、黃季剛（《文字聲韻訓詁筆記》等）等，沈兼士（《沈兼士學術論文集》）、王力（《同源字典》）。

語文教材的改進

陳德錦

——略談一篇作品的新書版本問題

香港的中學中國語文教材，一向給人的觀感是比較陳舊——這當然是指所選的現代文而非文言文——所謂「舊」不但是指這些現代文多屬於三十年代的作品，同快要踏入九十年代的今天，相距已有六十年時間，更重要的是：這些教材在語言文字上跟我們今天的白話文已有一段明顯的距離；就現代白話文的發展而言，這些舊課本屬於早期起步階段，不夠成熟；就語文教學的目標而言，這些舊課文阻礙了學生在讀、聽、說、寫各方面的效率。針對上述教材上的弊病，解決的方法，不外有三：1. 有系統地編整一個完善的中學中國語文教材綱領，訂立選材範圍；2. 選入較多當代（近二三十年）作品；3. 對原有舊課文進行必要和適當的文字加工。

將於一九九一年通用的新訂中學中國語文教材，在更換舊課文、選入新作品方面，有了顯著的改善，尤其選入了四篇香港本土作者的新詩、散文、劇本，雖仍有未盡善處，但總算初步改變了從前不選本土作品的積習。

不過，在選入新教材的同時，「課程發展委員會」對選材在語言文字方面是否適合教學這問題上，卻未能照顧周全。這裡，筆者只舉選入中學二年級的一篇作品為例，談談這個問題。這篇作品是為人熟悉的一個童話：《古代英雄的石像》，作者葉紹鈞（葉聖陶）。

《古代英雄的石像》寫於一九二九年九月；一九三一年六月，同其他八篇童話合成一集，由開明書店出版，書名就叫《古代英雄的石像》。一九五六年，中國少年兒童出版社請葉紹鈞自選童話創作若干篇，出版《葉聖陶童話集》。葉氏在該集後記中說：

> 於是我選了十篇，每篇都給修改，在語言方面加工。不敢自信，又請朋友看過。我希望這幾篇東西念起來上口，聽起來入耳①。

葉氏的長子葉至善亦曾提及修改舊作的經過，他在一本去年（一九八八年）出版的《葉聖陶作品集》的《編後記》中說：

> 當時我父親選了十篇，字斟句酌地改了幾遍，還請幾位朋友跟他一同改——一邊念一邊改，一定要改到「念起來順口，聽起來入耳」方肯罷休。……按我父親的想法，舊作重新出版一定得改，不是改換原

來的意思，而是作語言方面的加工，給孩子們讀的尤其非如此不可，因為孩子們正在學習語言文字的階段，作者有責任讓他們在閱讀中養成良好的使用語言文字的習慣②。

葉紹鈞本人和葉至善這兩段話，証明葉紹鈞的童話曾經加以修改，目的是使少年讀者「念起來上口，聽起來入耳」、「讓他們在閱讀中養成良好的使用語言文字的習慣」。葉紹鈞是中國現代有名的作家和語文教育家，他對自己作品在語言文字上的修改潤色非常認真，已是為人熟知的事情。他修改舊作的出發點，更同他作為語文教育家的看法一致；他曾就自己編寫語文教科書的經驗提出這樣的意見：「所選文篇如有疏漏之處，我們都加上修潤的工夫③。」在一九五六年版的《古代英雄的石像》、一九八八年版的《葉聖陶作品集》，以及一九八七年出版的《葉聖陶集》等書裏，《古代英雄的石像》一篇的文字已由作者修改成新的版本。就是中國大陸現行的中學語文課本，也採用一九五六年由作者親自潤色過的版本。

自然，一九五六年的修改版本是較佳的版本。可是，教育署所頒布的新課程裏，《古代英雄的石像》一篇的版本竟然仍是一九二九年的舊版。

我們不妨比較一下新、舊兩個版本的高低優劣。

1. 成功往往跟在專心的背後。（舊版）
   功到自然成。（新版）
   按：舊版句法有點歐化，彆扭，新版用成語替改，較佳。
2. 惟有依照這決定的雕出來，纔是有活氣的這位英雄本身，不只是死的石像。（舊版）
   只有依照他想好的樣子雕出來，才是這位英雄的活生生的本身，不是死的石像。（新版）
   按：「活氣」一語生硬；「不只是」和「不是」彼此意思相差很大；新版為佳。
3. 滿大家的意。（舊版）
   使大家都滿意。（新版）
   按：「滿意」不能拆開用，「滿大家的意」彆扭。
4. 尤其是英雄，也許是個庸人，也許是個壞東西。（舊版）
   尤其是英雄，也許是個很平常的人，甚至是個壞蛋。（新版）
   按：原句是對話，「庸人」太雅；新版把舊版第二個「或許」改為「甚至」，使句式由選擇複句變成層遞複句，更合邏輯。
5. 上面那石頭十二分不安，喃喃地獨語道：「那末我上當了！那個雕刻家叫我代表了空虛，卻把我高高矗起，算是給我光榮尊貴的地位。我起初不明白，還以為足以驕傲。我上當了！」（舊版）

上面那石頭更加不高興了，自言自語地說：「空虛？我以為受人崇拜總是光榮的，難道我上了當……」（新版）

按：石像同小石頭辯論，小石頭勸石像不要「崇拜空虛」，但石像性格驕傲，不可能馬上接受小石頭的規勸；比較合理的寫法，是把石像半信半疑的心理寫出來。新版符合石像的心理情況，舊版卻嫌直露和突兀，石像的話不能反映它「不安」的情緒。

新版比舊版優勝之處尚不只這數點，總括而言，新版比舊版更適宜於初中語文教學的地方在於：

一、文字比較通順。舊版裏如「一壁」、「志概」、「出勁」、「遏不住」、「想心思」等詞語比較晦澀生硬；新版都給改換了常用的詞滙。

二、對話比較口語化。舊版中石像和小石塊的對話有書面語的成分，不夠洗鍊；新版改得更接近口語。

三、刻畫人物心理比較細緻。正如前引石像猶疑不決的一段話，新版比舊版更吻合石像當時的心理狀況。

一個較佳的版本，且為作者親手修訂的，是否更適宜於用來做教材，取代舊的、過時的、語言欠缺規範化的版本？香港的中學語文教育面臨很多挑戰，尤其是學生未能擺脫方言的影響，寫作流暢、規範化的白話文。在鼓勵母語教學、推行普通話的同時，我們有必要從基本的語文教材做起。上述這個顯明的版本問題，足使我們更應落實改進語文教材的方針。

附註：

① 葉紹鈞（聖陶）：《〈葉聖陶童話選〉後記》，寫於1956年4月10日，見《葉聖陶序跋集》（北京：三聯，1983），頁72。引文的着重號為筆者所加。

② 葉至善：《編後記》，見《葉聖陶作品集》（葉至善編，中國少年兒童出版社，1988）。引文着重號為筆者所加。

③ 見《葉聖陶語文教育論集》，上冊，頁188。

ARTICLES

BARBARIAN & IMMACULATE

How (not) to promote poetry in English Language Classrooms

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The aim of the paper is to show how the teaching of poetry in English language classrooms in Hong Kong has been effectively undermined by an ill-conceived syllabus statement and the promotion of an inappropriate approach.

It is hoped that such a demonstration will have the effect of pointing the way towards a better syllabus statement and the adoption of more appropriate approaches to the teaching of poetry. It is also hoped that syllabus planners involved in integrating literature into language syllabuses may find this analysis of the Hong Kong situation enlightening. The motivation behind this paper is that literature is not thriving in Hong Kong and, indeed, that it has become something of an endangered species. At the time the H.K. Syllabus for English (Forms I–V) was published in 1983, the writers could state confidently:—

> ***'We are sure that far more than 3,000 students (the present number of candidates for the English Literaure paper) can respond in a lively manner to simply-expressed writing dealing with topics relevant to their lives.'***

The numbers of candidates sitting literature examinations since that time are as follows:—

	Cert Ed (Form 5)	A-Level (Form 7)
1984	1877	438
1985	1555	384
1986	1573	334
1987	1575	299
1988	1339	255
1989	1239	250
1990**	1051	212

** = projected figures

There is a very real danger that, unless this trend is somehow reversed, and in the face of these figures only a determined optimist would consider this a possibility, the examining of literature as a subject will no longer be worthwhile and the subject itself will disappear completely from Hong Kong classrooms. Section IX of the Hong Kong Syllabus for English (Forms 1–5) deals with the teaching of Language Arts, which includes readers, non-fiction, the short story, poetry, the novel and drama. The first section is entitled ***A Meaningful Approach to the Subject*** and is, in my opinion, a recipe for disaster. If any local English teacher has doubts about the value of

815

Language Arts then they need look no further than these two pages—every doubt will harden into a conviction and the subject will automatically be relegated to the educational dustbin.

> ***'The principal objective of the English language curriculum in the schools of Hong Kong' is 'to provide every student with the opportunity to develop the maximum degree of functional competence in English of which he or she is capable, given the constraints inherent in the situation, in particular competence in those domains of use which are specially appropriate to the Hong Kong situation.'***—this competence being defined in terms of ***'tasks and communicative transactions'***.

That, we might presume, is what teachers should set their sights on achieving. When we read about Language Arts, however, we find that this subject is contrasted with such 'utilitarian, "instrumental" purposes' and is proudly defended in terms of its being 'non-utilitarian, non-instrumental'. One can well imagine the hard-pressed classroom teacher, desperately trying to get through the year's scheme of work and preparing students for their end-of-year examinations deciding—'Oh, well ... definitely time for something non-utilitarian and non-instrumental.' In a society which has traditionally viewed learning as a serious, thoughtful enterprise, it would not be surprising if such hard-pressed teachers as identified above decide to dispense with the opportunity for 'pleasurable experience and enjoyment' and, for English language teachers worried about the low level of their students, we can imagine how they would welcome, with open arms, ***'the opportunity for language to be explored for its own sake, and to bring students into an encounter with language in its most complex and varied forms' [my emphasis]***.

And this, remember, purports to be a 'meaningful approach to the subject'! Language Arts, we are then informed, ***'may serve as a desirable leaven to the more utilitarian elements of the language curriculum'***—again the exercise in marginalisation continues as Language Arts is defined further and further away from the real business of the language classroom. The best, however, is yet to come. In what is basically an educational kiss of death, the syllabus writers not only fail to recommend that Language Arts should become an integral part of the course book, they positively reject this idea—***'What we would like to see is teachers using single sheet texts, pictures, cartoons and so on'***.

Teachers, in short, have to do this themselves with no help from outside; they have to design their own Language Arts course. And, for good measure, this should involve ***'experimenting with unconventional materials'***. During the preparation of a Methodology project on using poetry at lower secondary level, 3 English elective students (Grazia Dai Lim-tsz; Winnie Or Wing-fung & Florence Hu Wan-sau) at Northcote College of Education conducted a survey on almost 150 of their fellow students, to find out how much of their English lessons at school had been given over to Language Arts. The results were as follows:—

47.3% had had no Language Arts at all in school
23.7% had had about 1 hour per month
11.2% had had about 1 hour per week
6.6% had had between 1–2 hours per week
11.2% had had more than 2 hours per week

This was a very ad hoc survey but the figures, however approximate, do suggest that classroom teachers of English, when faced with the opportunity of designing their own Language Arts course and 'experimenting with unconventional materials' in an effort 'to bring students into an encounter with language in its most complex and varied forms', vote with their textbooks, if not their feet.

The approach advocated in the syllabus to the teaching of Language Arts in general, and poetry in particular, reads like a prolonged apology and functions therefore as a major disincentive.

But it is not the major disincentive. This privilege is left to Section E, which deals with the teaching of poetry.

In the teaching of English to non-native speakers there are two radically different approaches to literature, which are based on whether the literary text is to be 'taught' or 'used'. The former focuses on the centrality of interpretation—the text is presented as sympathetically as possible and then explored in a variety of ways, the aim being to sensitize students to the power of language by gradually developing their awareness of particular stylistic effects. Literature is thus studied as a subject in its own right, a by-product of this approach, it is argued, being increased language competence.

The other approach uses the literary text in the same way as, for example, visual aids are used: not, that is, as objects of study in their own right but as means to an end. (For example, we never feel the need to teach vocabulary such as silhouette, foreground, light-meter, etc. when faced with a photograph in a textbook. We are seldom driven to ask students to analyze the composition of the photograph or discuss whether the depth of field is sufficient.) The photograph and the literary text are used as springboards for other activities, the purpose of which is to develop the language competence of the students.

It very quickly becomes apparent that it is the 'literature-as-subject-to-be-taught' approach which the syllabus writers espouse and, to the extent that they perceive Language Arts as being non-instrumental and non-utilitarian, this is consistent. In the Hong Kong context, it is quite obvious that this approach has failed disastrously, as is evidenced by the examination figures quoted above. it is beyond the scope of this paper to suggest exactly why this should be so but Section E does seem to provide a few very good reasons.

It is a necessary consequence of adopting this approach that the syllabus should offer a poem as an example and suggest how teachers may organise its 'presentation' and 'appreciation'. The poem chosen is 'The Crabs', by Richard Lattimore:—

817

The Crabs

There was a bucket full of them. They spilled,
crawled, climbed, clawed: slowly tossed
and fell: precision made; and iodine colour of their own
World of sand and occasional brown weed,
round stone
chilled ocean in the chopping waters of their coast.
One fell out. The marine thing on the grass
tried to trundle off, barbarian and immaculate
and to be killed
with his kin. We lit water: dumped the living
mass
in: contemplated tomatoes and corn: and
with the good cheer of civilized man,
cigarettes, that is, and cold beer, and chatter,
waited out and lived down the ten-foot-away
clatter
of crabs as they died for us inside thier
boiling can.

I will not spend too much time describing why this poem is a disastrous example but it is necessary to point out the following:—

(*a*) the way the poem appears on the page makes it look difficult—the rhymes are not easy to spot, for example
(*b*) the erratic punctuation, with capital letters appearing after colons, but not consistently, is off-putting—as is the fact that some lines begin with capital letters and some do not
(*c*) the lexical density is very high with few structural clues to aid understanding—after 'fell' in line 3, for example, there is no verb until 'fell' in line 7
(*d*) the subject matter is totally alien to a local population that goes to very considerable lengths to ensure that the food they eat, in particular the sea food, is as fresh as possible and they find it very difficult to understand why someone might feel pity for the components of a barbecue
(*e*) and, in case you spotted the typing mistake in the third-last word, that too is courtesy of the syllabus

After the teacher provides a 'sensitive presentation' of the poem (Stand up all local teachers who feel confident enough to do this!), she is asked to foster understanding regarding the movement of the lines and how this relates to the movements of the crabs, the use of alliteration, the ironic tensions embedded in the poem, and so on.

It is my contention that this is not what is required to convince teachers that poetry is an essential part of the curriculum. Although the above points may seem trifling to native speakers *au fait* with poetry teaching, they are serious obstacles to hard-pressed teachers operating in a foreign language who are often unsure of particular grammatical points and who often lack confidence in using English for social purposes, let alone guiding pupils through a poem such as 'Crabs'. And what is true for the teachers is much more true for the students.

It is worthwhile recalling the words of the Syllabus at this point:—

'We are sure that far more than 3,000 students (the present number of candidates for the English Literature paper) can respond in a lively manner to simply-expressed writing dealing with topics relevant to their lives.'

Is this really an example of simply-expressed writing?

Does it deal with a topic relevant to the lives of Hong Kong school children?

It is little wonder that, for Hong Kong school children, poetry in English is becoming 'barbarian and immaculate'—foreign and pure, free from the stains of interaction, of experience.

If this trend is not irreversible, it is essential that Language Arts should be *incorporated* into the mainstream English lesson. This can only be done by adopting the 'text-as means-to an-end' approach.

This move will require a change of heart both among those who view the teaching of literature as quite distinct from the teaching of language and among teachers who have been conditioned (by such documents as the present Syllabus) into viewing poetry, drama, etc., as difficult and irrelevant. It is always better to end a hostile paper with something positive—a pointer towards a better way, so here are my suggestions.

First of all, and most obviously, the syllabus for Language Arts requires to be re-written. This step has, in fact, begun. But in the present educational climate that is not enough because the subject already has an image problem, built up over years. It will, I feel, be necessary to legislate it back into the English mainstream.

As regards policy, there is no reason why the responsible Education Department textbook committee cannot oblige publishers to produce coursebooks with a Language Arts component built into each unit. At the moment such books must conform to certain guidelines regarding other aspects of the syllabus—partcular language items, communicative functions, etc. which must be covered. If this were to happen, one side effect would be to render the content of these coursebooks slightly less sterile than is the case at present.

Similarly, there is no reason why 'literary' texts cannot be used in examinations. As 'the tail that wags that dog', examinations have a quite inordinate effect on what happens in Hong Kong classrooms so we should use them to rectify what is a most undesirable state of affairs.

As regards teaching material, the nitty-gritty of classroom reality, teachers will have to be convinced through in-service training programmes that poetry is a valuable, accessible resource.

The following poem could easily be used in Form 2 and, in many schools, in Form 1 to practise vocabulary, grammar, reading comprehension, listening comprehension, stress, and so on:—

Home! You're where it's warm inside

Home! You are a special place;
you're where I wake and wash my face,
brush my teeth and comb my hair,
change my socks and underwear,
clean my ears and blow my nose,
try on all my parents' clothes.

Home! You're where it's warm inside
where my tears are gently dried,
where I'm comforted and fed,
where I'm forced to go to bed,
where there's always love to spare;
Home! I'm glad that you are there.

Obviously this is not the same order of literature as, say, 'Crabs' but I would argue that we must begin with poems like this in the coursebook in Form 1 so that poetry becomes as familiar as all the other forms of language that students become familiar with through their English lessons. There is much to be gained from using poetry in language teaching but, if you are a language teacher and you don't want to teach poetry, don't worry—it would seem that the Curriculum Development Committee of the Hong Kong Education Department supports you 100%: the Syllabus under discussion has been 'recommended' by them since 1983.

THE UNWOBBLING PIVOT? THE PLACE OF LITERATURE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION IN HONG KONG

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Introduction

Earlier this year I was re-reading Yeats and I was struck by a poem, 'The Long-legged Fly'. It concerns 3 tumultuous lives—Julius Caesar, Helen of Troy & Michelangelo—and three points of silence at the centre of those lives:—

> There on that scaffolding reclines
> Michaelangelo.
> With no more sound than the mice make
> His hand moves to and fro
> like a long-legged fly upon the stream
> His mind moves upon silence.

Three creative silences in the fields of politics, myth and art: three intense, still and harmonious moments amid the surrounding turmoil and clamour.

There is a similar idea developed in Ezra Pound's 'Cathay' poems: a still point, something enduring surrounded by the clamorous and the transitory; and in his translations of Confucius—in particular, the text he calls THE UNWOBBLING PIVOT—the idea of CHUNG YUNG is made explicit:—

> p.97 The word CHUNG signifies what is bent neither to one side nor to the other. The word YUNG signifies unchanging . . . that which never wavers or wobbles is the calm principle operant in its mode of action.

The unwavering, harmonious centre: the UNWOBBLING PIVOT. Elsewhere, he locates art, and poetry in particular, at the still centre of the vortex.

You may be wondering what these circles and still centres, vortices and CHUNG YUNG have to do with English teaching or teacher training.

Well, reading these coincided for me with a time of extreme dissatisfaction with the diluted and trivial content of much English language teaching material: the swirling detritus of bus tickets and cornflake packets; the cardboard characters; the shallow pursuit of the 'functional' and the 'authentic'; the Sunday supplement junk-food of the mind. Very often those who write textbooks can write exercises but not texts which are interesting to read; which have some surprise, suspense, something fresh and unpredictable about them: I began to wonder if it would be possible to 'poach' from literature texts which contain these qualities, but which are not too complex and difficult to understand—simple but not simplistic or simple-minded. And then to make these the CORE of language teaching.

821

At the same time, as someone who works in a teachers' training college, I was pondering what should be central to the English Department's work. As well as the educational theory etc., given by another department, we give them language improvement courses, methodology courses and a very short course called 'Language Arts'.

This course which contains an introduction to literature is seen as very marginal, a luxury, an extra and there was talk of dropping it altogether for more 'utilitarian' elements.

This only reflects the position given to 'language arts' in the HK English syllabus. There 'language arts' set us apart from the main 'instrumental' and 'utilitarian' business of language teaching. The notion of 'utility' needs closer examination, since after all, creativity in language is needed whatever someone's chosen field is to be—engineering, business or whatever.

Full-time & part-time students at the College confirm the low esteem in which literature or 'language arts' is held throughout schools in HK and the findings of two surveys on attitudes to language arts in schools (carried out last year by two of our final year students seemed to endorse this).

Literature is seen as too difficult, and grammar (with a thin communicative gloss) is seen as central to the job. Surely they are right: grammar does provide the girders of the language. But a building is more than girders and learning a language is more than just acquiring its grammar. I would want to argue that the UNWOBBLING PIVOT of literature is a central pillar too.

It is obvious that we cannot neglect language proficiency but the best teachers I have seen were not those who had just a mechanical competence or who were dexterous at setting up pair-work or using the overhead projector but those whose enjoyment of the language was evident and who were able to COMMUNICATE THEIR ENTHUSIASM FOR ENGLISH AS A SUBJECT TO THE PUPILS. The CONTENT and not just the PROCESS of English teaching: the WHAT as well as the HOW.

Perhaps the idea that literary texts can be at the core of language teaching is overly ambitious, but I am convinced that literature can play a crucial part in fostering enthusiasm for English as a subject and help to make students who will be future teachers alert and alive to the rich possibilities of the language they will be teaching.

So much for the homily, but how is one to do it?

At a seminar on literature and language teaching last June, Dr. Peter Stambler, of the Baptist College, took the uncompromising view that literature cannot be used at all in EFL without diluting its complexity and so doing literature a disservice; or, in using difficult texts with non-native speakers, doing language learners a disservice. Literature, in short, is too difficult and too idiosyncratic. But if literature in HK is to be saved until a few advanced learners are ready for it there will be no one left to study it: interest needs to be created or generated at lower levels and this has to begin with those who teach pupils at those levels. Anyway, there may be virtues in strangeness: the idiosyncrasies of literature—its unpredictability, unusual characterisation etc.—may be to some extent advantageous.

So, when I was given a short 'Language Arts' course to teach at the College I drew up the following guidelines for myself:—

(1) I would avoid the canonical Shakespeares, Milton etc. and try to find materials that were as simple as possible but not banal; which were accessible but which had at least some of the minimum attributes of literature, the unpredictability and suspense which make us want to read on to the end; fresh, vivid, surprising language; 3-dimensional characters; and a more highly-charged, uninsulated emotional content than polite, safe English-as-a-Foreign Laguage materials usually contain.

(2) I would start if I could with the familiar and simple and move to the more strange and difficult.

(3) The exercises I did would be for the students' enrichment but would not be so far removed from the classroom that they could not see how they could do similar, simpler things themselves.

(4) I would get them to DO things, to participate to some extent in the creative process. We listen to music with more understanding if we have tried to play ourselves.

(5) To enhance their enjoyment and to open their ears and eyes more to English.

I have not addressed the vexed question of non-native (Cantonese) literature in English.

In searching for material, I found particularly useful: POETRY WORKBOOK, Eric Boagey & ONCE UPON A TIME, M. Rinvinolucri.

BALLAD

Thinking about the bare bones of poetry, the ballad came to mind:

—regular jogging rhythm
—refrain (familiar from pop songs)
—poems to be read aloud
—poems which tell a story (mysterious, heroic); began as songs.

(1) I began with the familiar song 'Scarborough Fair'* intending to go on to the original ballad, I did the usual listening comprehension exercises, cloze, jumbled sentences, OHT overlays, discussion and so on; but when we came to the original ballad it was too capricious and the vocabulary too difficult: a false start.

(2) I tried a simpler sung ballad 'High Barbary' and

(3) I then gave them one of the more accessible Scots Border ballads, the sinister and mysterious tale of 'Edward, Edward'.

We discussed rhyme, refrain, rhythm, effect of repetition, the story, the characters of Edward & his mother etc.

(4) We moved on to a consideration of Yeats' use of ballads & songs:

(A) Early Yeats: Ballads, langorous & hypnotic
BALLAD OF THE FOXHUNTER
BALLAD OF MOLLY MAGEE
DOWN BY THE SALLEY GARDENS

823

(B) Later Yeats: After a gap of 27 years, Yeats again returned to the ballad form but this time there was a radical change. There is no romantic bric-a-brac. He speaks through the mouths of lunatics, lovers and frenzied old men who refuse to grow old with dignity. Explores his own lust and rage in old age.

Uses the impersonal ballad form for poems of intense private feeling. He subverts the ballad form: the reader is lulled into false patterns of expectation by the surface sing-song (horizonal plane) then encounters complex tone and feeling (vertical plane). The ballads are like 'Wordsworth's, *Lyrical Ballads*. The refrains are not there for decoration but are strategic, to mock and jibe and to undermine the authority & convention of the rest of the poem.

I shall not pretend that the students recognised all the subtleties but they did discover most of these things for themselves.

I was concerned about using such culturally alien material but the intensity of the poems communicated itself to them and far outweighed this consideration. Anyway, learning a new language is more than just learning to describe one's own familiar world in another language but an introduction to new worlds.

CRAZY JANE poems: earthy, gusto, mocking (trad. ballad features: inversion, full rhymes, regular rhythms BUT also dissonant half-rhymes and a surprising refrain: resigned, pious, fearful, innuendo). Rejuvenated ballad form.

WHAT THEM? attempt to sum up his life. Nagging, insistent, goading refrain undermines any attempt at too neat a summary.

SEE/HEAR

There is a little book by Ted Hughes about introducing people to poetry called 'Poetry in the Making' in which he speaks of words which appeal directly to the 5 senses:—

hear : click, cluckle
see : freckled, veined
taste : vinegar, sugar
smell : tar, onion
touch: prickly, oily

I looked around for simple poems which would appeal directly to the EYE and to the EAR with the intention of building up then to a consideration of rhythm, similes & metaphors.

EYE

(1) I began with the idea of a poem as a thing to be seen on the printed page, a shape, a thing made, an artifact analogous to sculpture or carpentry rather than to music.

(2) We started off with playful verse which plays tricks with typography and spaces on the page:—

40 LOVE; GRASSHOPPER; SILENCE; A CELLO; SNAKE; EYESORE

(3) We then moved on to look at purposeful shapes and word pictures—similes & metaphors—and the students had a go at writing some simple ones themselves.

The point, as I mentioned before, was to show how vivid, fresh, original language need not entail great complexity.

(T. E. Hulme wrote) ***'prose is the museum where the dead metaphors of poets are preserved'***

Here are a couple of live similes from Heaney's poetry:—

/a day/ ***close as a stranger's breath***

/telegraph wires/ ***like lovely freehand curved for miles***
the space we stood around had been emptied into us to keep.

OR, Pound's MTR poem: ***IN A STATION OF THE METRO***
The apparition of these faces in the crowd Petals on a wet, black bough.

(where the mind runs on after the poem has stopped)

(4) SIMILE & METAPHOR poems—exercises

(5) We worked up to a poem of the quality of WIRES which we looked at in some detail, especially with regard to its shape, how it works on the page and makes demands on the EYE:—

—There is no virtue in looking at form if it is just a matter of spondee spotting or hunting the pentameter but in so far as an understanding of form aids a deeper understanding of meaning, it is helpful. And it does no harm to address rudimentary questions such as why are the lines chopped up in this way and what would be lost if it were a piece of consecutive prose. To ask students to look at the poem before they look into themselves so as not to foist too simplistic an interpretation on it.

Approach:—

—Responses to title, slide of cow in a field + barbed wire.

—RHYME: underline last word—rhyme closing round, enacting meaning. Palindromic. Not just for decoration.

—PUNCTUATION: full stops, commas, enjambment punctuation is functional.

—RHYTHM, VOCABULARY, METAPHORICAL SIGNIFICATION.

WIRES

The widest prairies have electric fences,
For though old cattle know they must not stray
Young steers are always scenting purer water
Not here but anywhere. Beyond the wires

Leads them to blunder up against the wires
Whose muscle-shredding violence gives no quarter.
Young steers become old cattle from that day,
Electric limits to their widest senses

EAR

When I turned to rhythm, poems for the EAR, I began with simple LIMERICKS and got the students to write their own:—

By stages we led up to another Larkin poem, COMING, and considered amongst other things, the sound effects of the poem.

(6) Next we took some poems which lend themselves to dramatisation e.g. JABBERWOCKY, MACAVITY, TARANTELLA ETC.

Students worked on them in groups with an eye to rhythm, pace, intonation & stress, pauses, movement, reading in unison, in harmony etc. After that we had a first run through which I had videod and then a second, more polished presentation in front of their classmates.

/I was a bit uncertain about 'poetry recitation' OR 'choral verse speaking': it has more than a whiff of Boy Scout jamborees, church halls and sandals about it for me. But they enjoyed it, it got them to pay close attention to the words and to project better: useful preparation for teaching.

DRAMA

Most of the textbooks our students will teach from in Hong Kong rely fairly heavily on dialogues to introduce or to practise grammar. Looking at some of them I was reminded of Ionsco's anecdote about how he got the idea for his play 'The Bald Primadonna' from the textbook exercises he was given as a student learning English:—

A 'Good morning, How do you do?'
B 'Fine thank you. How do you do?'
A 'Very well thank you. Who are you?'
B 'Oh, I'm your husband.'
A 'Oh, are you? I'm your wife.' & etc.

The exercises are not quite as bad as this, but the language is often inert, dull, predictable and the characters impossibly polite and two-dimensional.

When we turned our attention to dialogues and sketches I wanted to get the students to see how the words could come alive, get up off the page and move around. As before, I tried to find material that was simple but not banal; which they would enjoy doing but also with an eye to possible classroom application.

(1) We began with some Maley & Duff half-dialogues to focus on conversational coherence. Students then wrote their own simple dialogues in pairs; handed them on to another pair who would write the 'real thoughts' of the characters as they uttered those words. It was a chance to be a bit mischievous and send-up predictable, conventional dialogues familiar from textbooks: in a restaurant, at the airport, asking for directions, daily routines etc.

(2) We went on to look at some Pinter extracts where the language seems to be simple, trivial, flat but important transactions are couched in seeming banalities and even a silence carries a lot of emotional weight.

(3) On a lighter note, we also looked at some Monty Python sketches, those which were not too culturally alien and quirkish:—
BUYING A BED   AN ARGUMENT   THE BOOKSHOP

(4) We continued with the idea of 'thought-bubble' dialogues where there is a disparity between what people say and what they mean:—
e.g. a scene from UNDER MILK WOOD

PROSE

As with poetry and drama, I chose short stories that were simple, but which had some emotional depth & resonance and suspense.

(1) THE MONKEY'S PAW by W. W. Jacob
(I had already decided to use the story when the BBC broadcast it on the radio, I taped it and was able to use it as a listening Comprehension too).

/Frank and Richard Murphy work at Bristows, a factory in Belfast. Frank's former workmate, Tommy returns after a lifetime's travelling abroad. Shows a monkey's paw given to him by a fakir. 3 wishes but pay the price for them with 3 dire consequences. Frank's wife Martha against it but Frank takes the paw. His first is for 200 pounds to pay off the mortgage on his house. Son Richard goes off to work on the nightshift. Next morning they have as visitor, a Mr. O'Leary from Bristows./

Approach:—
Preliminary discussion of superstition, talismans, charms, 3 wishes they would ask for.
—Played it in instalments over a couple of days (they speculated on possible continuations—anticipate what might come next.)
—Stopped it before climax of the story and asked them to think of an ending.

(2) LOVE by Catherine Lim (Singapore Chinese)
—Title: anticipate words likely to occur/elicit Moon in June pop song view of romance.
—Note-taking on the characters of Frankie & Pearl.
—Retell parts of the story.
(uninsulated. Simple but moving)

827

(3) STORY-TELLING:—
- —in conversation: anecdotes, news, jokes, gossip.
- —fresh: story-telling, improvising not listening to a tape.
- —Stories from 'S. China' (unusual, funny, sad, astonishing)
- —in retelling unearthed story-telling talent among students.

GRAMMAR

I mentioned earlier that I am convinced Literature has a central role to play in creating ENTHUSIASM for English as a subject which trainee teachers may well communicate to their pupils later. I also said that it was perhaps too ambitious to have literary texts at the core of language teaching material but I must confess that I am not altogether dissuaded.

In the Rinvinolucri book he has things to say about grammar and narrative which set me thinking:—
- —if . . . (conditional) 3 wishes.
- —have you been doing . . . Goldilocks
- —had done . . . (past perfect) in narratives.
- —Every time we use the future we engage in a fiction (since we don't know what it'll be).
- —Every time we use the past we engage in a fiction (since we can't remember what was)

I wonder if Literature can be used for grammar teaching to show the meaning of e.g. verbs in a vivid context.
- —Heaney: language & politics—changes in political mood in N. Ireland are reflected in changes of grammatical mood too (shift from the indicative/conditional (wishes + desire) to the imperative/indicative (demands))
- —PASSIVE: Examples taken from stories by J. Joyce & E. Bowen.

  Of course, these are difficult; but here grammar is palpable, tense, mood and aspect are tangible. Is it possible to build up a corpus of similar examples which could be used in language teaching?

You may have noticed that there was a? mark in the title of this article: THE UNWOBBLING PIVOT? THE PLACE OF LITERATURE IN ELT Teaching Education IN Hong Kong. Perhaps there is a? mark over the place of Literature in Hong Kong given prevailing attitudes to literature here; but I am in no doubt about its centrality in English language teaching and learning, for reasons I have tried to outline and for others, more eloquently and profoundly expressed in the following quotes.

'A book must be an ice-axe to break the sea frozen inside us'

—Franz Kafka

'. . . through literature we rediscover a sense of the density of our lives.'

—I. Murdoch

'. . . spontaneous creativity is the life force of existence'

—A. Wesker

'The only end of writing is to enable the reader better to enjoy life or better to endure it.'

—Dr. Johnson

'A poet is before anything else, a person who is passionately in love with language.

—C. Sandburg

'Poetry is the language in which man explores his own amazement.'

—C. Fry

'Poetry is simply the most beautiful, impressive and widely effective mode of saying things and hence its importance.'

—M. Arnold

'Poetry should . . . strike the reader as a wording of his own highest thoughts, and appear almost as a remembrance.'

—J. Keats

'Remember that the most beautiful things in the world are the most useless; peacocks and lilies for instance.'

—J. Ruskin

'Poetry reconciles the world outside and the world inside . . . to live removed from the inner universe of experience is to live removed from ourself, banished from ourself and our real life.'

—T. Hughes

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*Editors' Note: for a contrasting opinion, compare Chan in this volume.

TOWARDS REINSTATING LITERATURE INTO THE LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

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The background and the Present Situation

The year 1966 saw the separation of literature from language in the Hong Kong secondary school English curriculum. Ever since then, they have been taught and examined as two separate subjects. This paper does not argue for their reintegration; it examines how the language curriculum has become, to a large extent, emotionally and intellectually impoverished since being deprived of any literature. And it proposes to reinstate a literary component into the language syllabus as one possible means to improve the teaching and learning of both subjects.

The Language Syllabuses

First we must take a look at the language syllabuses recommended for classroom teaching (Syllabus for English Forms I–V Hong Kong Curriculum Development Committee 1983) and for the School Certificate Examination (English Language Syllabus B Hong Kong Examinations Authority). The two syllabuses are not always compatible in guiding the English language education of Hong Kong (see below for elaboration). The examination syllabus dominates the homes and classrooms of both teachers and students. This domination means that many of the recommendations for the teaching of language skills and of language arts made in the teaching syllabus are bypassed. In short, what is not tested in the examination is seldom taught in the classroom. So the examination syllabus becomes critically decisive. It has in some way impoverished the language curriculum emotionally and intellectually.

How?

This paper focuses on the language curriculum in the fourth stage, i.e. secondary four and five, when students are fifteen to sixteen and have been learning English for at least eleven years. At this stage students will take the School Certificate Examination at the end of the second year, an open examination which is equivalent to the Ordinary Level Examination.

The Examination consists of three written papers, a listening test and an oral test tabled as follows:—

The School Certificate Examination

PAPERS	EXAM TIME	MARKS
Composition:	1 hour	25%
Summary, Comprehension & Usage:	1½ hours	30%
Reading Comprehension & Usage (MC Questions):	1 hour	20%
Listening:	35 minutes	15%
Speaking:	5 minutes	10%
Total:	4 hours 10mins	100%

A Typical English Language Weekly Timetable

Composition, Summary, Comprehension & Usage:	3 Periods
Reading Comprehension & Usage (MC Questions):	2 Periods
Listening:	1 Period
Speaking:	1 Period
Stories: (Simplified or Graded Readers)	1 Period
Total:	8 Periods

The English timetables in most secondary schools are more or less the same. This is due to the reality that the marks of each examination paper prescribe the amount of teaching time for each language skill. Not only that, the examination syllabus also dictates the context of language use and teaching.

Reading and Listening

Teachers and students are exposed, on the whole, to one kind of reading material. It comprises two Reading Comprehension passages, a passage for Precis writing, some Cloze passages and Multiple Choice Questions and Answers (Appendices 1 & 2 contain an abridged version of the 1987 Certificate Examination Papers). There is nothing wrong or inappropriate for this choice if it is served as only one among different kinds of testing materials. The trouble is that it tends to monopolise the examination. As a result, most coursebooks model themselves not only on its format but also on the content and register. So on the whole, the reading material that students and teachers are exposed to is to a large extent uninteresting factual accounts and irrelevant informative writing which is not conducive to authentic communication between students and teachers. It is stylistically uniform and bland. Many of the passages are written in controlled vocabulary and grammar for 'easy' reading. Few passages are extracted from authentic sources of different styles, registers, or types. Very often, the only interaction occasioned by such material between the student and teacher is in checking and answering comprehension questions. Professor John Sinclair has decried the use of English solely for the transmission of information as an impoverished view of language. Although his remark does not refer to the Hong Kong situation, it nevertheless throws light on the language students and teachers are exposed to.

The language students hear in the listening examination and classroom exercises are predominantly instrumental. Students are tested on their ability and speed to take down instructions in the exercises for mainly academic and occupational purposes. Teachers mostly use English to give instructions, to explain a point or a grammar usage. Moreover, it is not uncommon to find teachers using Cantonese for explanation. This may reveal to some extent how English is viewed. When the language is treated as some data or rules to be memorised, it is more convenient and direct for it to be taught in the mother tongue.

Writing and Speaking

The singular exposure to this type of English affects very much the students' performance in writing and speaking. They are simply not encouraged to express personal feelings and thoughts. Workbook exercises deprive language of life. Students are drilled to reproduce mechanically sentences which are grammatically accurate but meaningless. And dictated by the examination, many teachers tend to overmark; attention is paid more to the form of language. The sheer quantity of written assignments and the quantity of resultant mistakes found in them produce frustrations for both students and teachers. And in speaking, many teachers still prescribe complete grammatical sentences and they cannot help stopping their students at any point of their utterances to correct their mistakes.

In short, the type of English that is examined is predominatly utilitarian in purpose and monotonous in content and style. The correct form of the language is emphasized more than the need to communicate. The topics are uninteresting and the contexts are mostly irrelevant to the experience of the learners. What is at stake is that this kind of English is not only found in tests or examinations, it is taught (in fact, tested) to some extent every day in the classroom. Most textbooks are functional only for examinations; they are, designed and compiled to familiarize students with the varied examination formats. Model test paper series do even more harm to students and teachers; they substitute testing for teaching, thus giving users a false idea about the nature of language and language learning. Many lessons thus become a kind of answer guessing and checking routine.

What then Are the Effects?

As a consequence, the attitude of many students and teachers to English is somewhat perfunctory. Most of them view English simply as a requirement or qualification to be sought after. To achieve this, many teachers find themselves administering, checking and marking tests of the four skills in the language classroom; while students are drilling and regurgitating chunks of language items for operational need in examinations. It does not get them interested or involved in what they are doing. Learning and teaching the subject becomes purposeless, except of course for examination. Most students do not bother to read anything in English when they leave school. Many teachers of English prefer watching a movie with Chinese subtitles or reading a newspaper, a magazine or a novel in Chinese. They complain that their students do not read any English outside the classroom when they do not do it themselves. For many of them, teacher development means only refresher courses and seminars on language teaching methodology and examination testing and techniques.

Another point about the type of English taught and examined in Hong Kong is that it does not help to cultivate interpersonal relationships between the student and the teacher. Its content is impersonal; its style banal. There is very little cultural context, aesthetic appeal, affective involvement or intellectual stimulation. It is not conducive to authentic communication. The language is devoid of any experience; it is not used for self expression. It thus becomes vicarious: learning and teaching English is somewhat of a vicarious experience. Teachers of English and their students do not seem to achieve the mutual understanding, support and satisfaction which is derived from an inter-personal relationship built on the subject of study.

So, what can we do about the situation?

The Teaching Syllabus

If the examination syllabus is so decisive, it seems that the only way to change this situation is to modify what is to be examined. And this modification can be made with reference to the teaching syllabus.

The English as conceived in the teaching syllabus is rather different from that which is tested in the examination. But this syllabus is neglected and even unknown to many teachers. Many of the recommendations listed are not implemented in the classroom language teaching programme because they do not count in the examination. Let us find out what these recommendations are and why literature should be incorporated to improve the situation.

The principal objective of the English Language curriculum stated in the teaching syllabus (P. 8) is to 'develop the maximum degree of functional competence . . . in those domains of use which are specially appropriate to the Hong Kong situation'. However, the examination syllabus only tests two domains of use: English as a tool for study and work. There are other domains of use which are not included in the examination syllabus. They are: English as the key to communication with the world outside Hong Kong and English as a medium of pleasure and entertainment. The first points to the international role the language plays in helping young citizens of Hong Kong to 'live in harmony with others by encouraging understanding and tolerance for peoples of other countries, their ways of life, their values and their ideas'. The second domain emphasizes English as the language of one of the world's great literatures and as the medium of international popular culture through which learners can broaden 'the range of aesthetic experience and entertainment available in Hong Kong'. These two domains of use are simply omitted in the examination syllabus. But they are not in conflict with the uses of English as a tool for work and study. On the contrary, they are complementary to them because they make the learning of English meaningful and enjoyable. And to include these two domains of use, it is necessary to incorporate literature into the syllabus.

Reading, as described in the teaching syllabus (P. 21), is 'an active, creative process'. It means 'the ability to grasp the implied meaning conveyed by the writer as well as the ability to respond to that message in the light of the reader's past experiences, so that there is some sort of communication between the reader and the writer'. One of the reading needs is defined as 'to seek enjoyment or excitement by reading novels, short stories, poems and other types of writing'. Besides reading for information and the main ideas, other reading skills such as reading for implied meaning and critical reading are emphasised. And literary materials such as novels, plays and poems are recommended for the teaching of these skills.

In the Chapter on Listening (P. 52), the Syllabus identifies social and cultural listening needs in addition to academic listening needs. And the inventory of listening skills includes the skills 'to understand the difference between connotative meanings and denotative meanings', 'to identify the speaker's attitudes' and 'to be aware of persuasive devices used by the speaker and to get meaning from imagery'. The syllabus also presents exercises for developing skills in understanding the speaker's intent or attitudes'. But these skills are not tested in the Listening Examination.

Speech is quoted in the syllabus as 'purposeful oral expression of thought', and 'thought' here embraces 'ideas, feelings, desires, hopes . . .' (P. 62). In short, speech is defined as 'a deliberate human act by which one person reveals, or communicates, part of himself to another person orally'. Speech in the Oral Examination seldom reaches this level of interaction.

The Teaching of Language Arts

The syllabus designers preferred the phrase 'language arts' to the word 'literature' because literature in the past was understood as whatever texts happened to be set for external examination. Language arts is meant to be 'a broad and liberal study of the potential of the English language for enjoyment and for providing the student with the aesthetic satisfaction of using the language for some creative purpose'. And there are two reasons for language arts, a non-utilitarian, non-instrumental component to be included in the language curriculum which 'serves mainly utilitarian, 'instrumental' purposes in adult society':—

1. Since English is 'one of the great literatures of the world' and the 'major medium of international popular cultures', the 'ability to read for pleasure and to understand films and radio/TV programmes widens substantially the range of aesthetic experience and entertainment available to the citizens of Hong Kong'.
2. 'The possibility which English (and indeed any language) offers of pleasurable experience and enjoyment can be a very strong factor in motivating the learner to persist in the always difficult task of learning a second or foreign language' (P. 85).

The 33-page chapter on the teaching of language arts is the longest chapter in the teaching syllabus. It presents comprehensive and practical approaches and activities on teaching the novel, poetry, drama and non-fiction. Yet despite the emphatic justifications for its inclusion in the curriculum, language arts receives very little or no attention from coursebook writers, teachers and students. The reason is, sadly but true, that it is not included in the examination syllabus.

It is true that in the class timetable, a period per week is allotted to Readers, and this is supposed to be a lesson of language arts. In reality, the situation leaves much to be desired. First let us examine what students are exposed to in this lesson. From secondary one onward, they are taught through graded readers which were written or simplified within strict lexical, structural, technical and even thematic limits. Comparatively speaking, they are stylistically bland and non-communicative. They do not help teachers and students to develop sensitivity to language or encourage communication between the author and the reader, or between the teacher and the student. Although some vocabulary and structural drills and reinforcement can be done, the language and its context is trite and even artificial. The narrative point of view is usually suppressed or left out. The language of these stories lacks the illocutionary force to get the reader interested and involved.

The way these stories are taught varies from teacher to teacher. Some even use this period for language testing in secondary five. So, usually, the book is left unfinished. many teachers and most students are not interested in, or enthusiastic about, these readers. These stories and the teaching methods used tend to create a misconception of the nature of literature for students and even teachers. This can be one of the reasons why the English Literature candidature is dropping.

Language arts, as recommended in the syllabus, is intended to be a 'broad and liberal study'. It is 'non-instrumental' and not to be examined. This can only be an ideal. The reality is that it does not find its way into the classrooms or the homes of the students. We must remember that English is only a second language in HK, and it is more difficult to cultivate or encourage language arts in a second language without some incentive and utilitarian consideration. So the most practical way is to include it the language examination.

835

What Kind of Literature?

I prefer to use the word 'literature' instead of 'language arts'. I mean it to be an examination component incorporated in the language syllabus. Here literature does not refer to literature with a Capital 'L', studied for cultural, historical or aesthetic reasons. It is approached from the language point of view and is studied for language improvement (i.e. to stimulate sensitivity to and interest in language) and for affective involvement (i.e. authentic communication of feelings and thoughts). So besides extracts of great literature in English, it can include songs, TV drama, jokes and even graffiti, etc. It may be chosen from the stylistic and discourse points of view.

Selections from works which clearly offer examples of the way in which language can be consciously used to achieve a certain purpose or effect can be used. Students' attention can be drawn to the choice of a word, a structure or a pattern to embody a particular intention and to highlight a specific effect. Here, the concept of style as deviance can be brought to shed light on the mistakes students make in their writing.

Many people have reservations about exposing students to works of literature for fear that they will follow the deviant or ungrammatical examples which are often found in them. This fear is based on the wrong concept that language is acquired in bits and pieces out of context. The fact that students have been exposed to correct grammatical language 'models' in textbooks over ten years does not guarantee that they can use language grammatically, let alone realistically. Their language also deviates from the norm. It is revealing to compare in context the deviant and ungrammatical sentences in a work of literature with those in most students' writing. Students do not deviate consciously or deliberately to achieve a certain effect. They are writing without a clear sense of purpose. They are accustomed to the denotative use of words to represent the world of objects. Literature can sensitize them to the shades of meaning. It alerts them to exercise their volition in their choice of words and structures to express themselves. Using language then becomes a voluntary experience.

Another useful consideration in choosing literary materials for the language classroom is the discourse element. Discourse as explained by Roger Fowler is 'speech participation and attitudinal colouring'. Every utterance implies a situation whereby the addresser and the addressee are related in some way. And the attitude is coloured by the choice of word or tone of voice in relation with its context of use. As we have seen, the English HK students are exposed to in coursebooks and examinations seldom demands speech participation because it seldom conveys attitude and it seldom invites the reader's response. If there is little or no speech participation between the reader and the author, such use of language is unlikely to generate communication between the student and the teacher in the classroom. The use of English becomes artificial; learning and teaching it thus is a surrogate experience.

Sample Material and Lessons

Now let us Consider some of the literary materials I have tried out in the language classroom.

1. *Drama: From Julius Caesar III, ii, 13–113*

An extract from Shakespeare's Julius Caesar was shown on video in a secondary four language class. The main stylistic features of the two speeches were discussed. I wrote the stylistic analysis for myself. The urge to share my reading of the extract with the students motivated me to write this, i.e. to learn with them. As a follow-up assignment, students were asked to use the structures and rhetoric found in the speeches for creative writing. The purpose was to encourage them to apply what they had learned to express themselves. And the script THIEVES SPEAK IN COURT (Appendix 3) was the result of our effort.

2. *Story: The Soldier and Death: Jim Henson's Storyteller*

This story on video was chosen because it illustrates an author/reader communication situation. The narrator and the narratee appear on stage to mediate between the author and the reader. The narrative point of view is clearly communicated to the reader so that one cannot help generate discussion and creative writing. The analysis appended was written to describe the process of reading (Appendix 4).

3. *Poetry: 'Gruesome' by Roger McGough and 'Hunting Song' by Donald Finkel (Appendix 5)*

These two poems are Schools' Speech Festival pieces. The Festival is a big annual event in Hong Kong schools. This year, more than 60,000 participants entered events including poetry recitation, prose reading, acting, playwriting, Bible reading and public speaking. I think that teachers can better make use of the oportunity and the mood of the Speech Festival to incorporate literature into their language classroom and extra-curricular activities. The two poems presented on video illustrate what I did with my students in class. During the preparation, we together tried out and decided the ways the poems were understood, read and dramatised. We rehearsed together different facial expressions, eye-movements, dynamics in tone and rhythm, and moods until everybody came into agreement with why and how to treat each word, phrase, sentence and the whole piece. There were some follow-up activities after the competition.

4. *Song: 'Scarborough Fair' re-arranged by Simon and Garfunkel (Appendix 5)*

To explore the full communicative potential of language in songs, we must guide students to respond to the message, to feel the impact of the utterance and to work at the style. This can be done by critical analysis and appreciation of the form and the meaning of the song. Let me illustrate this with the song SCARBOROUGH FAIR presented on slide.

Most students will have no difficulty in understanding the subject matter. The 'what' question is not a problem. But the more essential task is to sensitize them to the experiences of the soldier. This leads us from the

837

content to the techniques of the song. How do the writers/writer present the cruelties of war? How effective is this presentation? Why does it make a deep impression?

First, we may guide them to understand the narrative structure. The song does not narrate a story in straight chronological order. It dramatizes a theme hinging on the interplays of the present with the past; the now with then; here with there. Contrast is here basic to the structure. The setting of the battlefield stands in great relief to the background of home. The cruelties of war and the helplessness of the soldier become more striking and oppressive amid the spices of the kitchen and the warmth of home. Repetition serves to reinforce this impression and effect. The line 'Parsley, sage, rosemary and thyme' reiterated in every stanza the scent of sweet memory. It revives the soldier who has become numbed and stupefied, following mechanically the orders of the generals to 'fight for a cause that they have long ago forgotten'. These herbal spices are both healing, as they help restore the senses to the soldier, and soothing as they bring him back sweet memory of his love. However, she can only mourn for him as he can sleep 'unaware of the clarion call' only in his grave.

If students are moved to put themselves in the position of the soldier, their sympathy will be enlarged and their sensibilities sharpened. They will begin to analyse the techniques in presentation, such as the use of contrast, repetition, imagery and even counterpoint in music. Their power of appreciation will be increased.

A Proposed Language Examination Syllabus

To administer one examination in Hong Kong for students of different abilities and aptitudes will produce mediocrity and frustration. In view of the huge candidature which is composed of students of mixed abilities, interests and aspirations, the examination should be more flexible and accommodating. Its content could include some optional papers and the evaluation could take project work into account. This could, to some extent, reduce pressure created by the one-for-all examination and encourage different potentialities and needs. The following are some tentative suggestions. They are by no means exhaustive.

Composition—can invite creative writing as one option. Book reports, film reviews, poems, stories and playscripts can be adjudicated on project basis

Precis' and Reading Comprehension Passages—can include passages of different styles and registers, e.g. extracts of literary prose

Listening—can include dialogues from movies, episodes from novels, songs and jokes, etc.

Oral—can include verse and prose speaking.

By including some literary extracts in the language syllabus, it is hoped that the way language is treated, taught and tested might be changed. Literature implies an attitude to language. It demands our treatment of

8.10

language in its own right. It instils in us a positive attitude to and even a love for language. Through it, we may develop our sensitivity to, and interest in, language so that we come to enjoy its playfulness, creativity and subtlety.

Literature also implies a different approach to language. Language is not treated as a fixed entity, data or rules for rote learning. Literature engages us emotionally and intellectually to feel and think into what the language embodies. We cannot help but participate in the communication situation created by the language. For this purpose, we can choose the literary extracts which illustrate how language is consciously used to convey point of view, tone and attitude, feeling and mood through repetition and contrast, metaphor and simile, irony and humour. And to involve students emotionally and intellectually in what they study, the exam can test their understanding of these different uses of language.

I must here clarify that it is not only literature that embodies these different uses of language; literature is only one of many sources. in order to declare that I am not biased against other sources, I hereby propose my ideal coursebook for the language curriculum.

The Proposed Coursebook

It can be stylistically compiled to include authentic passages of different contents, styles and registers, business letters and memos, ads, news reports, jokes and humour, historical writing, technical writing, legal documents, religious and philosophical writing, authentic speeches, linguistic description and terms, as well as literary works and criticisms, etc. Some people might think that authentic material is too difficult for senior secondary students. They have understimated the potential of both students and teachers as well as the versatility of authentic material.

In this way, students are exposed to different situations. It becomes really a tool for study, a medium of genuine communication and of pleasure and entertainment, as well as a valuable asset in everyday life.

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APPENDIX ONE

HONG KONG CERTIFICATE OF EDUCATION EXAMINATION 1987

英國語文(課程乙)　試卷二(多項選擇題)
ENGLISH LANGUAGE (SYLLABUS B) PAPER II (MULTIPLE-CHOICE)

10.15 am–11.15 am (1 hour)

PART 1　COMPREHENSION

PASSAGE A　*Read this article and then answer questions 1–11.*

THE MASTER CUTTER'S GREATEST CHALLENGE

In a small windowless room, totally hidden from outsiders, several flat steel wheels spin silently on a workbench. They resemble record turntables, only each is equipped with special tools which gently but firmly press a rough gemstone against it, and they must go on turning for days, and sometimes even weeks or months. Amongst them one stands out because its tools are bigger than all the others. This is because they were made for a one-time task. Once this one job is done, they will not be used again. The room has bullet-proof doors that open electronically under the watchful eye of security cameras. Its location is so secret that it can only be viewed in pictures, and the Zale Corporation, who are in charge of this operation, will not even say what city, or what country it is in.

1. We can assume that the room is windowless ——
   - A. because the wheels can't be heard.
   - B. so that no one can see into it.
   - C. because it's a store for special tools.
   - D. so that the workers can't look out.

2. In line 5, 'a one-time task' means a job which
   - A. is not done any longer.
   - B. only requires one person.
   - C. will take a long time.
   - D. will not be done again.

PASSAGE B　*Read this magazine article and then answer questions 12–22.*

DOES EXERCISE WORK?

The craze for fitness which began in America in the 1960s has been followed almost everywhere else in the West. It has led people to adopt various new habits, which can be summed up in two ways: better diet and more exercise. In developed or developing countries, where work involves less and less physical effort, and where people eat food that is both richer and less natural, few would dispute the importance of being careful about what one eats. The value of exercise is more debatable. Some people believe it is the key to longevity. Senior executives can be found cycling to work, playing squash in the lunch hour, or working out in a gymnasium. If you get up early in any Western capital you can see people jogging along the pavements and through the parks.

12. The main point the writer makes about diet in the first paragraph is that it is ....
    - A. obviously important in Western countries.
    - B. necessary for people who have to work hard.
    - C. something people tend to disagree about.
    - D. less important to health than exercise.

13. In the first paragraph, 'diet' means ....
    - A. trying to be slim.
    - B. the craze for fitness.
    - C. being careful about what one eats.
    - D. eating richer food.

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PART II USAGE

Decide which of the choices on Page 6 would best complete the article if inserted in the blanks.

CHINA'S LAST LINK WITH THE IMPERIAL PAST

In an old house in northern Beijing (23) one of China's few remaining links with its imperial past – Pu Jie, brother of the last emperor, Pu Yi. Pu Jie is a thin little old man, who (24) a well-tailored Mao suit. Nowadays, (25) helping to govern a vast empire, he works with ink and a brush, producing calligraphy for the endless (26) of visitors who come to see him. But if there (27) two revolutions and two world wars, he would have been a senior member of the Imperial government, and might have (28) his brother as emperor.

23. A. lives
B. living
C. lives there
D. had lived

24. A. wears
B. wearing
C. dresses
D. dressed

33. A. on
B. at
C. in
D. by

34. A. lack of
B. lacking
C. lacked
D. had lack of

43. A. For
B. In
C. During
D. By

44. A. name
B. call
C. address
D. say

In each of the following questions, decide which of the choices given best completes the sentence if inserted in the place marked ....

52. Have you .... any news about John's brother?

A. known

B. heard

C. found

D. listened

53. What's the .... of worrying when you've done the best you can?

A. use

B. help

C. need

D. reason

54. Did you .... that job you were interviewed for last week?

A. get

B. have

C. offer

D. succeed

55. I hope I can see "Platoon" this week. I .... a chance since it came to Hong Kong.

A. haven't

B. hadn't had

C. haven't had

D. couldn't have

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HONG KONG EXAMINATIONS AUTHORITY

HONG KONG CERTIFICATE OF EDUCATION EXAMINATION 1987

英國語文(課程乙)　試卷五
ENGLISH LANGUAGE (SYLLABUS B)　PAPER V

8.30 am–10.00 am　(1½ hours)

VOLCANOES

1　History is full of natural disasters, but perhaps the most frightening and at the same time the most beautiful to watch is the eruption of a volcano. Volcanoes are found all over the globe, from the hot tropical regions to the frozen areas of the Arctic and Antarctic. There are several types of volcano. They range from those that erupt regularly but do not do much damage, to those that 'sleep' for years and then suddenly erupt without warning and with tremendous energy.

2　One of the most famous 'sleeping' volcanoes was on Tristran, a small island in the south Atlantic Ocean. It erupted at the end of the last century. Some of the effects of the eruptions were described by people who had lived on Tristran or one of the islands nearby while others were recorded by scientists.

3　Things first started to happen in July 1893 when the fishermen who lived on Tristran noticed the volcano beginning to smoke. This was followed soon afterwards by small earth tremors that shook their small huts. The few hundred inhabitants were terrified and fled to neighbouring islands shortly before the first of a series of massive explosions that shook the island in early August of the same year. These were heard 150 kilometres away.

4　The volcano continued to erupt at intervals for the rest of August and throughout September. By early October, according to notes left by one visitor to Tristran, Professor Verdi of Milan University, although most of the trees were still standing, the surface of the island was covered by a layer of ash 50 centimetres thick.

(B)　Professor Verdi's notes give us scientific evidence of what happened in early October 1893. There are other scientific records of what happened later, on October 26th and 27th. In not more than 70 words, say where these other records were made, and what they tell us. *(10 marks)*

Question 2

(A)　Paragraph 8 of the article is rewritten below. However, some of the words are missing. Fill in each blank using ONE word only to complete the meaning. THE WORDS YOU USE MUST BE TAKEN FROM PARAGRAPH 8.
The first one has been done for you as an example. *(8 marks)*

__(a)__ do not completely　　(a) Scientists
__(b)__ on what led to the dramatic eruptions　　(b) ________
which __(c)__ the island of Tristran but　　(c) ________

Question 3

Fill in each blank in the passage with ONE word only which best completes the meaning. The first three have been done for you as examples. You should write your answers in the spaces by the side of the passage. *(21 marks)*

What you should do when the typhoon signals are hoisted

Because of sudden changes in –(a)– conditions (a) Weather

some early precautions may be necessary –(b)– you (b) when

plan your activities.

–(c)– on precautions is contained in weather bulletins. (c) Advice

The following notes –(1)– you more information on (1) ____________

what action to –(2)–. (2) ____________

SIGNAL		SYMBOL		
STAND BY	1	⊤	Listen to all weather –(3)–.	(3) ____________
STRONG WIND	3	⊥	Take all necessary precautions because even at –(4)– stage strong winds and heavy –(5)– may occur. Secure all loose objects so that they will not be –(6)– away by the wind. Remember that ferry services –(7)– probably be affected.	(4) ____________ (5) ____________ (6) ____________ (7) ____________

NOT TO BE TAKEN AWAY

1988 HKCE Oral English Examination

DIALOGUE 1

(Read the candidate's words ONLY)

Examiner : *Are you working in the holidays?*

Candidate : **Yes, I've got myself a job working in a clothing factory. It'll probably be quite boring, but at least it'll be easy. I'll be checking the clothes to make sure that the quality is up to standard.**

Examiner : *Why take a boring job?*

Candidate : **Well, to tell you the truth, I'm only doing it for the money. My parents have promised me that if I save all my earnings, they will give me the same amount, so that I can buy a computer. You know I've been wanting one for ages.**

APPENDIX THREE

THIEVES SPEAK IN COURT

Cast: Thief, Judge, Prosecutor, Millionfacturer and Jury.

P: Mr Judge, this suspect stole one dollar from a millionfacturer on the second of May, 1986.

J: Plead guilty or not?

T: No, I had'nt stolen it.

P: Even though you deny it, we have our honourable citizen, Mr Millionfacturer to prove the case. Mr Millionfacturer please.

M: Swearing I am. What I speak is true, if not, I will be struck dead by the Thunder God. Okay?

T: (wickedly) Okay?

J: Be serious.

P: Is he the one who stole your one dollar coin?

W: Yes, I saw him steal it in his right hand, then hand it to his left hand and at last he put it into his right pocket.

J: Have you got any proof?

M: Proof? As I am a millionfacturer, I provide goods for society, work for people; as I contribute so much, I am regarded as an honourable man; as I am an honourable man, I am the proof.

J: Do you plead guilty or not? If not, defend yourself.

T: All right! I plead guilty but . . .

J: Then why did you ruin your future for such a little money?

T: Oh! Not that I love my future less, but that I love money more. Hmm . . . and I love all of you more, understand?

J: No! You mean you stole the money for us?

T: In fact, money is for exchanging purposes. And now, I use my effort to exchange the money. Besides, if I had not stolen it, other people would do it. Anyway, some need to be thieves, if not what are you judge and prosecutor here for?

J & P: There is a point.

T: Had you rather I had'nt stolen the money, you all be either theives or unemployed, than that I stole the money, you all be honourable men? In fact, I am very great. I save you all.

J: (moved) Go on.

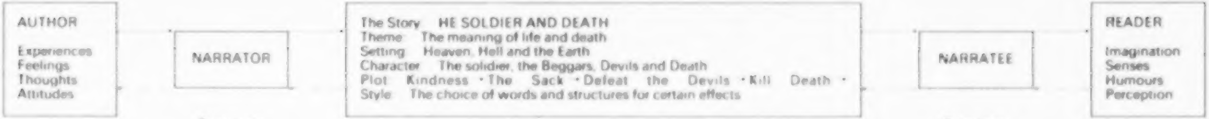
T: As you see luxury goods, you buy them, as I find you indulge in such materialistic luxuries, I weep for you; as I wept for you, I want to save you; and as I wanted to save you, I must steal all your money. You see! I did it for all the honourable motives in the world.

J, P, Jury: (moved and crying)

(To be continued.)

APPENDIX FOUR

AUTHOR/READER COMMUNICATION



AUTHOR

Experiences
Feelings
Thoughts
Attitudes

NARRATOR

The Story HE SOLDIER AND DEATH
Theme The meaning of life and death
Setting Heaven, Hell and the Earth
Character The solidier, the Beggars, Devils and Death
Plot Kindness · The Sack · Defeat the Devils · Kill Death ·
Style The choice of words and structures for certain effects

NARRATEE

READER

Imagination
Senses
Humours
Perception

Functions:
To tell the story to the reader
To express the author's tone and standpoint

Functions:
To listen to the story for the reader
To signal the reader to response

TEACHER'S ROLE:

To facilitate the author/reader communication
To sensitize students to the stylistic use of language
To elicit their response
To help them to express their perception

STUDENT'S ROLE:

To participate in the narrative communication situation
To get beyond the storyline and the characters
To enter into discourse with the author

Jim Henson's Storyteller: THE SOLDIER AND DEATH—AN ANALYSIS

NARRATIVE POINT OF VIEW

1. From whose point of view the story is told?
2. What would happen if the story were told by the Soldier himself or by Death or by the Devils? To experience the change and difference, try to retell/rewrite the story.

CHARACTERIZATION

1. What is the significance of the title THE SOLDIER AND DEATH?
2. Why do you think the author chose a soldier and death to be the main characters?
3. What would the story lose if it were called THE MAGIC SACK, or AN ENCOUNTER WITH THE DEVILS?
4. Which of the following appeals to you most and why:
   The Soldier, Devils, Death, the three Beggars, the Narrator, the Narratee, the Author?

TIME AND ATTITUDE

1. What is the author's to the Soldier's kindness to the three old men? How is this attitude expressed in the narrator's tone?
2. Which events/episodes make you laugh and why?
3. Which scenes are most touching? How do the narrator and author make them so?
4. Discuss the attitude of the author towards life and death in the light of the ending of the story.

SETTING AND ATMOSPHERE

1. Discuss the use of music and sound effects in
   —The soldier's whistle
   —The Devils' castle
   —The Czar's bed
   —Heaven
2. Discuss the use of colour and space in Heaven and hell, What impressions are cxreated?

APPENDIX FIVE

Scarborough Fair

Are you going to Scarborough Fair;
Em G A Em
Parsley, sage, rose mary and thyme.
Em G G ♯m Em D
Remember me to one who lives there.
Em D Em D Em
Em D Em G.
(On the side of a hill in the deep forest green)
Tell her to make me a cambric shirt
Em G A Em
(Tracing of sparrow on snow-crested brown)
Parsley, sage, rose mary and thyme;
Em G G F♯m-Em D
(Blanket and bed clothes the child of the
With out no seams nor needle work,
Em D G D Em D Em
mountain) (Sleeps unaware of the clarion call)
Then she'll be a true love of mine.
(On the side of a hill a sprinkling of leaves)
Tell her to find me an acre of land
(Washes the grove with silvery tears)
Parsley, sage, rose mary and thyme;
(A soldier cleans and polishes a
Between the salt water and the sea strand,
run) (Sleeps unaware of the clarion call)
Then she'll be a true love of mine.
(War bellows blazing in scarlet
Tell her to reap it with a sickle of
battalions) (Generals order their soldiers to kill)
Parsley, sage, rose mary and thyme;
(And to fight for a course they've long ago
And gather it all in a bunch of heather,
forgotten) (Sleeps unaware of the clarion, call)
Then she'll be a true love of mine.

Who is the speaker? Where is he?

How does he get you involved in the song?
Does he want you just to carry out his instructions?

What does the writer want to express through these instructions? How does he express this?

A second voice in the third person is embedded in the counterpoint. Whose voice is that? To whom is the voice addressed?

How is this voice related to the voice of the speaker?

What are in contrast in the song? And what does the writer make use of these contrasts for:

Which lines are repeated? What are the effects of the repetition? Does it help reinforce the theme?

Gruesome by Roger McGough

I was sitting in the sitting room toying with some toys
when from a door marked: 'GRUESOME'
There came a GRUESOME noise.

Cautiously I opened it
and there to my surprise
a little GRUE lay sitting
with tears in its eyes.

'Oh little GRUE please tell me
what is it ails thee so?'
'Well I'm so small,' he sobbed,
'GRUESSES don't want to know'

'Exercises are the answer,
Each morning you must DO SOME'
He thanked me, smiled,
and do you know what?
The very next day he . . .

Hunting song

The fox he came lolloping, lolloping,
Lolloping. His eyes were bright,
His ears were high.
He was like death at the end of a string
When he came to the hollow
Log. He ran in one side
And out of the other. O
He was sly.

The hounds they came tumbling, tumbling,
Tumbling. Their heads were low,
Their eyes were red.
The sound of their breath was louder than death
When they came to the hollow
Log. They boiled at one end
But: bitch found the scent. O
They were mad.

The hunter came galloping, galloping,
Galloping. All damp was his mare
From her hooves to her mane.
His coat and his mouth were redder than death
When he came to the hollow
Log. He took in the rein
And over he went. O
He was fine.

The log he just lay there, alone in
The clearing. No fox nor hound
Nor mounted man
Saw his black round eyes in their perfect disguise
(As the ends of a hollow
Log). He watched death go through him,
Around him and over him. O
He was wise.

Donald Finkel

THE CULTURAL BRIDGE
(From Asian Poems to English Poems)

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Editors' Note:
This was a paper presented at the International Conference on the teaching of English Language/Literature in the Hong Kong Context at the Chinese University of Hong Kong. June 7-9, 1990.

In Appendix 1 of H.L.B. Moody's book Literary Appreciation (longman: 1968) there appears a poem written by one of his students when he, Moody, was teaching in Africa. The student is speaking to Poetry and he begins:

Surely, they find pleasure in you
  Who read and understand you.

He goes on to mention some of what he calls the 'qualities' of poetry, and then continues:

Sometimes I try to see
  What images I can form out of
  The imagery you provide
But with less success do I
  See these 'qualities'. The rhymes sure,
  I can see for they are simple
  As learning my A B C.
But why is this? Am I the only one
  Of all your lovers who finds this trouble?
No, is my answer and so is of many
  Of my fellow friends, Africans at least.
Beside the different gowns you wear
  Of the different ages you live,
You sometime speak of places,
  Places, historical happenings, or
  Some characteristics of your time
All alien to me and never have my eyes seen
  Even your description of the furniture
  Or of the atmosphere around you,
  Helps to throw me in some bewilderment . . .

I suspect there may be quite a number of literature students in Hong Kong Secondary Schools who would sympathize with this African student. It is with these students in mind that I wish to suggest that Hong Kong teachers of Literature could profitably exploit poems written in English by poets from their own or a similar culture to their students before they ask them to read and respond to English poetry i.e. the poems of English poets. One reason is

849

that the students will only have to contend initially with linguistic difficulties found in poetry, and not have to face the additional problem of, for example, trying to understand the cultural connotations of many of the lexical items to be found in English poetry. I will suggest three additional reasons for using Asian poems written in English, at the end of this paper.

In 1986, while teaching English at a Residential School in Malaysia, I was asked to prepare a small group of students for the Literature paper of the Malaysian equivalent of the 'O' Level examination. One of the set books was *A Choice of Poets*, an anthology of nineteenth and twentieth century English poetry. The first thing I discovered was that these students, though very intelligent, highly motivated and displaying a very good standard of spoken and written English were totally unprepared for the study of English poetry. In fact hardly any of them had read any poetry before either in English or their mother tongue. Now suddenly they were expected to appreciate and make a personal response to one of the most demanding forms of literary language.

Since 1986, I have come across a number of poems written in English by Malaysian and Singaporean poets, which I realize now would have been ideal material to 'lessen the shock of this sudden and demanding exposure' (Gilroy-Scott in Brumfit, 1983:1) to English poetry. Let me illustrate what I mean. Compare, for example, an English poem to be found in *A Choice of Poets*, with a Malaysian poem written in English.

AN AUGUST MIDNIGHT by *Thomas Hardy*

A shaded lamp and a waving blind,
And the beat of a clock from a distant floor:
On this scene enter—winged, horned, and spined—
A longlegs, a moth, and a dumbledore;

While 'mid my page there idly stands
A sleepy fly, that rubs its hands . . . . . .
Thus meet we five, in this still place,
At this point of time, at this point in space.

—My guests besmear my new-penned line,
Or bang at the lamp and fall supine.
'God's humblest, they!' I muse. Yet why?
They know Earth-secrets that know not I.

NIGHTPIECE by *Lee Tzu Pheng*

If I listen closely
to these razor sounds that
saw the night
I hear in them the small cries
That used to make an enchanted thing
of the lawn at our old house

myriad voices that told us children
life was out there in the dark—
moths in the gardenia tree
singing in the hedges and the grass
and even now
when evening folds its wings upon the rise
I can feel in the great deep darkness outside
movements in the hedges and the grass
moths in the gardenia tree.

Although there is an obvious point of comparison between the poems as regards the poets' insight into the world of nature, the atmospheric associations cannot be further apart, as anyone who has spent only one night in a kampong house in Malaysia would agree. My Malaysian students could certainly appreciate the description of nocturnal noises as 'razor sounds that saw the night' (the cicada, for example, makes a noise not unlike a small razor-sharp saw) but could hardly be expected to identify with a situation at night when it is so quiet that one can hear a clock ticking 'from a distant floor'. Again, whereas the English poet identifies the creatures of the night that visit him within the confines of his own room, the Asian poet leaves the creatures outside for the most part unidentified, mysterious, noisy, even manacing, but still enchanting and objects of wonderment. This attitude would be easier to appreciate by a Malaysian student, than the attitude of the English poet. Notice also that Lee's poem, unlike Hardy's, does not contain any unusual forms of words and structures for the student to grapple with. So it is because, on the one hand, that the theme of the two poems is similar, but on the other hand, it is because the words and their connotations in Lee's poem are more accessible to Malaysian students, that it is suitable material to serve as a point of entry into the more culturally alien world of Hardy's poem.

Now let's turn to the Syllabus recommended by the Curriculum Development Committee of Hong Kong. We find that Literature students are expected to 'support their individual responses' to the works of English Literature 'with relevant reasons'. Of course, the teacher's task of trying to develop in students a personal response to poetry will be made easier if the ideas, situations, and experiences to found in the poems, used initially, are culturally appropriate. That is to say, the cultural context in which the ideas are expressed and the experiences described, should not, at first, be too far removed from their own. Littlewood (1986:175) reminds us that a student's interest in and appreciation of the experiences described in a literary text, will be enchanced if the content makes 'contact with their experience'. In addition, the full appreciation of a poem often depends on an awareness of the significance of a special event in which the poem is rooted. Hong Kong students, for example, could hardly be expected to identify with Wordsworth's delight at seeing 'a host of golden daffodils' if they have never seen daffodils growing in a park or a field.

Turning to the Hong Kong Syllabus again, we find these words; 'Candidates will be expected to show an ability to understand the thought and feeling in the poetry, and the ways in which these are conveyed'. Now in the case of some of the set poems that ability must be very difficult for students to acquire, let alone demonstrate. I say this because I believe that the door to the world of many an English poem is closed to Asian students of English Literature because the words do not have for them the connotations by means of which the poet paints a great deal of the picture and conveys much of the meaning. To illustrate what I mean I'd like to read two more poems to you. One is an English poem taken from the set book for Hong Kong students and the other is an Asian poem written in English.

MY GRANDMOTHER by *Elizabeth Jennings*

She kept an antique shop—or it kept her
Among apostle spoons and Bristol glass,
The faded silks, the heavy furniture,
She watched her own reflection in the brass
Salvers and silver bowls, as if to prove
Polish was all, there was no need of love
And I remember now I once refused
To go out with her, since I was afraid.
It was perhaps a wish not to be used
Like antique objects. Though she never said
That she was hurt, I still could feel the guilt
Of that refusal, guessing how she felt.
Later, too frail to keep a shop, she put
All her best things in one long, narrow room.
The place smelt old, of things too long kept shut,
The smell of absences where shadows come
That can't be polished. There was nothing then
To give her own reflection back again.
And when she died I felt no grief at all,
Only the guilt of what I once refused.
I walked into her room among the tall
Sideboard and cupboards—things she never used
But needed: and no finger-marks were there,
Only the new dust falling through the air.

FOR MY OLD AMAH by *Wong Phui Nam*

To most your dying seems distant,
outside the palings of our concern
Only to you the fact was real
when the flame caught among the final brambles
of your pain. And lying there
in this cubicle, on your trestle
over the old newspapers and spittoon,

your face bears the waste of terror
at the crumbling of your body's walls.
The moth fluttering against the electric bulb,
and on the wall your old photographs,
do not know your going. I do not know
when it has wrenched open the old wounds.
When branches snapped in the dark
you would have had a god among the trees
make us a journey of your going.
Your palm crushed the child's tears from my face.
Now this room will become your going, brutal
in the discarded combs, the biscuit tins
and neat piles of your dresses.

I feel that the world of the Asian poem is more accessible to Asian students than the world of the English poem. They would, for example, be more comfortable with the connotation of words such as Amah, cubicle, trestle, spittoon, electric bulb, moth, old photographs, discarded combs, from the Asian poem, rather than the connotations of words like Apostle spoons, Bristol glass, and brass salvers from the English poem. Also, it is common for Asian children to be brought up by a woman other than their mother, at least for some period of time. Therefore, it should not be difficult for most Asian students to identify with the intensity of feeling felt by the poet on the death of a woman who might have become a second mother or grandmother, rather than the kind of analytical guilt complex of the English poet. Thirdly, it is must more common for old people in Asian countries to spend their last years close to their family rather than being left to grow old and eccentric alone and lonely, as is often the case in England. Here then is another poem in which the overseas student of Literature does not have to grapple with alien cultural connotations, and which could be used in the classroom as a 'way-in' to the English poem set for study.

It has often been pointed out that the comprehension of a written text depends to a large extent on a number of assumptions shared by both reader and author who, as Nuttall (1982:7) reminds us 'assumes that the reader shares attitudes, beliefs and values expected of people who have grown up in a similar society'. Indeed, as we know, reading is not a one-way process for there are clues in the written text left there by the author so that the reader can use them to construct meaning. If however, the reader does not see the clues, then part or all of the meaning may be lost. Moreover, with regard to poetry, the difficulty of understanding the poetic language will be compounded if the subject matter is unfamiliar or the characters described are not easily recognizable to the extent that the students cannot picture in their mind's eye, what is being described. So poems which deal with familiar themes and describe situations to which the students can relate are suitable material to use when attempting to develop the students' appreciation of poems as well as their awareness of the kind of language to be found in them. To this end then, English Literature teachers in Hong Kong could perhaps include among their anthology of poems to be presented in class a few which have been written by poets from a similar cultural background as their pupils.

Here's another Asian poem written in English.

NEW YEAR'S MORNING by *Lee Tzu Pheng*

The children come searching
among the scattered red of the road
for unexploded crackers,
turning over the charred heaps
and eagerly picking up one or two;
the night's dews have made them damp,
they no longer sound sharply,
but even a flash and a pop
is an artistic success,
an event of power.

Small faces smile
a celebration
as echoes rock the neighbourhood,
machine-gun into the new year.

The teacher could first anticipate the theme or topic of the poem by eliciting ideas connected to their own experience for it is better at first to focus on the topic and feelings of the poem rather than the vocablulary or structure. For example, before reading this poem to the students, the teacher could ask them to think about, in pairs, three things that people do during Chinese New Year. He could then pool all the ideas from the students trying to depict a similar scene to that which is going to be painted by the poet. Next, the students experience the text of the poem by listening to it being read aloud, in such a way that they at least hear the correct pronunciation and rhythm. This is important because, as P. D. Roberts (1986:15) reminds us, 'rhythm and sound are the heart of the poem'. Moreover, if E.S.L. students are simply allowed to read the poem for themselves the internal recording of the poem in their mind might be faulty and the opportunity to use this Asian poem to lead the students to awareness of how rhythm and sound contribute to meaning may be lost.

In conclusion, here are the additional three reasons why Literature teachers in Hong Kong could profitably exploit Asian poems written in English. First, their students may come to regard poems as accessible and therefore enjoyable. Second, they will be motivated to read other poems and even perhaps try their hand at writing some. Finally, I think they will be better prepared to read and respond to English poetry.

854

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KEEPING STUDENTS IN THE MAINSTREAM: SCHOOL-BASED REMEDIES FOR SLOW READERS OF ENGLISH

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Introduction

The standard of English in Hong Kong secondary schools has long been a public concern, and became more prominent with the extension of compulsory education after 1978. Whereas in the old system many low achievers dropped out at an early stage, now they must remain in school for a longer period of time.

In order to improve standards, in 1981 the Education Department established a post for remedial teaching of English in each government or aided secondary school. The move aimed to bring slower learners up to the general level within each school's ability range.

As a result of the government's intention to promote Chinese as the medium of instruction, schools are faced with a system of 'positive discrimination' in which they can obtain extra teacher resources in order to 'avert the consequential drop in the standard of English due to reduced exposure' (Hong Kong 1986). Schools have been encouraged to use the extra teachers to split classes and therefore to reduce class size.

However, it is questionable whether reduction of class size can by itself achieve the intended purpose. Research, both in Hong Kong and elsewhere, has failed to demonstrate clear correlations between class size and achievements (see e.g. Haddad 1978, Larkin & Keeves 1984, Ho 1985).

The situations of individual schools are too varied for problems to be tackled by a standard intervention policy. Accordingly, school-based identification of problems and solutions therefore becomes a more appropriate strategy.

This paper focuses specifically on student problems in the reading of English as a Second Language (ESL). It presents an alternative framework for teaching, and makes recommendations on school-based operation of the framework.

Problems and Remedies in ESL

One major source of difficulty for many ESL learners arises from the level of proficiency demanded by the system. The revolution brought by the great expansion of knowledge and the efficiency of the media in conveying it has required ordinary people to have much stronger literacy skills than used to be the case. This places new pressures on school pupils. Moving along different levels of proficiency, they continually confront new problems and demands. It is arguable that attention to problems should not be restricted to the junior levels, and that remedial teaching is needed for slower learners in every form throughout the school.

Johnson' (1986) survey on remedial teaching of ESL in Hong Kong secondary schools highlighted two main issues. First, the survey exposed a lack of remedial English teaching in the higher forms. This matched the Education Department's view that remedial teaching was most needed in lower forms, though it did not match the reality of language demands facing all pupils. Johnson pointed out that in a situation of limited resources, it did not necessarily seem wise to concentrate attention on the students who are least able, least motivated and least likely to benefit.

Johnson's survey also addressed several curricular issues, It showed that very few schools had special remedial teaching programmes. In most schools the course books and examinations were identical for remedial and non-remedial students.

The lack of special course materials and examinations raises questions about the justification for setting up remedial classes in the first place. If the objective is to eliminate differences in proficiency levels and to reintegrate slow learners into ordinary classes, it is difficult to see how this can be achieved without separate programmes with attainable goals for the weaker students.

In addition, further problems arise from labelling. Relegation of slow learners to special classes may have a negative impact on their work and attitude to work due to the label attached to them (Rist 1978).

This perspective suggests that remedial programmes are often self-defeating. Without specially-tailored programmes, remedial learners may have little hope of reintegration to the mainstream. Indeed, rather to the contrary the remedial nature of such classes could even become more permanent, due to the effect of labelling. In this case, the justification for remedial teaching may be challenged. The alternative focus should be to keep students in the mainstream and help them to develop their reading skills, facing new problems and reaching full potential at all levels.

Textbooks and Achievement Levels

The composition of the mainstream varies according to individual school practice. Some schools stream students on the basis of their academic abilities, whereas others go for mixed-ability patterns across classes of particular levels. Yet whatever the definition of the mainstream, two basic facts generally remain consistent. First, students in the same form level vary in their English reading proficiency levels; and second, they all use the same set of textbooks. It should not be assumed that when students are kept in the mainstream it is possible to eliminate differences in student achievement levels. A varied pace of student progress is a natural phenomenon in learning.

One might then ask whether all students must have the same set of textbooks for the same form levels. Ideally, textbooks should match the students' standards, and there should be more than one set of textbooks within any form level. However it is administratively difficult to use different sets of textbooks even when classes are academically streamed. It would require fine placement tests for resetting students, and even when testing instruments are available schools encounter problems of timetabling.

When the same set of textbooks is used across different proficiency levels, a process-oriented pattern of teaching is needed. This technique relates to the issue of match/mismatch between textbooks and students, and emphasises the need to exploit textbook material to develop supplementary exercises to meet the different achievement levels.

Process-oriented Teaching

Recent discussions on the nature of reading have built on the notion that reading is only incidentally visual, and have emphasised that meaning is not fully present in texts waiting to be decoded. Smith (1983) and Carrell (1988), for example, have drawn attention to the ways in which meaning is recovered during the process of reading.

When individuals derive meanings from text, the researchers argue, they use a combination of 'bottom-up' and 'top-down' processes in interaction. Bottom-up processing refers to the way that readers derive linguistic inputs from the text. Top-down processing occurs when readers use prior knowledge to make predictions about the data they will find in a text. Successful reading, it is argued, requires both bottom-up and top-down processes. The 'interactive' approach to reading focuses on the interaction between the bottom-up and top-down processes in order to facilitate effective and efficient comprehension (Silberstein 1987, p. 31).

Process-oriented models of reading extend the range of possibilities for reading instruction in a second language. The ESL reader should be taught to utilize both knowledge-based and text-based processing skills. However if the text is too difficult for the ESL reader, the reading process may become a tedious decoding exercise in which learners cannot simultaneously use their prior knowledge.

Clarke (1980) has demonstrated that linguistic deficiencies may limit the transference of L1 reading skills to reading in second language. Some readers, he points out, may be inefficient bottom-up processors, decoding language only with great effort. This deficiency may lead to over-reliance on decoding, and thus a breakdown in interactive reading. This point draws attention to the importance of the match between the text and the reader, and demonstrates that there is a threshold to pass if ESL readers are to make progress through interactive processing of the textbooks prescribed for their levels. Help in developing decoding skills is vital to enable the learner to step over the threshold to interactive reading (Kwo 1989). Accordingly, to facilitate decoding less difficult material should be given.

858

This analysis suggests that ESL teachers are faced with two pairs of questions. The first pair is diagnostic:

—which students have reached the threshold level to benefit from the chosen English textbook?

—Which students will find the textbook reading material too difficult to handle through interactive processing?

The second pair of questions relates to teaching:

—For average students whose proficiency levels match the expectations of the textbooks, what reading tasks can be designed to encourage interactive processing of the material?

—For students below the threshold, what help should be given to improve their decoding skills so that interactive processing can take place later in the year?

Answers to these questions require not only the professional knowledge and skills of the ESL teachers, but also the support of the administration. Individual teachers working in isolation, even if they have both the skills and the enthusiasm, soon find that completion of these tasks is formidable and perhaps impossible. One solution lies in the development of a school-based team.

School-Based Development of Testing & Teaching Materials

The goal of school-based work should be the development of three types of package:

- diagnostic and progress tests with standardized scores;
- supplementary reading materials and exercises for learners below the threshold; and
- supplementary exercises for faster learners above the threshold.

Development of these materials should not be a one-off operation. The materials should be put into classroom use, revised, and improved on the basis of practical experience.

Although keeping students in the mainstream is the central objective, the goal does not preclude grouping students within classes. In a mixed-ability class, students should be placed in different groups with different sets of materials and exercises of appropriate levels.

This approach will require students to spend considerable time in individual and group work, as opposed to working as an entire class at a uniform pace. A possible pattern of grouping and operating could be:

	Group A	*Group B*
Level:	Far below threshold	Just approaching threshold
Materials:	Self-accessible supplementary material	Material from the main textbook, with supplementary, easier reading exercises

	Group C	*Group D*
Level:	Above threshold, slower readers	Above threshold, faster readers
Materials:	Material from the main textbook with the attached reading exercises	Material from the main textbook, with the attached reading exercises plus supplementary materials.

Numerous other possible patterns of grouping could be devised, of course, depending on the size of the class and other factors. The chief arguments for grouping within a class, as opposed to streaming into different classes, are that mobility between groups is achieved more easily, and that students are kept on task as far as possible because of the better match between the texts and their ability.

It must be stressed that the teacher's role is certainly not that of a dispenser of standard solutions to reading problems. Because students differ in their skills and personal experiences, there are variations in the extent to which teacher input is necessary or appropriate. At no time should the teacher try to give equal attention to all students. Rather, the teacher should be concerned as much with the students' process of reading as with their product of maximum comprehension. With self-explanatory written instructions for the reading tasks and the availability of answers when exercises are completed, the teacher can move from group to group responding to queries, clarifying problematic areas and offering feedback.

Although the teacher should allow pupils to develop freely at their own rate, it is also essential to maintain sensitivity to pupils' progress or lack of progress so that appropriate reading materials and tasks can be selected. Progress tests will indicate desirable forms of re-grouping to encourage continued progress.

Implementation

Two factors strongly influence the ease with which the proposed approach can be implemented in any one school. The first concerns organisation of teacher resources. When extra teachers are allocated for split-class remedial teaching, the contact hours for individual teachers remain unchanged. It is thus unsurprising that recruitment of extra teachers has failed to encourage staff to undertake curriculum development in addition to their teaching duties. For optimum use of the limited extra teacher resources, it may be suggested that class sizes should be maintained, and extra teachers should be used to reduce average teaching hours. Such a reduction of the teaching load would permit more attention to development of curriculum materials.

A second determinant of success is the teachers' competence both in mixed-ability teaching and in collating and adapting teaching materials. The need for competence in these matters should be recognised by teacher trainers as well as by school administrators. It follows that teacher trainers also need experience in school-based curriculum development. Teams could usefully be formed to encourage collaboration between university and school teaching staff.

Conclusions

Arising from a concern about student problems in the reading of English, the chief focus of this paper is on remedial teaching. Particular attention has been placed on the way that extra teacher resources are utilised. The paper has stressed the value of process-oriented teaching, and has highlighted the importance of teacher involvement in material development as well as teaching. This orientation, it is suggested, will help ensure an optimum match between reading materials and students' proficiency levels.

Although the paper is opposed to the practice of formal streaming, it recognises that students' abilities will always vary. To deal with this, the paper recommends grouping of students within their classes.

However, this recommendation still encounters thorny questions on class size. The paper has noted that both local and international research has failed to find firm correlations between class size and pupils' academic achievement. In the light of this, it has argued that additional teachers should not be used to split classes but instead to release existing teachers from class contact time and thereby to permit all staff to increase attention to development of materials.

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VOCABULARY LEARNING AND TEACHING: EVIDENCE FROM LEXICAL ERRORS IN THE SPONTANEOUS SPEECH OF ESL LEARNERS

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Introduction

The low priority which is often attached to vocabulary teaching has been commented on in the majority of papers on second language vocabulary during the past few years. Attention has been drawn to the dangers of leaving vocabulary learning to chance on the assumption that learners pick up most of their vocabulary incidentally. McCarthy (1984), in particular, has warned against the assumption that vocabulary acquisition operates as a 'cumulative by-product of the teaching of structures or the communicative functions of sentences.' One of the aims of this paper is to add its voice to the plea for vocabulary learning to be given a more central place in language teaching. However, its main purpose is to report the findings of a recent study of some of the lexical errors which Hong Kong students make when speaking English. The discussion will focus, in particular, on the errors which relate to the formal aspects of vocabulary learning and some related implications for vocabulary teaching.

The approach which is adopted in the study is deliberately general in character. There are several reasons for this, most of which concern the nature of recent research into the two aspects of vocabulary which this study addresses: second language vocabulary acquisition and speech error data, most of which have been limited to L1 studies. The main interest lies in two areas: —

(*a*) the ways in which second language vocabulary is stored and retrieved
(*b*) the ways in which learners *activate* the vocabulary (based, in this case on the words they use when they speak).

Assumptions about Vocabulary Learning

Before we look at the design and the findings of the study in detail, it might be helpful to identify some assumptions which are made about the nature of second language vocabulary learning. These will be useful in accounting for some of the peculiar features of the investigation.

1. ***Vocabulary-learning as an on-going process***
   Experiments in second/foreign language vocabulary learning have mainly been concerned with accelerating the initial learning of vocabulary and generally investigating the ways in which learners cope with a particular approach to teaching them new words. The present

study attempts to take into account that vocabulary learning is an on-going process, even in a second language, and concentrates on the ways in which students who have been learning English for a number of years use vocabulary in natural speech.

2. ***Direct and indirect learning***

The study also recognises that while vocabulary is learned both directly and indirectly, the bulk of vocabulary learning is indirect (Nation 1982). Consequently, the investigation is not concerned with evaluating any particular method of teaching/learning vocabulary. In direct vocabulary learning, a conscious effort is made to learn vocabulary either in context or isolation. In indirect vocabulary learning, new words are learned incidentally while reading, listening or viewing, usually as a result of the information provided by the context.

It is probably worth mentioning that there is some evidence to show that large quantities of vocabulary are learned indirectly. For example, Saragi et al (1978) found that after reading a novel, learners could recognize the meanings of 76% of the 90 new words tested. The learners in the study were not allowed to consult dictionaries and they did not expect to be tested on the vocabulary afterwards. It is assumed that the learners in the present Hong Kong study have learned vocabulary both as a result of direct approaches as well as by exposure to large amounts of reading and listening material.

3. ***Active and passive vocabulary***

Most second language vocabulary research has concentrated on learners' ability to recognise vocabulary. Typically, experiments measure learners' ability to distinguish between words and non-words with the use of tests designed to measure vocabulary size. Indeed, the concept of 'knowing' a word is often understood in the sense of the ability to recognise rather than produce the word. It is generally assumed that learners gain receptive control of new words before active control and that many vocabulary items never become part of the productive capacity and remain part of receptive competence. In focusing on data from spontaneous, spoken English, the study hopes to gain some insights into the extent to which a learner's second language vocabulary is actually used in spoken production.

4. ***Spoken Data***

Since the study is interested in the way vocabulary is organised and used, only spoken English serves as a source of data. It is obviously easier from a technical point of view to study lexical errors in text which is written rather than spoken, since the latter is more difficult to capture and describe. However, written text is processed in a more conscious manner than spontaneous speech and is edited and monitored in ways which make the product (the written text) less useful as data which can tell us something about vocabulary storage and retrieval since it is less immediate.

5. ***Errors and their relative frequency***

Another reason for the general nature of the data gathering phase is that it is intended to provide a broad picture of the types of errors which learners typically make. Rather than focus from the outset on particular error types, for example, by following on from types of error found in L1 research and designing experiments to find out whether similar patterns exist in L2, it was considered appropriate, since there are very few studies of speech errors in L2, first to build up a small corpus which consists of all kinds of speech errors, so that we could establish:—

(*a*) the main error types (and make comparisons, if appropriate, with L1 studies)

(*b*) the relative frequencies of the error types (in order to know whether a particular phenomenon was widespread and in order to see what the main implications for a language teaching programme might be.)

Related Research

1. ***L1 Vocabulary***

To date there have been few studies of speech errors in L2 and a key issue which presents itself is the extent to which the findings from studies of how the L1 mental lexicon is organised, based on L1 speech errors, are applicable to L2 research. To what extent does the second language learner's lexicon of a language resemble that of a monolingual native speaker of the language? The main research evidence so far has demonstrated that the word associations between the two groups are quite different (Meara 1983). For example, the relative stability of responses to word association stimuli found in monolinguals is not found in L2 learners. This might be regarded as evidence that second language words are stored and organised in a different way from the L1 vocabulary. On the other hand, it might provide evidence for the view that the second language mental lexicon is only different from the L1 lexicon because it has a far smaller number of words and does not (yet) need the sophisticated storage and retrieval faculty of the L1 mental lexicon. However, in the absence of clear research evidence either way, it makes sense for us to draw on L1 models when investigating L2 and to test their validity for L2 theory—in the meantime, at least.

Two pieces of lexical error research which influenced the way in which the HK errors are analysed are the Aitchison and Straf (1979) study of the differences between child and adult malapropisms in L1 and more recent research by Meara and Ingle (1988), which looks at the way in which English learners of French learn words. Aitchison and Straf observe that the errors made by the children in their study tend to be in the latter parts of words, whereas adults are more likely to produce the first and final syllables of target words correctly and to make an error in medial syllables. Aitchison and Straf argue from this observation that children tend to store words in a linear manner, i.e. from left to right, whereas adults store and retrieve words according to certain 'salient features', such as the first and final syllables. Meara and Ingle make comparisons between their own findings based on L2 data and the conclusions reached by Aitchison and Straf and conclude that there are some clear differences between L1 and L2 lexical storage. The data in the present investigation have been arranged in such a way that comparisons with the above studies are possible.

2. ***Speech processing and production***

It will be useful for us to take a working hypothesis or model of how speech processing is believed to take place. We shall refer to the Fay and Cutler (1977) model, which Channell (1988) describes as a 'device for speech production . . . which consists of a grammatical frame for an intended meaning, marked with the syntactic categories of words, which are then found in the mental lexicon and placed in the grammatical frame for onward processing. Conversely, a comprehension device decodes sounds into word length segments and searches its mental lexicon for meanings to pair with them.'

Such a view implies that for both the L1 and L2 user of a language, the two distinct processes of production (speaking or writing) and comprehension (listening or reading) make differential use of the store of words in the mind. Part of the production process must consist of selection of appropriate words according to the meaning to be conveyed.

The word form is then converted into a phonological shape for onward processing into speech. Thus the direction of the mapping proposed is meaning > sound. In comprehension, the mapping is sound > meaning. We shall refer to this model of speech processing when we come to discuss some of the data.

Gathering of Data

In view if the broad interest of the project, it was necessary to try to collect as many items as possible produced in as natural a manner as possible. The method adopted was small group interviews, with four subjects taking part in informal conversations, which were recorded and subsequently transcribed for lexical error. A catalogue of topics was compiled and each of the group discussions was based on one topic only. It was hoped that by varying the topic from one group discussion to the next, it would not be possible for the subjects to prepare themselves for the discussions, for example, by rehearsing the vocabulary they expected to need. Since the main purpose was to get subjects to engage in some sort of natural, fluent exchange, topics were chosen which, it was hoped, would interest the students and yet not be so specialised or technical that some students would have any obvious advantage or disadvantage.

About 400 subjects, all of them students at the City Polytechnic of Hong Kong and drawn from different disciplines, took part in an informal 10-minute discussion in groups of four. The topics they were invited to talk about included their impressons of the new City Polytechnic campus, views on studying in Hong Kong as opposed to overseas, differences between secondary and tertiary education and aspects of their course. In order to make the discussions natural and relaxed (and to avoid any impression of an oral test), the students were told that they were taking part in a departmental research project designed to gather students' views on a number of issues and to find out how they expressed their ideas in English.

The target in this phase of the project was to build up a corpus of 500 errors. What could not really be predicted was the number of lexical errors it was reasonable to expect in a ten-minute conversation. In fact, the average was about 1 and 2 errors per student per conversation. This meant that a large number of discussion groups had to take place in order to gather sufficient data (about 40 small group discussions). Each group discussion was tape-recorded and analysed for lexical error. The errors were then coded and entered (together with the context in which they were made) into a D-Base software programme.

Error Defined

It is important to recognise that the notion of 'error' means different things to different people. It is particularly important for us to clarify what is meant by 'error' here, since we are drawing on the work of both applied linguists with an interest in SLA as well as on the work of psycholinguists, whose data are drawn, in the main, from L1. For the psycholinguists, a speech error tends to refer to unconscious slips of the tongue, resulting from wrong mental processing, while the applied linguists mean 'observable, systematic deviations from the standard norm of the target, from which we can analyse which bits of the target language the learner does not yet know, or half knows' (Channell 1988). L1 errors, then, are taken mainly to be evidence of what speakers know, whereas L2 errors are taken (mainly) to be evidence of what L2 speakers do not know. It will be appropriate to draw on both types of approach to error when we come to consider the data in the present study.

In gathering examples of lexical error, no attempt has been made to grade these in terms of error gravity, as perceived, for example, by native speakers. They are simply incorrect by any objective standard. Inevitably, some will be considered more unacceptable than others, but that does not concern us here, since we are primarily interested in identifying types of error and their frequency.

Categories of Error

The categories used are based partly on the L1 research and partly on the error analysis categories which are now widely used in second language teaching and derived from research in applied linguistics. Not surprisingly,

867

this results in a set of categories which looks somewhat hybrid. However, the categories adopted are intended to capture those features of L2 vocabulary error which allow meaningful comparison to be made with evidence from L1 studies, while at the same time identifying other types of error not relevant to L1 research, but potentially useful to L2 teaching.

Ten categories were adopted, as follows:—

1. *Initial*
   The word produced resembles the target except for the first syllable. Example: 'aspects' for 'prospects'
2. *Media*
   The word produced resembles the target except for a medial syllable. Example: 'extended' for 'exempted'
3. *Final*
   The word produced resembles the target except for the final syllable. Example: 'analysis' for 'analyst'
4. *Word Blend*
   The word produced is a blend composed of two related words. Example: 'Canchinese', a blend of 'Cantonese' and 'Chinese'
5. *Malapropism*
   The word produced sounds similar to the target, but means something quite different. Example: 'scotch' for 'squash'
6. *Semantically-related*
   The word produced is related in meaning to the target, but is not acceptable in the context. Example: 'lucky' for 'optimistic'
7. *Contraction*
   The word produced is the result of a shortening of the target. Example: 'sandwiches' for 'sandwich courses'
8. *L1 Interference*
   The word produced has been influenced directly by the L1 equivalent. Example: 'grassland' (Cantonese) for 'lawn'
9. *Paraphrase*
   The speaker is unable to produce the target word and expresses its meaning by paraphrase. Example: 'time between the terms' for 'term break'
10. *Register*
    The word produced is correct in meaning, but not acceptable in the context. Example: 'disequilibrium' for 'imbalance'

In a number of cases, it proved impossible to assign an error to one category only. Where an error appears to belong in more than one category, it has been entered accordingly.

Distribution

The distribution of errors across the various categories is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Distribution of errors across categories

TYPE	TITLE	OCCURRENCES	
		No.	%
1	INITIAL	16	3%
2	MEDIAL	20	3%
3	FINAL	92	18%
4	WORD BLEND	36	8%
5	MALAPROPISM	33	7%
6	SEMANTICALLY-RELATED	202	42%
7	CONTRACTION	17	4%
8	L1 INTERFERENCE	40	8%
9	PARAPHRASE	59	11%
10	REGISTER	12	2%

The ten categories fall into two groups. Categories 1 to 5 are concerned with the formal representation of words, while categories 6 to 10 relate to the ways in which the words are used, such as their semantic and collocational aspects. The 'formal' group (i.e. categories 1 to 5) consists of categories typically found in studies of lexical error in L1 speakers, while the 'semantic/collocational' group (i.e. categories 6 to 10) contains categories which are typically found in the L2 error analysis literature. Probably the most striking feature of the distribution of errors across the 10 categories is the fact that two categories show an unusually high rate of occurrence (categories 3 and 6) and that while the most frequent errors are 'semantically-related', the second most frequent are of a formal nature (category 3, final syllables). These results are interesting for a number of reasons. While the high incidence of semantically related errors (42%) may not be surprising, the second most frequent type of error, incorrect final syllables (18%), invites us to consider more seriously some of the formal aspects of the teaching and learning of new words. The discussion which follows examines only the errors in the formal group. The data in the semantic/collocational group (categories 6 to 10) are discussed elsewhere.

Discussion

1 *Stability of errors in partially correct words*

As Meara and Ingle (1988) point out, recent vocabulary acquisition research has tended to take the formal representation of words for granted and has concentrated more on collocational and semantic aspects. However, it has long been recognised that speech errors are not random. As far as L2 speakers are concerned, it is generally accepted that learners are likely to confuse words which are similar, just as L1 speakers do when they produce malapropisms and word blends. It is also clear that certain features of words are more prone to error than

869

others. For example, Brown and McNeill (1966), in their investigation of the tip-of-the-tongue phenomenon, demonstrated that the first syllable of a word is the most stable and the least prone to error. It appears that certain 'favoured' (Meara and Ingle 1988) or 'salient' (Aitchison and Straf 1979) features are fully specified for entries in the mental lexicon, while others are not. Examples of salient features used by L1 speakers of English to store and retrieve words from their mental lexicon are first and final consonants, syllabic structure and stress pattern.

This has led Meara and Ingle (1988) to hypothesise that if words in L1 are coded by certain features, then a similar system must exist for L2. What we shall hope to find in the data is evidence that certain types of error are systematically more likely than others. Two working hypotheses put forward by Meara and Ingle can be applied to the data here:

(*a*) certain parts of words are resistant to error.
(*b*) the resistant parts will be the same for L1 and L2.

While the first hypothesis is confirmed by the data, the second is not. Studies of L1 vocabulary have confirmed that initial and final consonants are relatively stable, while medial consonants are prone to error. An analysis of the errors in the present study shows that the final syllables are by far the most prone to error. The positions of error in the partially correct words (categories 1 to 3) are shown in Table 2. Tables 3 to 5 contain examples of the errors.

Table 2   Position of error in partially-correct words

SYLLABIC POSITION	OCCURRENCES	
	No.	%
INITIAL	16	13%
MEDIAL	20	14%
FINAL	92	73%

Table 3   Examples of initial error in partially-correct words

ERROR	TARGET	CONTEXT
ASPECTS	PROSPECTS	How good are the job aspects?
EXISTS	CONSISTS	The dinner exists of four courses.
EXPRESSIONS	IMPRESSIONS	My first expressions of the place.
RELATIVITIES	ACTIVITIES	We organise group relativities.

Table 4: *Examples of medial error in partially-correct words*

ERROR	TARGET	CONTEXT
TERRITORY	TERTIARY	Campus of a territory institution
GENETIC	GENERIC	A more genetic view of criticism
HANDLING	HANGING	Stop handling around in the streets
EXTENDED	EXEMPTED	Hong Kong is extended from natural disasters

Table 5: *Examples of final error in partially-correct words*

ERROR	TARGET	CONTEXT
ECONOMIC	ECONOMY	The economic will collapse
ANALYSIS	ANALYST	He's a systems analysis
POLITICAL	POLITICS	I'm sensitive about political
PRODUCE	PRODUCTS	You can buy computer produce in Hong Kong

It is not possible to make direct comparisons with the data used by Meara and Ingle because of differences in the material used. Meara and Ingle set up an experiment which measured subjects' ability to recall recently taught vocabulary. They noted the extent to which the versions of the words recalled resembled their target in terms of the correct recall of consonants. The words were selected according to a particular pattern: all were concrete nouns with the same phonological structure: CVCVC. Since the present study relies on spontaneously occurring errors, we have to rely on broader categories to analyse the formal aspects of the errors: initial, medial and final syllables. Nevertheless, there are some interesting similarities and indeed some differences between the results of the two studies. The Meara and Ingle claim that the beginnings of L2 words are relatively resistant to error are supported by the data here. Their claim that subsequent consonants are likely to be incorrectly retrieved is supported in the case of final syllables, but not necessarily by our data from medial syllables, where no significant difference emerged between initial and medial syllables. In the case of final syllables, the similarity of results is striking, particularly when considered in the context of the comparison which Meara and Ingle make with the claims arising from the Aitchison and Straf study of child and adult malapropisms in L1. Meara suggests that there are similarities between the ways in which children learn new words in L1 and the ways L2 learners learn words. The differences noted by Aitchison between the error patterns of children and adults in L1 vocabulary appear to be relevant to the L2 learner's situation. The tendency of children to recall words from left to right, with the final syllables particularly prone to error, has some obvious parallels with L2 patterns. Aitchison concludes that lexical storage is a developing skill. As children learn more and more words, they have to develop more efficient ways of storing and recalling them and begin to rely more on the salient features typically used by adults and less on a simpler left-to-right approach. Meara's conclusion that no evidence exists to demonstrate that the learners in his study transfer typical adult L1 strategies to their L2 vocabulary can be applied to the learners in the Hong Kong study.

The high incidence of final syllable errors (73%) in the data invites further comment. The fact that the errors occurred in subjects' spontaneous speech seems to indicate that the final parts of words create greater problems for learners in spoken English than they do in writing, where the learner has more time to find the correct ending of words and to monitor his production. There is an obvious message here for the teaching of vocabulary. Learners appear to have difficulty in producing the correct final part of words and might require more guidance in this aspect of vocabulary work. In particular, the various morphological realisations of words probably require more conscious attention and practice, rather than assuming that a student who has learned the basic form of a word will be able to produce the correct form in spontaneous speech. This would mean, for example, that in addition to learning the word 'economy', a learner may benefit from being made aware of 'economist', 'economic', 'economical', etc., and indeed benefit from activities which require him to say these words.

2 *Word Blends*

This category contains errors which are produced as a result of a confusion of two other words. Typically, the errors are non-words, which consist of the first part of one word and the last part of a different word. Some examples are given in Table 6.

Table 6: Examples of final error in partially-correct words

ERROR	TARGET	ELEMENTS OF BLEND
ACCESSFUL	SUCCESSFUL	accessible/successful
CANCHINESE	CHINESE	Cantonese/Chinese
CONSTRUBUTE	CONTRIBUTE	construct/contribute
INCONFUSION	INCONVENIENCE	inconvenience/confusion
DULK	DARK	dull/dark
TRALK	WALK	travel/walk
RESISTANT	RESEARCH-ASSISTANT	resist/research/assistant

In the L1 literature on blend errors (e.g. Fay 1981), the range of possible interpretations of such errors is wide, ranging from minor phonological slips at one extreme to Freudian analyses of the students' unconscious meaning at the other. The above examples are probably easier to explain, at least in terms of the competing lexical items which contribute to the error. It is tempting to try to offer psychological explanations of the errors, for example, to speculate that the learner who produced 'resistant' (target: research assistant) was in a mental state of resistance when the research assistant interviewed him and that this led subconsciously to his producing the peculiar blend. However, in the interests of second language teaching, it will be of more practical value, though possibly less interesting, to focus on what the errors might indicate about the kinds of words which are likely to be confused.

It most cases, a phonological element, common to both of the blended words appears to provide the speaker with the opportunity to change direction and to switch into a new word. For example the 'cess' in both 'accessible' and 'successful' provides a kind of bridge which allows the speaker to slip into a new word and produce 'accessful'. Likewise, the 'con' in 'inconvenient' and 'confusion' makes it easy for the speaker to produce 'in confusion'. While in the L1 literature on word blends, the confusion of words containing similar sounds has provided evidence for the view that the mental lexicon is arranged phonologically, a more immediate conclusion from the L2 examples is that the errors occur because the confused words have been only partially learned, which means that the speaker is not totally in command of them and therefore likely to confuse them. The words may be partially learned in terms of their forms and their collocations. We might hypothesise from this that errors of this type will reduce as the learner's knowledge of the word improves, i.e., once he understands its various forms the ways in which it is typically used.

3 *Malapropisms*

In studies of malapropisms in L1, it is generally assumed that the errors are caused by ignorance. For example, when a speaker says (without trying to amuse) 'advocados' instead of 'avocados', in an utterance such as 'We had an advocado salad', it is assumed that he is ignorant of the correct form of the word. The distinction drawn by Fay and Cutler (1997) between 'malapropisms' and 'semantic errors' is appropriate here, since the source of confusion is phonological. However, in the errors which were identified as 'malapropisms' in the study, it is more likely that mispronunciation is the reason for the production of words which are similar in sound, but different in meaning to their target. Some examples are given in Table 7.

Table 7 Examples of malapropisms

ERROR	TARGET	CONTEXT
SCOTCH	SQUASH	My hobbies are badminton and scotch.
CHAINED	TRAINED	I was never chained as a teacher.
ESSENCE	ACCENT	The essence of his English is Australian.
PLEASURE	PRESSURE	We're under much pleasure at the moment.
SHIRT	CERT	I passed the school shirt.

When analysing L2 malapropisms, a key issue is to decide whether the error is caused by a breakdown in the process of speech production, for example, by a misselection from the mental lexicon, or whether the word produced has not yet been fully acquired in phonological terms. Generally speaking, the former type are made by L1 speakers, while most malapropisms produced by L2 speakers are of the latter type. In the case of the above examples, it is probably safe to assume that the speakers had simply not grasped the pronunciation of the items. The errors are nonetheless interesting from the L2 teaching point of view, since they demonstrate that such errors can lead to misunderstandings and even communication breakdown.

As in our discussion of word blends, we might hypothesise that an L2 learner is likely to produce more malapropisms of the 'ignorance' type as his store of words increases. With a large vocabulary at his disposal, the learner has greater opportunity of confusing words of similar sounds. While, examples of this type of error occur, they do not appear to be frequent.

Conclusion

In terms of identifying the relative frequency of lexical errors in spoken English, the study has demonstrated that problems with the forms of words are widespread. In particular, the final syllables of English words are unusually prone to error by L2 speakers. The similarities which we noted between the way in which children who are native speakers of English learn English words and the way foreign language learners learn words are further supported by the data from Cantonese learners of English.

Communicative language teaching has tended to encourage learners to develop their fluency in spoken English and to concentrate on getting their main message across without worrying unduly about grammatical accuracy. When learners make grammatical errors when they speak, it is usually assumed that they have temporarily forgotton or misapplied a grammatical rule. It is assumed that the rules have been learned at some time or other, since most language courses have a solid grammatical base, whether they are designed along structural or functional lines. However, few courses contain a conscious lexical dimension, i.e. a focus on how words operate, including the various forms which a word can take. Unlike grammatical errors, formal lexical errors cannot simply be explained in terms of learners forgetting rules. It is more likely that the learners have never come to terms with the various forms of a word and that they have had too little opportunity to pronounce the words. In order to improve on this situation, vocabulary teaching must include morphological variation and the pronunciation of words, in addition to the semantic and collocational aspects.

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ESSAY MARKING: A COMPARISON OF CRITERION-REFERENCED AND NORM-REFERENCED MARKING

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Introduction

Whether criterion referencing or norm referencing is a more reliable method of marking composition scripts is an argument that has been going on for some time. With its new Form 7 Use of English examination, the Hong Kong Examinations Authority is about to move from criterion-referenced to norm-referenced marking. The small-scale study discussed in this paper examines the reliability of both types of marking.

Background

Since the 1960s, a number of research projects have focused on different systems of composition marking with a view to gauging the reliability of these systems. Researchers have looked at the efficacy of using an accuracy-count method whereby marks are deducted for grammatical errors; and the impression method where a piece of writing is awarded an overall grade rather than having marks deducted for errors. They have also investigated the influence on reliability which single or double marking (i.e. when a composition is marked by one or more markers) has when overlaid on both the accuracy and impression systems.

1. Britton, Martin & Rosen (1966) found that a system of using a team of three impression markers and one accuracy-count marker produced the most reliable results.
2. A study by the University of London in 1972 concluded that double impression marking was at least as reliable as a conventional accuracy-count marking scheme.
3. Wood & Quinn (1976) concluded that a change from single to double marking would produce an improvement in overall examination reliability.
4. King (1980) found that double-impression marking gave results which were at least as reliable as, and in most cases more reliable than, traditional accuracy-count marking.

In spite of the above evidence, the impression that the author has received from Form 6 and 7 teachers through seminars, informal contact and in the written comments which are submitted in a Markers' Report after markers have been involved in the actual marking process, is that teachers feel that the accuracy count method is fairer to students/candidates, as well as being a generally more reliable method of assessing students' writing. Typical comments are that 'a certain number of scripts had to be given the top grade, but that very few scripts really merited it' or 'I had to demote scripts to the bottom grade when I felt that none were really that poor'.

The Hong Kong Situation

1. The three major English language examinations in Hong Kong are:—
   (i) The Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination—taken at the end of Form 5 (16–17 years); this is the principal secondary school certificate for most students, a grade C being equivalent to a London University GCSE. [This is the examination which 16-year-olds take in the U.K. after which the majority leave school. It is equivalent to Grade 11 in the American Education System.]
   (ii) The Hong Kong Higher Level Examination—taken at the end of Form 6 (17–18 years); this is principally the English language entrance requirement of the Chinese University of Hong Kong.
   (iii) The Hong Kong Advanced Level Use of English—taken at the end of Form 7 (18–19 years). This was principally created as the University of Hong Kong's English language entrance requirement. The revision of the examination is, however, expected to lead to the examination having much wider currency in Hong Kong, both in tertiary institutions and the community as a whole. [see 2.2 below] To be able to sit the Use of English examination, candidates must already have achieved a pass (grade E) or better in the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination. This obviously makes for a much greater homogeneity of ability at the Use of English level.
2. For a number of reasons, the Advanced Level Use of English examination has undergone serious revision: so much so in fact that the revised examination—to be first examined in 1989—is virtually a new examination, since of the four papers in both the new and the old examinations, the only paper that bears any resemblance whatsoever to the previous examination is Writing, the former Written Composition paper. Here, candidates have to write 500 words on a single topic in 75 minutes as opposed to 400 words in 60 minutes, as was the case previously. While the paper format has only changed slightly, the marking scheme is totally different from its predecessor, however, and follows the lines of the pattern-marking schemes for the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination and Hong Kong Higher Level written composition papers.

Marking Schemes

1. New Use of English Writing Examination (i.e. 1989 onwards)

   The Use of English Examination, as from 1989, will now be impression-marked, like the Higher Level and the Certificate of Education examinations.

Written compositions have to be assessed impressionistically on a 9-point scale (1 being the weakest and 9 the best). A grade is awarded by the marker who assesses the script on its content and its organization, grammar and style.

The marker is asked to award the grade to a script bearing in mind an approximate 50-50 split between accuracy and content. Marking is strictly norm-referenced and the following distribution curve must be adhered to:—

Figure 1

No of exam. scripts	2%	8%	12%	16%	24%	16%	12%	8%	2%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
					Grade				

[See Appendix 1]

2. Former Use of English Marking Scheme
A total of 25 marks were allocated to Written Composition:—
Command of Language/Communication—20 marks
Content and Organization — 5 marks
[See Appendix 2]

The marker was not asked to conform to a pattern: he could award any script whatever mark he felt that script merited. The corollary of this method was that marks awarded to scripts were bunched around the lower end of the scale, with the mean typically around 35%.

The Study

The hypothesis was that in norm-referenced pattern marking inter-marker correlations would be higher, as would be the correlations between this method of marking the written composition and the overall examination result, i.e. (whole examination minus written composition).

Previous studies (King, 1981; Cheung 1983) have found strong evidence that double-impression marking greatly improves inter-marker reliability and gives a higher correlation between the paper being marked and other papers in the exam.

In 1988, the mean of the individual correlations of the Written Composition paper with the other three papers of the examination was .39 (the correlation was usually in the range .3 to .4). The correlation of the Written Composition paper with the other three papers together was .51. (This was again comparable with previous years; in contrast the range for the Certificate of Education examination is .7–.8).

In order to investigate the efficacy of changing the Use of English marking scheme from single criterion-referenced marking to norm-referenced double-impression marking, it was proposed to utilise the expertise and experience of seven experienced markers who had all had experience of marking using both marking schemes. They would mark (i.e. re-mark) a number of candidates' actual 1987 examination scripts using both systems of marking. Markers would mark a number of scripts using one method and then, after a period of time, mark the same scripts again, but this time using the other marking scheme.

400 of the 1987 examination scripts on a single topic [See Appendix 3] were retrieved, and from these, 50 scripts were selected to represent a broad cross-section of candidate ability. These 50 scripts were then typed up to avoid handwriting/layout bias. [Previous studies (King 1980) have shown that scripts with good handwriting or good readability—e.g. where a candidate has written on alternate lines—do get awarded higher grades by examiners.]

Markers were first asked to mark the 50 scripts following the old Use of English marking scheme, i.e. by criterion refrencing. After a gap of roughly two months, the markers were then asked to mark another 50 scripts, but to grade them according to the pattern laid down for the new Use of English marking scheme, as outlined 'The Hong Kong Situation' above.

Markers were informed that they would recognize some of the scripts, as a number of scripts from the first batch had been included for purposes of comparison. It was assumed that the markers would not recognize that they were re-marking the same 50 scripts they had marked two months previously. This assumption proved to be correct as none of the seven markers commented that the two sets were the same.

Results

Table 1

	Criterion-referenced single marking						
Marker	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Mean correlation with other markers	.60	.63	.71	.69	.73	.69	.74
	overall mean = 68						

Table 2

	Pattern-marked single marking						
Marker	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Mean correlation with other markers	.78	.73	.76	.75	.76	.66	.77
	overall mean = .74						

Comment

Table 1 and 2 show the inter-marker correlations for single marking, i.e. where each marker's marking is simply correlated with the other single markers' marking. The mean correlation between the six markers for the criterion-referenced marking was .68; the corresponding pattern-marking figure was slightly higher at .74.

Table 3

	Criterion-referenced single marking						
Marker	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Mean correlation with other markers	.81	.81	.82	.82	.83	.82	.84

overall mean = .82

Table 4

	Pattern-marked single marking						
Marker	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Mean correlation with other markers	.86	.85	.86	.86	.83	.84	.86

overall mean = .86

Comment

Tables 3 and 4 show paired correlations. Here, the *sum* of two markers' marks (e.g. markers A and B) are correlated with the *sum* of two other markers' marks (e.g. C and D). This is done on the grounds that two sets of marks correlated with two other sets give greater reliability than one set of marks correlated with one other set. Each marker then has 60 unique sets of paired correlations (AB with CD, AC with CE, AB with CF etc.); the mean correlation for each marker is therefore the mean of the 60 unique sets. As the tables show, the criterion-referenced mean correlation is .82, the pattern-marked figure again slightly higher at .86.

Table 5

Criterion-referenced marking: Single Marking
Mean marker correlation with 1987
(whole examination—written composition) = .70

Table 6

Pattern marking: Single Marking
Mean marker correlation with 1987
(whole examination—written composition) = .70

Comment

Tables 5 and 6 show identical correlation for single criterion-referenced and pattern-marked marking of .70 with the candidates' (whole examination minus written composition) scores. This may be attributed to the fact that the old use of English papers had an approximate .54 correlation with the other papers of the examination as opposed to closer to .6 for the new exam.; with the Certificate of Education Examination, where there is less subjective marking and the candidature is much more heterogeneous, the inter-paper correlations are closer to .7 or even .8 in some cases.

Table 7

Criterion-referenced marking: Double Marking
Mean marker correlation with 1987
(whole examination—written composition) = .93

Table 8

Pattern marking: Double Marking
Mean marker correlation with 1987
(whole examination—written composition) = .95

Comment

Table 7 and 8 show the paired marker correlations for (whole examination—written composition), and show fairly close figures, the pattern-marking figure of .95 being marginally higher than the criterion-referenced one of .93.

Discussion

Even in this small study two facts emerge:

(i) that double marking—whether by criterion-referencing or pattern-marking—is more reliable than single marking; and

(ii) that in every case pattern marking—whether single or double—does appear to be at least as reliable—both in terms of inter-marker reliability and reliability with the candidates' (whole examination—written composition) scores—as its criterion-referenced cousin. In terms of the original hypothesis, double-marked pattern marking shows markedly higher correlations than single criterion-referenced marking. The mean criterion-referenced inter-maker correlation rose from .68 to .86.

Comments from some markers—who in May 1989 had just marked using the new norm-referenced marking scheme for the first time—indicated that they felt happier gauging candidates' ability with the old marking scheme. The improvement in marker reliability however, that this small-scale research project demonstrates, would tend to show that this is not in fact the case, and that the move from criterion-referenced single marking to pattern-marked double marking would therefore seem to have been a worthwhile and justifiable one.

What now needs to be carefully examined is whether in future Use of English exams, the hoped-for increase in reliability between markers and in correlations across papers is maintained and can be interpreted as the result of this shift to double-impression marking. [At the time of going to press, the

881

full results of the 1989 examination are available. While it must be stated that like is not being compared totally with like (see 2 in 'The Hong Kong Situation'), the correlations between the 1989 Writing paper and the three other papers all show improvements over the 1988 figures. The mean correlations of Writing in 1989 against the other three papers was .49, compared with a mean correlation of .39 against the other three papers in 1988. (See Appendix 4 for the detailed correlation matrixes.) The improvements in the correlations of the Writing paper may in part be attributable to the change in the marking scheme; it may also be partly attributable to the design of the other papers as well. It will be interesting to monitor the situation and note the figures for the 1990 examination to see if the improvements are maintained.

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APPENDIX 1

USE OF ENGLISH EXAMINATION 1989

Marking scheme for Use of English Section B (Writing)

The piece of writing should be assessed on a NINE point scale:

+ Above Average –	+ Average –	+ Below Average –
(9) 8 7	6 5 4	3 2 (1)

When awarding a grade, the marker should balance content concerns and language accuracy. The following six areas should be kept in mind:—

1. Does the candidate communicate *relevant content* which answers the question and carries out the task(s)?
2. Is the content *logically organized* in a *format* appropriate to the task(s)?

3. What degree of skill does the candidate show in constructing *paragraphs*?
4. Is the *vocabulary*, including its variety and level of formality, appropriate to the task(s)?
5. What degree of skill does the candidate show in constructing a variety of *sentence types*?
6. How accurate is the candidate's *grammar*, idiomatic usage, punctuation and spelling?

In short:

Content concerns	Language accuracy
Relevant content?	Appropriate vocabulary?
Logical organization?	Variety of sentence types?
Well-constructed paragraphs?	Accurate grammar and mechanics?

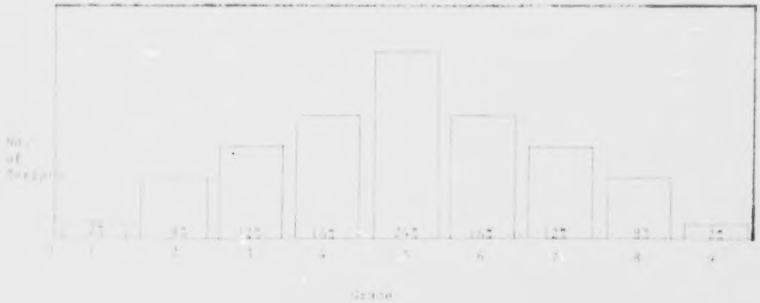
EACH SIDE SHOULD RECEIVE EQUAL WEIGHTING.

Rationale:—

1. In marking compositions for a public examination, we are aiming at a high degree of consistency over the whole marking panel. To achieve this, it is important that markers should follow the agreed marking strategy.
2. Essentially what you are being asked to do is to compare scripts, one with another, in order to RANK them. You should not be working to some previously-held notion of an 'absolute' standard.

Guidelines:—

1. You are asked to read each script through carefully and assign it provisionally to one point in the scale.
2. For your batch of scripts, the mean grade should be close to 5. In each case, your results should approximate to a normal distribution illustrated by the following diagram:—



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Grade

When you first begin to mark, it is a good idea to check your distribution of grades from time to time. A practical way of accomplishing this distribution is to place scripts in seven separate piles in front of you as you mark. This will draw your attention to any tendency you may have to under- or over-use certain parts of the scale.

3. It is essential to use ALL nine points on the scale as illustrated above. Use '0' only for a candidate who was present but who handed in a blank script, or merely copied out the questions, or submitted completely unintelligible work. Scripts awarded '0' should not be counted as part of the distribution pattern.
4. Problems concerning content and relevancy will be discussed at the markers' meeting.
5. In the case of a candidate writing a composition which is shorter than the words required, only in exceptional cases should you deduct one grade. More than this is not necessary because such a candidate will not have performed the given task effectively.
6. When marking your first batch, put a tick '√' on each page to indicate that you have read it, and when marking your asecond batch, put a 'X' on each page to show you have read it. You must not make any other marks on the scripts.
7. If you believe that a candidate has reproduced memorised material, then draw this to the attention of the Chief Examiner/Assistant Examiner by writing, 'SUSPECTED MEMORISATION' across the front cover of the script.
8. If a candidate has written on alternate lines, make no deduction, but write 'ALTERNATE LINES' across the front cover of the script.
9. In cases where a candidate has answered more than one question, write 'EXCESS' across the front cover. Then mark the first answer.

APPENDIX 2

USE OF ENGLISH 1987

SECTION III WRITTEN COMPOSITION

Marking Scheme

There are 25 marks allocated to Written Composition. These are distributed as follows:—

A. Command of Language and Communication—20
B. Content and Organisation—5

Markers should award marks according to the two schemes—as A and B below—in order to arrive at a total mark for the composition.

A. *Command of Language and Communication* (Total—20 marks)

20–17 Shows an excellent command of sentence structure. Sentences are varied in length and construction; readable and idiomatic; adequate, even felicitous use of words and only very occasional minor grammatical inaccuracies; message very effectively communicated.

16–13 Competent in producing a variety of sentences; expression generally clear and confident; good range of vocabulary which is sensibly used; although there may be a few instances of inappropriate use of words or mistakes in grammar, these are understandable errors and do not overly distract the reader.

12–9 Sentences are not especially varied but structure is generally correct; vocabulary is not extensive but adequate and words are generally used correctly and appropriately; writing is free from the most obvious lexical inappropriacies and grammatical inaccuracies; no major breakdown in communication.

8–5 A large number of grammatical inaccuracies, although evidence of some success; sentence types generally restricted; limited vocabulary; some problems in communicating the intended message.

4–1 Frequent grammatical inaccuracies; inadequate vocabulary; sentences lack variety; little idea of sentence structure or the use of correct punctuation; extremely difficult for the reader to follow.

B. *Content and Organisation* (Total—5 marks)

5–4 *Good*

Breadth and variety of information and detail; informed/interesting development; clearly presented; thoughtfully planned.

3 *Satisfactory*

Ideas are generally relevant/reasoned but although sensible, they may be limited; logical development of argument and some evidence of thought and planning.

2–1 *Limited*

Ideas tend to be uninspired and rather repetitious; evidence of some planning but no clear line of development.

0 *Totally inadequate*

Ideas are insufficient and/or undeveloped; no evidence of planning.

APPENDIX 3

SECTION III: WRITTEN COMPOSITION

(25% of the subject mark)

DO ONE of the following questions in your answer book. Write about 400 words in all.

885

1. Do both parts.
Recently you went swimming at a local beach with some of your friends. Whilst you were in the water, you noticed that you were surrounded by domestic rubbish, some of which appeared very unhygienic.
   (*a*) Write a letter to the Director of the Environmental Protection Department complaining about your experience and requesting information concerning the causes and dangers of this pollution.
   (*b*) Write a reply to your letter from the Director of the Environmental Protection Department.

APPENDIX 4

CORRELATION MATRICES

1988	Writing	Listening	Cursory Reading	Summary/ Comprehension
Listening	.49			
Cursory Reading	.36	.50		
Summary/ Comprehension	.32	.44	.31	
Whole exam.-minus-paper	.51	.64	.51	.45
Whole exam. (incl. paper)	.71	.84	.71	.69

Mean correlation: Writing with other three papers .39
Mean inter-paper correlation: .40
Mean whole exam.-minus-paper correlation: .53
Mean whole exam.-including-pape correlation: .74

1989	Writing	Listening	Practical Shills for Work & Study	Reading/ Language Systems
Listening	.53			
Practical Skills	.39	.55		
Reading/ Lang. Systems	.55	.60	.54	
Whole exam.-minus-paper	.55	.70	.59	.69
Whole exam. (incl. paper)	.69	.80	.86	.83

Mean correlation: Writing with other three papers .49
Mean inter-paper correlation: .54
Mean whole exam.-minus-paper correlation: .63
Mean whole exam.-including-pape correlation: .80

REPORTS AND SUMMARIES

SUMMARY OF THE PROJECT 'RADIO NEWS MAGAZINE'

Course No.: ES901
Group 5
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Isabella Luk
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Peter Wong
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Group Tutor: May M. T. Lee

I. Introduction

Some participants on the I.L.E. Refresher Course make jokes and say 'I.L.E.' means 'I like eating', since they tend to gain weight (probably, literally as well as figuratively, since they have learnt a lot from the Refresher Course) on the Course. But if we were to relate 'I.L.E.' to one aspect which is significant on the Refresher Course, we would say 'I.L.E.' should best be used to stand for 'I like experimenting'. Indeed, for us one of the climaxes of the whole course is the experimental teaching:—

During the refresher course, we were introduced to many pedagogic theories, methods, and ideas concerning language teaching. At the same time, we developed new teaching ideas of our own. But how can we test the effectiveness of all these ideas, theories and new methods? Trying out is the best way.

Before we set up a theme for our experimental teaching, we had discussed quite a lot about why our students performance in English was not satisfactory. All of us agreed that the rapid development of the mass media has facilitated our access to information but at the same time it has adverse effects on studying in school. Today, as we have television, we need not read newspapers to know what is happening in every corner of the world (therefore we read less); as we have the telephone, we don't have to write letters in order to communicate with friends (therefore we write less); as we have faxes and photos, many visual images can be passed on as they are (therefore we speak less and listen less); as we have movies, many works of literature have been transformed into movies: why bother to read books? There is no active use of language. No wonder our students are weak in languages no matter whether it is Chinese or English.

However, English Language teachers as we are, it is our responsibility to find out ways to maintain and boost our students' language standard as well as their interest in learning English. Besides the reasons we have mentioned above, there are also the following reasons:—

1. they don't find it necessary to use English in their daily lives
2. they don't have enough exposure to authentic use of English
3. they don't have confidence to speak English
4. they have no interest to use English; or even worse
5. they have no interest to learn English at all

Thus, their English standard is low, and their confidence and interest further dwindle and a vicious cycle is formed.

In view of this, our group decided to do a project which we hoped could try out some ways to solve the difficulties mentioned above. Our theme was 'Radio News Magazine'. The pupils chosen for the experimental teaching were Form 3 students of Lok Sin Tong Yue Kan Hing School. The number of lessons was twelve.

The project 'Radio News Magazine', as the name suggests, requires the students to produce a radio news broadcast programme. Activities were designed so that the students were provided with chances throughout their project to use English for some interesting purposes. The activities included:—

1. Reading English newspaper—students read English news articles and select news items for the radio programme.
2. Listening to news broadcast in English—students listen to an authentic radio news broadcast so as to familiarise themselves with such a kind of use of English.
3. Writing summary—students write summaries for the news articles they have chosen and prepare news scripts.
4. Reading English aloud—Students read with the appropriate intonation and pronunciation as news announcers do.
5. Using English in real situation—students discuss in English during group work and speak in English during their interviews.

Hence, we were able to try out teaching methods involving:—

1. Helping students practise reading skills such as skimming, scanning and reading for gist.
2. Helping students practise listening to authentic materials and familiarize with the language used in the new articles.
3. Giving students practice in summarizing and presenting ideas systematically.
4. Encouraging students to read aloud with correct pronunciation, pace and intonation.
5. Giving students practice in speaking for a genuine purpose.

889

6. Using group work and activities to help students build up confidence in communicating in English.
7. Helping students cultivate a sense of co-operation through group work.

II. Implementation

We did our experimental teaching in Lok Sin Tong Yue Kan Hing Secondary School with a F.3 class. The age of the students ranged from 13-15. It was an active and studious class. Twelve lessons were used and the duration of each lesson was 35 minutes.

Summaries of the lesson plans:—

Lesson 1—Reading News Articles

Students did a matching exercise to practise both skimming and scanning and reading for details. After that students were asked to read some texts and identify the style of news article.

Lesson 2—Listening to News Items and Reading Aloud

First of all, the teacher played a recorded radio news broadcast.

The objective was to familiarize students with the characteristics of new broadcast and the language register and to give students practice in getting the main points in news items.

Finally students practised reading aloud the news items.

Lesson 3 & 4—Summarizing Skills

Lesson 3 & 4 were a double period during which the skill of summarizing was introduced to students. They were asked to write simple articles by eliciting key points from a passage and then connecting the ideas together.

Worksheets were given out to students and they had to form their own sentences with the key words they had elicited.

Lesson 5—Interviewing Techniques

An ETV programme about an interview was shown. It gave students practice in listening to English used in an interview and demonstrates to them how to conduct an interview.

Lesson 6 & 7—Interviewing Techniques (Group Work)

These two lessons gave students practice in interviewing and helped them to construct questions for the interview. Students sat in groups of six, discussed and jotted down questions for the interview. Each group was guided by their group teacher.

Lesson 8—Editing News Articles

During this lesson, students discussed the news they had collected, selecting one or two news articles to be summarized as the final scripts, which were to be read out in the news broadcast.

Lesson 9—Editing Interview

Students listened to the interview that they had recorded and extracted the main points of the interview.

Lesson 10 and 11—Producing the Final Scripts

The final script was prepared and the recording took place. In each group, each student in turn practised reading aloud the news and some were chosen by each group to read the news.

Lesson 12—Evaluation

Students listened to three best items selected in advance by the teachers, and voted for the 'Best Radio News Broadcast'. Near the end of the lesson, they were asked to fill in an evaluation form about the twelve lessons.

III. End Product

The end product of this experimental teaching came in the form of a tape with students reading aloud some news broadcast and an interview. However, the quality of the tapes varied because of various reasons. Some of the tapes were not very satisfactory because of noisy environments, poor tape-recorders and poor technical skills in operating the machines. However, some tapes were good and clear recordings and there was a good link-up between the news and the interview. Besides, most of the students could keep the time of the interview to five minutes. Some teachers were a bit uneasy to find that some students, in spite of intensive drills, couldn't pronounce some words satisfactorily and it affected the quality of the tape. It was encouraging to find that many students were able to read out the news broadcast with appropriate intonation, stress and rhythm.

IV. How much of our objectives have we achieved?

A. *Students' confidence in speaking English*

One of the objectives of our E.T. project was to promote students' confidence in speaking English. Generally speaking, we have achieved this as over 68% of students admitted that they were more confident of using English. Having had many opportunities in talking to their classmates during group discussions, they found it easier to communicate with each other. They gained further practice through talking to group teachers and asking for advice. From the interview, they had a chance to use the language. Finally, they were able to produce a tape through group effort and co-operation. The sense of achievement provided them with more confidence in using English later on.

B. *Reading for details and writing summaries*

We also aimed at training the students to read for details and be able to write summaries. Some students found it difficult to read for details. Maybe this was partly because of the shortage of time. We only had two lessons to deal with the reading skills. Apart from this, some students did not have such a reading habit and their vocabulary was quite limited. All these hindered their learning the skill. After reading the news, students had to write summaries. To the students, writing summaries was a new skill. Some students found it difficult to handle and could not follow. However, the hardworking and bright students could manage it quite well. Nevertheless, though we did not have enough time to let students practise more, we did provide them with a chance to acquire the basic skills in writing summaries and prepared them for future studies.

V. Things Learnt from the Experimental Teaching Experience

A. *Co-operation & Sharing*

In doing this E.T. project, we tasted the fruitful experience of co-operation. As the project involved group work, we shared the workload among ourselves and learnt to work efficiently. We had 3 teachers in charge of the lessons and 7 group teachers giving guidance and help to the students. Moreover, in preparing the lessons, we helped each other to devise worksheets, to find news extracts, ETV programme and other teaching resources. Not only did we share the workload, but through the various discussions and meetings, we also had an opportunity to exchange our ideas and opinions. We learnt from each other's strengths and weaknesses and made good use of each other's knowledge/insights to make our teaching more effective.

B. *Using Other Resources as Teaching Materials*

During the experimental teaching, we tried not to stick to the traditional teaching material i.e. the textbook. Instead, we learnt to make use of authentic materials like newspaper and radio news broadcast to expose the students to more real life situations. By so doing, it made the students, and also the teachers more aware of the language used around them. In addition, we also learnt to make use of the ETV programmes in a different way, e.g. as motivation to the students.

C. *New Teaching Methods*

Much group work had been done throughout the twelve lessons. Thus, students sat in groups (groups of six) at hexagonal desks. This facilitated their discussion, and communication was made easier since they could face each other. Co-operation was also enhanced among students. Besides, group teachers usually had to sit with the students. They took part in students' discussions, gave guidelines, opinions and advice. Group teachers could also give encouragement and help to individual students though this would be impossible in normal teaching for there would only be one teacher in the class.

In doing the radio programme, students had to interview some teachers in the school, In this way, students could use the language in a real situation. Since this was an activity outside the classroom, and students had not had such an experience before, they found it quite challenging. Apart from this, the activity enhanced co-operation among students. They had to get everything ready before the interview and they had to take turns to ask the interviewee questions. They also had to record the interview. All these required group co-operation.

Generally speaking, students found the group work and the interview activity enjoyable.

D. *Flexibility in Teaching*

As we did not know the students before the experimental teaching, we planned our lessons under certain assumptions, e.g. students' standard, interests, response, etc.

However, when we met them, we found that the students were a bit different from what we had expected. Therefore, we needed to make adaptations to the lesson plans and we learnt to be flexible in teaching.

E. *Improvement in Our Own Teaching through Observation & Evaluation*

The process of observing each other helped us to reflect on our own teaching; and through the evaluation of each lesson, we learnt to adopt methods/strategies useful to us and discard/avoid things which were not so effective in our teaching. By doing so, we felt that we could improve our own teaching.

SUMMARY OF THE PROJECT 'RESOURCE BANK OF GRADED CONVERSATION ACTIVITIES'

Course No.: ES901
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WU LAI Chan-si
YAU WONG Suk-ping
YIP lit-yee, Agnes
Group Tutor: Dr. John Clark

Why we chose the problem of students' lack of motivation for speaking

After much discussion, our group of 13 teachers came to the opinion that one major classroom problem was that students lacked the motivation to take an active part in their learning. They seemed to believe that they could learn without having to explore and express their thoughts and opinions in speech in any classroom. This became the major target classroom problem for our project.

Not only is speaking important from a general learning point of view, it is also important in the field of English language learning. Because of the time constraints involved in speaking, students have to deliver appropriate messages very quickly with very limited time for thinking out the language necessary. They need to call on whatever is available in their mind's collection of bits and pieces of language. This makes speaking in any language a complex process but in a foreign language like English in Hong Kong it is clearly very problematical for students. Hence it is our wish to tackle the problem of promoting motivation and skills in speaking English in the classroom both for general learning and English development purposes.

How did our project, resource bank of graded activities solve the target problem?

We decided to create a bank of graded conversation activities designed to motivate students to speak, and to ensure that all students of all abilities could participate in conversation tasks.

When students speak in English in a free situation or context, they reveal the real level of their spoken interlanguage. This enables teachers to see what students have effectively internalized, and it enables them to locate areas in students' spoken language development where further teaching may bring about some improvement.

When doing graded conversation activities, students are provided with opportunities for frequent practice of purposeful speech in context. This maximizes their experience of spoken language production, and it may promote their capacity to make their consciously learnt knowledge more available to their spontaneous spoken production.

We started with the hypothesis that a spoken activity is intellectually challenging or enjoyable or interesting or a combination of these, and if it has a clear communicative purpose, students will be motivated to speak, and they may also find the activity rewarding and valuable, since they have to make an effort to get something done. This sense of achievement is crucial to boost students' confidence in speaking.

The resource bank of graded conversation activities

The activities were categorized into 4 coloured grades according to the following criteria:—

1. The amount of support (in terms of formal, notional and other cues) students were able to draw from the communicative data (stimulus).
2. The cognitive demand on students.
3. The possibility of bringing personal experience of life to bear upon the solution of a problem.
4. The level of linguistic and conceptual processing demanded.

To realize our objective of providing students with more communicative experience (which is essential to give rise to spontaneous use of a foreign language), we included in our resource bank a variety of activities drawing on different communication gaps namely:—

1. information gap— this involves participants in handling and exchanging information for solving a problem or getting things done.
2. opinion gap—this involves participants in exchanging personal views and making responses to other's views or opinions.
3. reasoning gap— this involves participants in drawing on their own or other's conceptual frameworks or ideas, and applying their reasoning to arrive at new conclusions or decisions.
4. imagination gap— this involves participants in drawing on their imagination to process information and arrive at a product totally different from the original concrete or abstract cues provided.
5. affect gap— this involves participants in expressing, identifying and responding to individual attitudes and feelings.

Any one conversation activity might draw on several different communication gaps at the same time, and the same kind of gap may be found in activities of different difficulty levels.

Formulation of Objectives

A. *Project*

Our project was intended as a long-term exercise designed to achieve the following objectives:—

1. To improve the students' motivation for speaking.
2. To improve the students' responsibility in learning and learning how to learn.
3. To improve the teachers' capacity for coping with different groups, each of which was at a different level of achievement in speaking.
4. To introduce purposeful speaking in real life situations to students of all levels of achievement to develop their speaking skills in ways related to the Curriculum Development Committee syllabus.

B. *Experimental Teaching*

The scope of our experimental teaching (ET) was very limited (8 lessons in St. Francis Xavier's Secondary School in Tsuen Wan) and therefore, while we wished to pursue the objectives of the project as a whole, we decided to focus our attention on the following objectives which were more easily realisable within the time scale:—

1. To try out the activities with different students to see whether:
   - —they work
   - —they involve the students intellectually and provide both enjoyment and interest
   - —they are at the right level
   - —students of this age group can use materials in self-access form for speaking
2. To examine the language used by students to complete the activities.

We realized that in order to achieve the whole project's objectives we needed to return to our schools, and to use our materials over a longer period of time. The objectives of our ET were therefore more limited in scope.

Observation Schedules

In order to observe the effectiveness and suitability of our activities, teachers were given an on-task observation checklist to record and reflect any verbal or non-verbal manifestation of students' motivation changes while they were involved in the conversation activities. In addition, sample recordings of students' interaction were taken to enable us to observe students' interlanguage, to check whether they could cope with the functions and notions we expected for any communicative activity.

The students had to fill in a students' report sheet after completing each activity, and questionnaire after the 8 lessons' activities, in order to record their opinions about the activities.

896

Findings from Experimental Teaching

The majority of students shared the feeling that:

- the instructions were easy
- the level of language they had to use was easy
- the activities were relevant to their experience
- the activities were challenging, exciting and interesting

The majority of students thought that the teachers' help was necessary to carry out many of the activities.

Concerning students' feelings about correcting others' mistakes and being corrected,

- all the students recognized some language mistakes made by themselves or their partners.
- half of them did not or sometimes did not correct their partners' mistakes mainly becasue they did not know how to correct them.
- nearly all the students liked their sit-in-teachers to correct their mistakes.
- a small no. of students felt embarrassed or a little unhappy when speaking and were afraid that their classmates might laugh at them.

We also found from classroom observation that the students made a lot of mistakes in their conversation which reflected the level of their inter language. Some of these were:—

- in forming questions, students were unable to invert subjects and verbs
  e.g. 'How wide the TV?'
  'Where you go?'
- in forming negatives, students were unable to form tenses and place the negative particle in the proper place.
  e.g. 'He not wear uniform.'
  'He not tall.'
- students consistently formed third person singular verbs without an 's'.
  e.g. 'He go.'
  'The man climb up to put poster on the wall.'

This indicates clearly that while the students' vocabulary was quite extensive, their ability to create correct spoken utterances was primitive. It seemed to us that this was the case in many Hong Kong classrooms where speaking English was a rare event.

What we have learnt in the ET/action research

We learnt among other things:

- it was possible to carry out group work or pair work in a large sized class with 13 or more teachers. It would not seem impossible to do such work with only 1 teacher provided that:
  a. the instructions and activities are well designed.
  b. the students are trained in self-access work.
- the activities and the material must have clear and carefully written instructions and guidelines.

—there is a need for teacher guidance in students' choice of activities and level of work.

—students seem to become more aware of how to communicate effectively from a social point of view and make progress in their ability to communicate with others through doing graded activities.

—students enjoy challenging activities.

—most students like to be guided by teachers.

—our students, like many other Hong Kong students, have a good knowledge of vocabulary, but their spoken interlanguage was in a preliminary stage.

—students were more motivated to learn when they actively participated in class.

—as teachers we tend to understimate our students' capacity to complete communicative tasks.

—we would in future perhaps be more tolerant of our students if they made mistakes, because they were usually able to communicate effectively, despite many errors.

Implications for the future

When we go back to school, we shall use this graded activity resource bank in our own classroom, but we know that it needs further supplementing and constant renewal.

We can use the bank of activities either to exploit our grammar teaching or as a self-access communicative 'deep-end' set of activities. For instance, in a lesson when we teach a certain function like 'asking the way', we can first persent the language as a model, then give controlled practice before we provide students with an appropriate activity from our bank to exploit what they have learnt.

On the other hand, a 'deep-end' approach of teaching is that we do not teach our students the language to do the bank of activities, but we get our students to use the activities directly. When we look at their language, their weaknesses will be exposed. We go back to remedy those weaknesses and teach the things they need. So the bank of activities can either be used in the beginning of the lesson or at the end of the lesson.

We can also put our graded conversation activity resource bank in the 'swapshop' at the ILE so as to exchange materials or ideas with other teachers.

Lastly, we hope that a whole series of graded listening, conversation and reading materials can be made available to supplement existing commercial material.

SUMMARY OF THE PROJECT: 'TV SIMULATION'

Course No. ES892
Group: 3
Names of Participants: Lai Yuk Chun, Helen
Au So Tsoi Yee, Mary
Chiu Suk Kau, Louisa
Chan Tang Siu Yung, Alice
Wan Ng Wing Lan, Irene
Leung Wan Po, Anne
Wong Ma Mee Fong, Maria
Tsui Moon Yee, Flora
Ho Lee Kit Duen, Josephine
Tsang San Mi, Vonne

Group Tutor: Madeleine Lau

How a TV Simulation can help to solve the problems

The problems listed in the previous paragraphs urge us to explore an approach to provide possible solutions to the areas of concern. The approach should employ task-based activities which can motivate students and encourage them to use the language in a natural way when they are doing the task.

In Jack Longergan's 'Video in Language Teaching', he points out the communicative value of video films. The outstanding feature of video films is their ability to present complete communicative situations. The combination of sound and vision is dynamic, immediate and accessible. This means that communication can be shown in context, and the many factors in communication can be perceived easily by viewers and language learners. In as much as sound recording provides a truer re-creation of spoken language than pen and paper, so video also provides a truer re-creation of a communicative event, where paralinguistic features form an integral part of the communicative process. We decided to work on a 'TV Simulation' project.

'If a simulation game is well designed, fully participative, stimulating and provocative, then there is likely to be a large measure of emotional satisfaction, which can have a strong emotional effect.' (Ken Jones' Simulations in Language Teaching')

Students in many classes do not seem to go beyond a certain point in achievement. They know a great deal but they cannot use it to express their own meaning. In many such classes, the teachers teeter on the brink of interactive practice and students withdraw, hestitant and cautious. 'A task-oriented or cooperative learning situation means sharing and encouraging each other.' As students find that what they contribute to the activities is accepted by their peers and that every word they say in the target language is not corrected, their trust and enthusiasm will grow (Gertrude Moskovitz's 'Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class'). So we included group work into the 'TV Simulation' project.

In designing the TV Simulation project, we paid special attention to the following ideas/aims:

a. To arouse pupils' motivation and interest in learning English in a communicative and lively way.
b. To give pupils the experience of producing a TV programme.
c. To provide chances for pupils to use authentic English, to listen attentively, discuss purposefully and to practice reading and writing skills through collecting and processing information, writing scripts and acting out roles.
d. To provide pupils with authentic contexts in which to use English.
e. To provide enjoyment for pupils through the production of a TV programme.
f. To provide immediacy—pupils produce their own work and can see the effect of it immediately.
g. To provide pupils with a purpose for doing things in English.

Structure of the programme

T.V. Simulation

Weather & News Report	Education	Puppet Show	Games & Quiz	Instructional Workshop

Introduction of Project & Preparation for video-recording

a. Orientation
b. Introduction of the project (5 programmes)
c. Ways of acquiring information, organization of materials collected, script writing.
d. Training special skills for T.V. appearance.
    —speaking clearly
    —gesture
    —expression
    SRI (Stress, Rhythm & Intonation)
    —Manners
e. Preparation.
f. Video recording.
g. Viewing of the TV programme & sharing their own work with other F. 2 classes.

Pupils' opinions on the 'TV Simulation' project:

(i) Group work:—
Most pupils preferred group work to individual work. They liked learning English through doing things together. It was more interesting and useful. Group work was enjoyable and provided them with more chances to speak English. Most pupils found that they had more confidence in speaking English after producing the programme. They were more interested in listening to taped stories, reading story books and playing language games.

(ii) Amount of time on task:—
Some pupils found that there was not enough time for preparing and completing their activity.

(iii) Watching TV programmes on the English Channel:—
Some pupils said that they would not spend more time on watching English programmes on TV because they had difficulties in understanding them. Some stressed that their family would only watch Chinese programmes and therefore they would not be able to watch any English programmes.

On the whole, pupils enjoyed producing the programme. They learned a lot from it other than English.

Feedback from teachers:

We find that lessons are more interesting and motivating if they are conducted in a less rigid way. It is also important to provide pupils with a real need for speaking English. Projects like the production of English TV programmes or English Day/Week etc. can create authentic situations where English is needed. Pupils can speak more fluently and confidently when they are given enough chances to practise.

Pupils enjoy group work and activities. Group work can increase the opportunities of pupil-to-pupil interaction. It can help pupils to develop a responsible attitude and a sense of achievement through their participation, involvement and commitment.

Activities such as games and competitions provide fun for them. Through games and activities, pupils can learn more and better. Pupils can also develop their imaginative abilities through challenging activities.

We also notice that peer groups can exert a considerable positive influence on each other. The brighter pupils can help the less able ones.

Recommendation

1. *Review of the whole project*
When the project was trialled in the experimental teaching phase, we were convinced of the many advantages of this approach to English language teaching.

(*a*) Through the project activities, the pupils we worked with in the experimental school became highly motivated, took a keen interest and showed great initiative in taking up their learning responsibilities. Pupils' creativity, stimulated by the TV production was as surprisingly outstanding as their motivation for using the target language for real life communication.

(*b*) Integrated learning was also a significant feature of the project. The four language skills were well-linked and pupils were actively involved in a variety of communicative tasks. In addition, knowledge acquired from other academic subjects was also made use of in the activities during the experimental teaching.

(*c*) The project was carried out mainly in small groups of 7 to 8 pupils which allowed more opportunities for interaction among pupils and with teachers. Ample opportunities were offered for purposeful communication in the target language through the group tasks. Moreover, a sense of responsibility and co-operation among group members was clearly established and has been developed. Last but not least, there was also a general sharing of skills, expertise and experience within the group.

(*d*) Through the project, a 'TV Simulation', a new dimension was added to the pupils' learning experience. As they were exposed to the outside world, they learned English not just from textbooks but also from authentic materials. Since they had to produce a TV programme, they used English in authentic contexts.

(*e*) The project created a real need for pupils to use English. Despite the constraints of time, the pupils worked hard to accomplish various tasks and gained rich benefits from the opportunities for communication.

From our observations in the project try-out, we feel justified in claiming that the project approach is effective and beneficial in many ways in English language teaching.

2. *Classroom implementation*

(*a*) Facilities and resources:—

- (i) In order to avoid disturbing other classes, the hall or special rooms for group discussion or working in pairs can be used.
- (ii) We can use the hardware available in school so as to reduce expenditure.
- (iii) Various topics included in a TV programme can be used in conjunction with the textbook, e.g. 'Road Safety' (a unit in Integrated English Bk. 2).
- (iv) It is better to use authentic materials to produce the programmes.

(*b*) Practical guidelines for TV production:—

- (i) Pupils should have mirror practice at home so as to watch themselves as if they were watching themselves on the TV screen.

  (ii) They should record their own voice on tape so as to check their own speed and tone.
  (iii) Body movement is important. They should also have suitable eye contact with the camera and audience.
  (iv) Pupils should be psychologically prepared for the presence of others.
  (v) Before video-taking, all props, scripts and the sets should be included in a checklist.

(*c*) Strategies to get pupils' responses:—
  (i) To give pupils enough time for practice and discussion so that they are confident of giving their opinions.
  (ii) To give encouragement and guidance to those who are less confident.
  (iii) To establish rapport with pupils by using simple English, adopting encouraging attitudes and projecting a friendly image.
  (iv) To create a relaxing atmosphere.
  (v) To involve everyone so that no one will feel shy when chosen to perform a task.
  (vi) To provide stimulating and suitable materials which would help pupils to think and develop ideas.

(*d*) Organization:—

We had 10 teachers in charge of the project which lasted one week. This, of course, cannot be arranged in normal school teaching. However, we can make adjustments and carry out such projects in individual schools. To solve manpower problems, teachers can produce a similar programme within a longer period of time. We can also share the workload of producing all the TV segments among different classes. Another alternative is to try it out in the English Club/Society.

THE SWAPSHOP*: PROGRESS OF WORK

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The Swapshop was run for its second year last year. Last December, a letter was sent to all past ILE Refresher Course participants on the English Secondary Course inviting them to join the Swapshop for the new term. From December to June, a meeting was arranged for the first Saturday of each month, except for February. Altogether six meetings were held.

Over twenty past participants joined the Swapshop this time. Because of the expressed concern of the previous year's participants over having to subject themselves to a time constraint in producing an end-product by the end of the school year, we decided not to take part in the School-based Curriculum Development Scheme of the Education Department. The participants were free to choose any ELT area they liked and to work on curriculum development or action research related to that area.

At the meetings, the participants worked on their own, forming groups, planning and writing materials, but they could approach any lecturers on the Secondary Refresher Course Team for consultation and help.

The amount of work achieved this year was not as encouraging as that in the first year. Only a few items of teaching material and some action research reports have been submitted so far.

It has been quite clear to us that neither of the approaches used so far is totally suitable for the Swapshop. In the first year, participants were pressurized by time to produce work, and as a result did not enjoy the experience as much as they could have. In the second year, they felt a lack of purpose because the work was not adequately structured.

In view of this, we have re-organized the Swapshop meetings this year (1990-91). Participants coming to the meetings have been divided into teams. Each team will choose to work on an area of action research or curriculum renewal. At least one lecturer will join each team to help the team identify the area to be worked on, give guidance on the preparation and organizing of work, and offer other forms of professional support.

Another change introduced this year is a short input/workshop session at the beginning of each meeting, conducted by ILE lecturers or guests. This was introduced because many past participants have expressed the wish to keep in touch with current ELT developments.

The first Swapshop meeting for the new academic year started on 6th October. 24 participants turned up to this meeting. The feedback from them was very promising. It appeared they were quite in favour of the new arrangements. Discussion on the work plans was conducted with much enthusiasm.

A newsletter has been sent out to all past English Secondary participants announcing the dates of all the meetings this school year. More participants are expected to join in later meetings.

At present, the Swapshop is run on a modest scale. However, it is hoped that it will grow and become an organization that will assist all English teachers in their teaching. We will be moving closer to our goal, we hope, when the ILE moves to its new premises, when the Swapshop materials will become an important element of the resources in the new Teacher Resource Centre.

13th October 1990

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* The Swapshop is an exchange bank of teacher-produced supplementary materials for secondary classes of ELT action research findings. It was set up in the ILE in September, 1988, when a group of dedicated teacher participants expressed the wish to continue to work on improving the English curriculum after finishing the ILE Refresher Course. The ILE recognized it as a worthwhile project to do, and helped them by arranging regular meetings for them in the ILE, providing professional advice, and helping coordinate the work of the teams. Meetings were held once every month on Saturday mornings.
In its first year of operation (1988-89), the Swapshop took part in the Education Department's School-based Curriculum Development Project Scheme. A collection of over 40 items of materials was produced. The idea of the Swapshop was that as soon as a teacher-member had produced an item of ELT material and contributed it to the Swapshop bank, he/she was entitled to borrow any of the materials in the bank, to make copies of these, and use them in his/her own school.
For information about the operation of the Swapshop in the first year, please read the article by May Lee and John Clark, 'The ILE Exchange Bank (Swapshop) of teacher-produced materials for English in Secondary 1 to 3' in ILEJ, Volume 6, 1989.

'FOLLOWING-THROUGH' TEACHER REFRESHER COURSES— A SUMMARY REPORT OF THE FUST PILOT PROJECT

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Introduction

As Ruddock (1981) points out, it is crucial for any teacher inservice courses to have a 'good' beginning and a 'good' ending. By a 'good' beginning, she means a good orientation programme introducing participants to the course contents as well as helping them to adjust quickly to the new mode of life in the new learning environment. As for a 'good' ending, she refers to ways the course helps participants to continue to develop what they have learned; and transfer what they have learned on the course to their own unique and more realistic environment.

In view of the importance of helping course participants to 'carry over' learning into future, Ruddock suggests using the term 'follow through' instead of the more common term 'follow-up'. She stresses that 'following through' a course reminds us of 'a sense of continuity from classroom-to-course-to-classroom' and that it is 'an important perspective in in-service work.' (1981:166) In this report, I will use the term 'follow-up' to include the sense of 'follow through' suggested by Ruddock.

Background of FUST

The FUST was a Follow-up Support Team set up on the ILE Primary Refresher Course which was held from September 1989 to January 1990 (Course EP892). The aims of setting up this Team were to look into the feasibility and value of initiating, planning, and implementing a follow-up support project for participants who have completed our refresher courses.

As a start, the FUST, which consisted of five tutors (1), was set up on the initiative of the tutors themselves. Two ILE Vice-Principals, Dr. Vernon Anley and Mrs. Christina Wong, were also involved and played the role of advisers. They also showed concern for the need to promote better communication between the ILE and schools, as well as the need to develop a follow-up project that could encourage implementation of teaching ideas and techniques participants had learnt from the ILE refresher courses.

Planning for the FUST Pilot Project

In November 1989, a number of FUST meetings and Primary Course Tutors' meetings were held and two informal surveys on all the tutors' opinions on

follow-up work were also conducted. The recommendations of two tutors' individual research studies were also taken into consideration during this enquiry and planning stage.
In January 1990, with the support of the whole team of Primary Course tutors (2), the Course Co-ordinator for the Primary Refresher Course (3), and the Chairman of the ILE Research Committee (4), a FUST project was piloted.

Objectives of the FUST Pilot Project

The pilot project aimed at facilitating tutors to try out a variety of different support measures on a number of selected participants who had completed the course in January 1990 (Course EP892). It was also hoped that through follow-up visits, a better link could be forged between the ILE and the selected schools.

Outcomes of the FUST Pilot Project

1. *School visits*

Before and shortly after the Easter break in 1990, each tutor visited at least one participant from their own groups in the participants' own schools. The participants who were visited had generally expressed willingness to be followed up before they completed the refresher course. Moreover, the majority of the schools selected to be visited had sent in a number of teachers to attend the ILE courses before.

During a typical visit, the tutor met the school head whenever possible, talked to the former participants about the outcomes and/or problems of implementing the teaching ideas and techniques they had acquired on the course, and whether they had used the Enquiry Projects produced on the course etc. (The Enquiry Project was a major module on the course that took 50 hours, which was 13% of the whole course approximately.)

In this project, a number of different forms of support had been offered by the tutors. For example, in addition to talking to the participants, some tutors also attended/observed some participants' lessons, which were followed up by discussion and consultation. (A brief summary of different kinds of support offered can be found in Appendix A.)

At the end of the pilot project, altogether 44 former ILE participants were visited, most of them being visited once and a few being visited twice. Of these 44 participants, 23 were on Course EP892, and 21 attended our courses before Course EP892. Altogether, 14 school heads were met; and 20 schools situated in a variety of districts in Hong Kong were visited. (For details, please see Appendix A.)

2. *Participants' response*

On the whole, the majority of the participants visited welcomed the tutors with warmth and sincerity. Some even invited their tutors to visit them again and some tried out some new teaching ideas/techniques/materials in a lesson during the tutors' first/second visit.

For some other participants, they took the visit as an opportunity for them to arrange a more formal meeting for the Panel head and all the teachers on the panel and/or all the former participants who had attended the ILE courses (English) either before or during the tutors' visit.

Whether formally or informally, individually or in groups, the participants visited generally made full use of the tutors' visit to give an account of some of the major outcomes of learning on our courses and some major constraints they were encountering when they tried to implement what they had learnt on the courses. They had also made some requests for the kind of post-course support they needed from the ILE, such as post-course workshops, access to a teaching resources centre etc.

3. *Tutors' response*

On the whole, tutors generally felt that the school visit experience was useful in the sense that they had acquired better understanding of the participants' teaching situations.

Besides collecting some feedback on our courses, it was also felt that the pilot project had been useful in collecting some data concerning the 'felt needs' of the participants in relation to the issue of post-course support, viz. whether or not they needed any post-course support, how they would like to be supported, and what they had tried out after the course, the major constraints they encountered when they made these attempts etc.

FUST Recommendations

In May and June, 1990, several Tutors' meetings and FUST meetings were held in order to review the achievements of the FUST Pilot Project and plan for the future actions of the project.

1. It was ascertained that post-course support is an integral function of in-service teacher-training and offering different kinds of post-course support to participants is an essential role of the tutors on the Primary Refresher Courses. It was therefore recommended that support work should continue on subsequent courses. The FUST Pilot Project was then regarded as 'FUST Project 1.'
2. The way participants could be supported may take different forms. One highly recommended form of support is through school visits, which may include attending/observing participants' lessons, as well as post-observation consultation. As found out in the pilot project, visiting participants in their schools was an effective means to find out whether transfer of learning had taken place from the course to the classroom, and if so, what and how much had been transferred.
3. It was suggested that the data collected from the pilot project should be used to feed into the planning of a more structured follow-up project—'FUST Project 2.'
4. It was strongly felt that participants to be followed up in the project should be better prepared before they complete the refresher courses. Thus, it was suggested that a centralized briefing session should be organized before the end of each course.

5. It was proposed that FUST originally set up for the pilot project would be dissolved and replaced by a new FUST which would include all the tutors on the Primary Refresher Course.

Planning for 'FUST Project 2' and 'FUST Project 3'

A number of FUST meetings and Vice-Principals' meetings were held during May and June 1990 in order to design 'FUST Project 2' and 'FUST Project 3'. Several alternative proposals were looked into in great detail in view of the tutors' experience gained in the pilot project and the internal constraints of facilitating school visits at the ILE.

1. *'FUST Project 2' (September to December 1990)*
   It was decided that 'FUST Project 2', which would be implemented in September 1990, would aim at collecting more objective data as regards the outcomes of learning from the refresher course. The data would also be collected from a wider sample—a post-course questionnaire would be sent to all the participants who completed the refresher course in June 1990 (Course EP901). The questionnaires would also be followed up by tutors' visits and lesson observation. However, in view of the man-power and time constraints, tutors would select and visit only one participant from their own tutorial group.

2. *'FUST Project 3' (February to June 1991)*
   It was hoped that a 'FUST Project 2' was being implemented, initial planning for 'FUST Project 3' could begin.

   As found in the FUST Pilot Project, the applicability and value of the Enquiry Projects produced by the participants had been a major concern and area of interest for both the tutors and the participants alike. Moreover, since participants had been enquiring into some of their real teaching problems through the projects, a more in-depth investigation into the usefulness of this particular component of the course should be worthwhile. Thus, it was proposed that 'FUST Project 3', which would be implemented in February 1991, would mainly focus on the Enquiry Project component of the course.

Postscript

On behalf of the FUST, I would like to take this opportunity to thank all the Primary course tutors, as well as the Vice-Principals, Dr. Vernon Anley and Mrs. Christina Wong, for their support and encouragement in the whole process of planning, implementing and evaluating the FUST Pilot Project. We all hope that FUST Projects 2 and 3 will be implemented with even greater success and will yield more enlightening results.

Notes

1. The members of the FUST set up for the pilot project were:—
   Barbara Chan, John Duncan, Lindsay Howard, Amy Lai and Mike Murphy.

2. The other Primary course tutors who were involved in the implementation and evaluation of the FUST Pilot Project were:—
Ann Bolt, Clare Chiang, William Choy, Glenda Hoffman, Jenny Lee and Tony Mahon.
3. The Co-ordinator of the ILE Primary Refresher Course is Mrs. Christina Wong.
4. The Chairman of the ILE Research Committee is Dr. Vernon Anley.

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APPENDIX A

F.U.S.T. PILOT PROJECT

Data extracted from 22 Tutors' Reports

1. *Number of participants visited:*
Primary Course EP892: 23 } Total: 44
Former courses: 21 }
2. *Number of school heads met:* 14
3. *Number of schools visited:* 18

Districts:	Yau Ma Tei	1
	Pokfulam	1
	Abredeen	1
	Wanchai	1
	Tuen Mun	3
	Yuen Long	1
	Homantin	1
	Central	1
	Tai Hang	1
	Tsuen Wan	1
	Kwun Tong	1
	Choi Wan	1
	Tai Po	2
	Tsim Sha Tsui	2
	Choi Hung	1

4. *Brief summary of the kinds of support measures offered by tutors during the FUST Pilot Project:—*
   - A. *Attending ex-ILE participants' lessons:—*
     - a. Participating in participants' lessons as resource persons
     - b. Observing participants' lessons and giving feedback/advice afterwards.
   - B. *Meeting ex-ILE participants in their own schools:—*
     - a. Data-collection—
       - i Identifying positive outcomes of learning on the course,
       - ii Identifying major constraints that have been bothering participants after returning to schools,
       - iii Eliciting opinions & suggestions on course improvement,
       - iv Collecting opinions on kinds of support participants needed,
     - b. Professional consultation—
       - i Clarifying concepts in language teaching and learning,
       - ii Advising participants on improvement of their teaching techniques,
       - iii Encouraging participants to adapt and try out the new ideas/techniques learnt on the course,
       - iv Looking at participants' teaching materials and giving comments/suggestions on the exploitation of such materials,
       - v Recommending/introducing new teaching ideas/ resources.
   - C. Meeting ex-ILE participants at the ILE:—
       - i Discussing with participants their lesson plans at the ILE before the visits,
       - ii Helping participants to solve teaching problems, e.g. clarifying questions on language policies and/or language usage, recommending resources and references,
       - iii Giving consultation on professional development, e.g. opportunities for further studies.
   - D. Meeting school heads at ex-ILE participants' schools:—
     - a. Introducing the purposes of the follow-up project,
     - b. Seeking for further understanding between the school and the ILE,
     - c. Facilitating communication between the school heads and the former ILE participants.

THE CHANGES OF SPEECH PATTERN OF VELAR NASAL /ŋ/ AND THE ZERO-INITIAL IN HONG KONG CANTONESE OF DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS.

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Chapter I Introduction

1.1 *Background*

In Hongkong, 98% of the population is Chinese, mainly Cantonese. The medium of communication among the Chinese both outside and in schools is mainly Cantonese. However, the pronunciation of certain characters, even some very common ones, often varies from one individual to another. It is also worth noting that different dictionaries may denote different pronunciations for the same character. Such variance and deviations cause much inconvenience and dispute among members of the general public and also create confusion among teachers and pupils.

Because of the mutability of language and factors related to historical, social, political, geographical and dialectal differences, many Chinese characters exhibit deviant pronunciations. Such deviant pronunciations have been a constant problem for both teachers and students.

With reference to the Chinese syllabuses for secondary schools, the Curriculum Development Committee in Hongkong suggested two ways to solve pronunciation problems. (P. 67, 1978. Chinese syllabus for secondary schools, HK)

Firstly, to resolve the differences between old pronunciations and currently used pronunciations, the Committee suggested ignoring the first and adhering to the last on the grounds that this will assist teachers and students.

Secondly, to solve the problem arising from variant pronunciations of certain characters, the Committee suggested that teachers should adopt the most commonly used and most widely accepted variant. Teachers are asked to refer to more than one dictionary and to decide for themselves which variant they will teach. However the Committee did not make any recommendation as to which dictionaries should be consulted.

Since, 1982, the changes in speech patterns and the problems arising from variant pronunciations have aroused the interest of scholars from the two universitites in HK and the Institute of Language in Education. A few studies have been made. In 1986, 'An Enquiry into the Cantonese Pronunciation of Commonly Used Chinese Characters' was conducted by the Institute of Language in Education (ILE). The ILE will publish a list of commonly used Chinese characters with standardized pronunciations which will serve as a reference for teachers, teacher trainers, and publishers of Chinese textbooks. One surprising finding of the study was that the seven dictionaries do not agree unanimously on the pronunciation of 1219 characters out of 4000 commonly-used characters. This finding led to the formation of a committee consisting of scholars of phonology and sociolinguistics from the ILE and the two universitites and polytechnics in HK, with the object of giving opinions and suggestions on rules of standardising Cantonese.

1.2 *Purpose of the study*

This study has one objective. This is to investigate the change of speech patterns in the use of the velar nasal /ŋ/ and the initial zero- /Ø/ among Hongkong Cantonese from three age groups.

Hashimoto has the following observation on the distribution of /ŋ/ & /Ø/: 'The voiced initials do not generally occur on syllables of the literacy layer with Yin-tone. This statement applies without exception to the distribution of the velar nasal initial /ŋ/. However, syllables with the zero-initial, that is syllables beginning with neither a consonant nor a glide, occur only in the Yin-tone regardless of whether they occur in morphemes of the literary or colloquial layer. We notice that syllables with the zero initial share a similar distributional pattern with velar initials. Both of them occur with a very restricted number of finals-only those finals with the vowels [aː] [iː] [oː] [o]. The situation suggests that zero initial and the velar nasal initial are phonologically non-distinctive.' (Hashimoto 1972).

Due to the influence of neighbouring dialects, there is a merger of certain initials in the speech of a number of Cantonese speakers. In Hongkong, initial /ŋ/ is often confused with the zero initial, although speakers of standard Cantonese still consistently maintain the distinctions between these sounds.

In the first part of this study, words with zero-initial and yin-tone are chosen to test the change in the pattern. (see Table 1)

Table 1

0聲母和0聲母 Velar nasal /ŋ/ and zeroinitial /0/

FORM 字形	Phonetic Transcription 字 IPA 音	Words 例詞
亞	a:^{3} 阿 ŋa:^{3}	亞軍 Second place
區	a:u^{1} 歐 ŋa:u^{1}	區先生 Mr. AU
奧	ou^{3} 澳 ŋou^{3}	奧妙 profound
愛	ɔi:^{3} 嫒 ŋɔi:^{3}	愛護 take good care of
安	ɔn^{1} 鞍 ŋɔn^{1}	安定 stable
藹	ɔi:^{2} 靄 ŋɔi:^{2}	和藹 kindly
矮	ai:^{2} 豎 ŋai:^{2}	矮小 short & small

Chapter II Review of Literature and Dictionaries

2.1 Since the early 19th century, when missionaries came to Canton and its neighbouring areas, quite a number of dictionaries, syllabaries, vocabularies and textbooks on Cantonese have been compiled. Only a few are presently accessible.

Y. R. Chao's Cantonese Primer 1947 and D. K. Hashimoto's Studies in Yue dialects 1: Phonology of Cantonese are important works on the dialect. Another important Chinese reference is Hanyu Fangyan Gaiyo [An outline of the Chinese dialects] by Yuan Jiahusa in 1961 and Xiandai Hanyan [modern Chinese dialect] by 詹伯慧 in 1980.

A syllabary which is based more or less on present day Cantonese pronunciation is S. L. Wong's A Chinese Syllabary Pronunced According to the Dialect of Canton 1940,' which is widely used in the field of education in Hongkong. Wong's syllabary does not include colloquial morphemes and many subsequent dictionaries were compiled with Wong's syllabary as a model and published 辭淵 in 1948, 中文字典（喬） in 1963, 同音字彙 in 1971 and 中華新字典 in 1976. In 1980, the Chinese University Press published a dictionary by Professor Lee called 李氏中文字典. This dictionary contains a number of colloquial morphemes. In 1983 廣州音字典 was compiled in China, which was based on the currently used pronunciation in Canton. The review of the phonetic transcription will be based on these popular dictionaries.

As different dictionaries use different systems of transcriptions, in order to review the true phenomenon, all the transcriptions are marked as in their original systems.

2.2 *Ancient Chinese Sound Categories*

At the end of each column, the ancient Chinese sound categories are listed. The 古今音對照手冊 (1981) was taken as reference. At the same time, the review also takes the reference of Han Yu Fan Yan Dia Cha 漢語方言調查（邢公畹） 1982 to match the phonetic value of the categories.

It is of special value to take the reference to the ancient Chinese sound categories because this may help to trace the trend of the changes and also may help to explain such changes.

2.3 *A Survey of Dialects in the Pearl River Delta 1986-1987*

This is the first report of the dialect survey of the Pearl River Delta jointly conducted by Jinan University and the Chinese University of Hong Kong in 1986-1987. It is at present the most detailed study of the dialects in the region, which includes 31 locations.

The research covers primarily the many varieties of the Yue dialect which are the dominant means of communication in the Pearl River Delta. Other dialects, Min and Kejia, have also been studied.

The report is a valuable reference for making comparison between the varieties within the Hong Kong speech community, as well as the nearby Yue speech community in the Pearl River Delta.

However, the Survey of the Pearl River Delta had only one or two informants for each location. The range of age is also wide. A detailed survey of different age groups in various speech communities may describe the deviations more precisely. The present survey may help to give a more detailed picture of changes in Hong Kong Cantonese.

Table 2 gives a review of sounds recorded in the Survey of the Pearl River Delta.

Table 2

Pearl River Delta Survey Wordlist

[illegible]	155	1557	[illegible]	905	2065	620	672
	亞	歐	[illegible]	愛	安	藹 和藹	矮
	假開二去禡影	流開一平侯影	流開一去候影	蟹開一去代影	山開一平寒影	蟹開一去泰影	蟹開二上蟹影
[illegible]	a^{51}	ou^{55}	ɐu^{21}	ɔi^{33}	ɔn^{55}	ɐi^{214}	ɐi^{214}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{55}	ɐu^{11}	ɔi^{33}	ɔn^{55}	ɔi^{35}	ɐi^{35}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{55}	ɐu^{11}	ɔi^{33}	ɔn^{55}	ɔi^{35}	ɐi^{35}
[illegible]	A^{234}	əu^{434}	əu^{212}	wuɣ^{332}	wuŋ^{212}	wuɣ^{34}	Ai^{35}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{55}	ɐu^{11}	ɔi^{33}	ɔn^{55}	ɔi^{35}	ɐi^{35}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{53}	ɐu^{11}	ɔi^{33}	ɔn^{53}	ɔi^{35}	ɐi^{35}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{53}	ɐu^{11}	ɔi^{33}	ŋɔn^{53}	ɔi^{35}	ɐi^{35}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{55}	ɐu^{21}	ɔi^{33}	ɔn^{55}	ɔi^{35}	ɐi^{35}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{55}	ɐu^{11}	ɔi^{33}	œŋ^{55}	ŋɔi^{35}	ɐi^{35}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{53}	ɐu^{11}	ɔi^{33}	ɔn^{53}	ɔi^{35}	ɐi^{35}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{55}	ɔ^{33}	ɔ^{33}	ɔŋ^{55}	ɔ^{35}	ɐi^{35}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{53}	ɔ^{24}	ɔi^{53}	ɔn^{53}	ɔi^{24}	ɐi^{24}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{53}	ɐu^{33}	ɔi^{33}	ɔn^{53}	ɔi^{35}	ɐi^{35}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{455}	ɐu^{11}	ɔi^{33}	ɔn^{455}	ɔi^{35}	ŋɐi^{35}
中山 石岐	a^{33}	ɐu^{55}	ɐu^{11}	ɔi^{33}	ɔn^{55}	ɔi^{215}	ɐi^{215}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{55}	ɐu^{11}	ɔi^{33}	ɔn^{55}	ɔi^{35}	ɐi^{13}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{45}	ɐu^{22}	ɔi^{31}	ɔn^{45}	ɔi^{24}	ɐi^{24}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{33}	ɐu^{21}	ui^{33}	un^{55}	ui^{34}	ɐi^{55}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{22}	ɐu^{21}	ŋɔi^{33}	ŋɔn^{33}	ɔi^{45}	ɐi^{45}
[illegible]	a^{33}	æu^{21}	ɐu^{21}	ui^{33}	un^{33}	ui^{45}	ɐi^{45}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{33}	ɐu^{21}	ʔɔi^{33}	ʔɔn^{33}	ʔɔi^{35}	ɐi^{33}
[illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{13}	ɔ^{21}	ʔɔi^{21}	ɔn^{55}	ʔɔi^{35}	[illegible]
[illegible]	a^{33}	ei^{33}	ɐu^{21}	uai^{33}	uɔn^{33}	uɔi^{55}	ɐi^{33}
[illegible]	A^{33}	ɔu^{11}	ɛ^{11}	ʔA^{33}	ɔn^{11}	ʔɔ^{55}	[illegible]
[illegible]	ŋa^{30}	ŋɐu^{213}	ŋɐu^{33}	vi^{33}	vun^{23}	vi^{55}	ŋɐi^{35}
[illegible]	a^{34}	ŋɐu^{55}	ɐu^{35}	ui^{34}	wun^{33}	ui^{34}	ɐi^{34}
[illegible]	a^{33}	iɐu^{33}	ɐu^{213}	ɔi^{44}	ɔn^{33}	ɔi^{34}	ɐi^{35}
[illegible]	a^{13}	ɐu^{33}	ɐu^{42}	ɔi^{44}	ɔn^{33}	ɔi^{21}	ɐi^{21}
[illegible]	a^{33}	iu^{33}	ɐu^{42}	ɔi^{44}	ɔn^{33}	ɔi^{31}	ɐi^{31}
[illegible]	a^{52}	ɐu^{44}	ɔ^{52}	ɔi^{52}	ɔn^{44}	ɔi^{31}	ɐi^{31}
中山 [illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{23}	ɐu^{55}	ɔi^{55}	ɔn^{33}	ɔi^{24}	ɐi^{24}
中山 [illegible]	a^{33}	ɐu^{55}	ɐu^{11}	ɔi^{44} ɔi^{33}	ɔn ɐn^{44}	ɔi^{24}	ɐi^{44} ɐi

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Chapter III The design of the survey

3.1 *Subjects*

Changes in language are so gradual that they occur usually over decades rather than months or years. Age groups may show the trend or preferences of certain speech patterns. There are therefore three groups of subjects.

Group A consists of people aged 40 or above. They are mainly immigrants from mainland China and may retain some old form, or literary pronunciations of the words under study.

Group B consists of people aged (between) 20 and 40 who were born mostly in Hong Kong.

Group C consists of those aged below 20 and they may show the speech patterns as it exists among young people in Hong Kong.

3.2 *Sampling Procedures*

With the help of the members of a language teacher refresher course conducted at the Institute of Language in Education in Hong Kong, the survey was conducted by non-probability sampling. Group A and B include teachers and non-teachers. Group C are all students.

A word list test (table 1) was carried out. A list containing seven words with /ŋ/ or /0/ initial was given to the informant who was asked to read the word list aloud and this was recorded on tape for analysis.

In addition, each informant was asked to fill in relevant personal background data in a questionnaire.

The frequency of occurrence of each pronunciation is converted to percentage and presented in figures.

Chapter IV Results and analysis

4.1 *Personal data of the subjects*

The personal data of the subjects are tabulated below.

Table 3 Subjects by age

Sex	AGE			
	A > 40	A > 40	A > 40	Total
M	21	15	9	45
F	29	35	41	105

Since this is convenience sampling, there are more female than male subjects.

Table 4 Subjects by place of origin

	AGE			
	A>40	B21-40	C<20	Total
Kwantung	46	46	47	139
Other	4	4	3	11

Most of the subjects came from Kwantung province where Cantoness is used as the main medium of communication.

From the questionnaires, it was found that all the subjects use Cantonese as their means of communication at home.

Table 5 Academic level of subjects

	AGE			
	A>40	B21-40	C<20	Total
Primary	1	1	0	2
Secondary	27	15	52	94
Advanced Level	17	35	2	54

Table 6 Occupation of Subjects

	AGE			
	A>40	B21-40	C<20	Total
Students	0	1	50	51
Teachers	37	28	0	65
non-teachers	13	21	0	34

Table 7 Habits of dictionary Use

	AGE			
	A>40	B21-40	C<20	Total
YES	38	36	42	116
NO	12	14	8	34

Table 8 Dictionaries used (more than one option allowed)

	AGE			
	A>40	B21-40	C<20	Total
粵音韻彙 A Chinese Syllabary pronunced according to the dialect of Canton	25	12	3	40
辭源 CI Yuan	15	10	18	43
中文字典(喬) Chinese dictionary (kiu)	24	23	6	53
中華新字典 Zhong Hua Shan Dy	16	19	25	60
廣州音字典 Guang Chou Yin Ci Din	3	2	1	6
其他 Others	11	6	18	35

4.1 An interesting phenomenon is that those dictionaries popularly used among the subjects take Wang's Syllabary as model. The subjects for the Syllabary suggests that their pronunciations may be influenced by Wang's Syllabury. However, Wang's syllabary was compiled in 1940. Since 1940, no revision in transcription has been made in this Syllabary. Some of the transcriptions of pronunciation are quite different from the pronunciations currently used in the 1980's. This shows that a revision of Cantonese dictionaries in Hong Kong is urgently needed.

Moreover, the systems among different popular dictionaries are different. Although they take Wang's system as references, some of them have alternatives.

4.2 Changes of epeech pattern of velar nasal /ŋ/ and the Ø zero-initial in Hong Kong Cantonese of different ages groups

Table 9

Velar nasal /ŋ/ and zero-initial /0/ of Hong Kong Cantonese.

字形	例詞	字音	40歲以上 (A 組)		20-40 歲 (B 組)		20歲以下 (C 組)		150 人合計	
			人數	(%)	人數	(%)	人數	(%)	人數	(%)
亞	亞軍	a 3 阿	39	(78%)	37	(74%)	44	(88%)	120	(80%)
		ŋa 3	11	(22%)	13	(26%)	6	(12%)	30	(20%)
區	區先生	au' 歐	42	(84%)	40	(80%)	42	(84%)	124	(82.67%)
		ŋaau'	8	(16%)	10	(20%)	6	(12%)	24	(16%)
		其他 other	0	(0%)	0	(0%)	2	(4%)	2	(1.33%)
奧	奧妙	ou 3 澳	38	(76%)	38	(76%)	47	(74%)	123	(82%)
		ŋou 3	12	(24%)	12	(24%)	3	(6%)	27	(18%)
愛	愛護	ɔi 3 嬡	33	(66%)	36	(72%)	42	(84%)	111	(74%)
		ŋɔi 3	17	(34%)	14	(28%)	8	(16%)	39	(26%)
安	安定	ɔn 2 鞍	37	(74%)	35	(70%)	38	(76%)	110	(73.33%)
		ŋɔn 1	13	(26%)	15	(30%)	12	(24%)	40	(26.67%)
藹	和藹	ɔi 2 藹	35	(70%)	29	(58%)	31	(62%)	95	(63.33%)
		ŋɔi 2	13	(26%)	17	(34%)	17	(34%)	47	(31.33%)
		其他 other	2	(4%)	4.	(8%)	2	(4%)	8	(5.33%)
矮	矮小	aai 2 [illegible]	31	(32%)	30	(60%)	39	(78%)	100	(66.67%)
		ŋaai 2	17	(34%)	18	(36%)	11	(22%)	46	(30.67%)
		其他 other	2	(4%)	2	(4%)	0	(0%)	4	(2.67%)

Phonologically, syllables with the zero-initial occur only in the three yin-tone (upper level, upper rising, upper going) regardless of whether they occur in morphemes of the literary or colloquial layer. They also share a similar distributional pattern with velar initials. This situation suggests that this zero initial and the velar nasal initial are phonologically non-distinctive (Hashimoto 1972).

However, the survey with the characters with yin-tone showed diffferent results. This also contradicts the findings of the Survey of Pearl River Delta.

The total percentage with /ŋ/ added to the initial is 24%. The average percentage with /ŋ/ added to the initial for groups A and B, is 27%. The average percentage with /ŋ/ added to the initial for group C aged below 20 is only 18%.

This indicates that this zero initial and the velar nasal initial are phonologically non-distinctive.

This enquiry reveals that the speech pattern of Hong Kong Cantonese has changed. They frequently mix the /ŋ/ and /Ø/. This Yin tone situation is supposed to be zero initial but for the group above the age of twenty, they commonly add the /ŋ/ initial (27%).

It is interesting to note that the younger generation has a lower percentage (18%). This may be because the trend in their speech pattern is to delate the /ŋ/ initial whether it is rising YIN-tone ro lower tone.

Chater V: Conclusions and pedagogical implications

The present study on the distribution of /ŋ/ initial and /ŋ/ initial shows that there is a tendency for the younger generation in Hong Kong (ie. Group C) to drop the /ŋ/ initial from both Yin-tone and Yang-tone syllables in both the literary and colloqial layers. On the other hand, there is a tendency for some subjects in Groups B and C to add 'incorrectly' the /ŋ/ initial to Yin-tone syllables. These two findings suggest that the distribution pattern of /ŋ/ initial and /Ø/ initial, as described by Hashimoto, has undergone some significant changes.

Hashimoto claims that 'voiced initials [including initial /ŋ/] do not generally occur on syllables of the literary layer with Yin-tone' and that 'syllable with the /Ø/ initial occurs only in the Yin-tone regardless of whether they occur in morphemes of the literary or colloquial layer.' (Hasimoto 1972). The pattern as described by her can be summarised in the following paradigm.

	Literary Layer	Colloquial Layer
Yin-tone	Ø (1)	Ø or ŋ (2)
Yang-tone	ŋ (1)	ŋ

Pattern A

Note (1): In the Literary layer, /Ø/ and /ŋ/ and in complementary distribution.

Note (2): In the Colloquial layer and for Yin-tone morphemes, /Ø/ and /ŋ/ are phonemically non-distinctive.

What may be happening in the speech community of Hong Kong is that many people are no longer observing the old phonological rules relating to the distribution of /Ø/ initial and /ŋ/ initial.

The younger generation tend to use /Ø/ initial for all situations. This pattern is repesented as follows:

	Literary Layer	Colloquial Layer
Yin-tone	Ø	Ø
Yang-tone	Ø	Ø

Pattern B

Whereas people in the older age-groups show a tendency to use /ŋ/ initial for all situations:

	Literary Layer	Colloquial Layer
Yin-tone	ŋ	ŋ
Yang-tone	ŋ	ŋ

Pattern C

The scene that has been described so far is obviously rather confusing, with the pattern evolving in opposite directions. One thing is certain: very few people in Hong Kong are adhering to the pattern as described by Hashimoto (i.e., Pattern A).

What is the language teacher to do in the face of such confusion? Four courses of action are opened to him:

1. He insist that his students adhere to Pattern A. But this is an uphill battle and likely to be a losing one.
2. He can condone 'Pattern B. But then his students will run the risk of producing socially unacceptable mispronunciations.
3. He can prescribe Pattern C. But then this violates the old phonological rule that voiced initials do not generally occur in Yin-tone morphemss in the literary layer.
4. He can take a laissez-faire attitude by letting the language change run its course and decide what to do 50 years later. This of course is not a serious alternative.

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Volume 8 1991

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CONTENTS 目錄

		Page
R. K. Johnson	Teaching and Learning in the English Stream in Secondary Schools: Implications of ECR4	10
Alan Hirvela and Eva Law	A Survey of Local English Teachers' Attitudes Toward English and ELT	25
Jack C. Richards	Towards Reflective Teaching	39
Christopher F. Green	Motivation, the Second Language Learner and the Teacher	46
Gregory James	Consuming Materials	57
Norman Bird	The Provision of ELT Reading Materials: An Old Problem and a New Solution	67
R. R. K. Hartmann	What's the Use of Learners' Dictionaries?	73
K. K. Luke and O. T. Nancarrow	On Being Literate in Hong Kong	84
寸鎮東	語文課中語法教學的重要性和方法	93
王健倫 **梁道潔**	試論穗港新詞	99
汪壽順	談對外漢語教學中的成語教學	110
周　荐	漢語外來成分譯借方式之我見	115
周國正	普通話、粵語語法比較的問題	123
林偉洪	譯者在翻譯過程中佔了什麼地位	133
高更生	漢語特殊句子的教學	138
陳基藩	語文教師新的培訓策畫	144

Continued on page 5

9.10

REPORTS AND SUMMARIES 匯報

Chan Wai-ming, Neil Drave and Mabel C. P. Wong A Progress Report on HongKongBank/ILE Language Development Fund Research and Development Project 5: ***Minimum English Language Requirements and English Courses for Colleges Of Education Student Teachers*** 155

Vivienne Yu and Christina Wong The Hong Kong Extensive Reading Scheme in English (HKERS)—An Extensive Reading Programme for Junior Secondary Students 188

May M. T. Lee The Swapshop: Progress of Work 193

Action Research Report summaries by ILE English Refresher Course participants:

- ***'Kowloon Park'*** 196
- ***'What Makes a Reader Popular Among Our Pupils'*** 207
- ***'Developing Language Enrichment Materials on Songs, Poems and Videos for Lower Secondary Classes'*** 212
- ***'Introducing a Language Arts Programme to a S2 Class'*** 216
- ***'Self-Access Learning'*** 218
- ***'Towards Identifying the Effectiveness of Different Question Types in Relation to Students' Immediate Verbal Response in an English Classroom'*** 221
- ***'Putting Thought Into Words'*** 223
- ***'Introducing a Process-Oriented Approach To Writing To a S4 Class in a Chinese Medium School'*** 226

李學銘 讀文教學與課堂活動 230

何國祥 介紹語文教育學院1990年出版的《常用字廣州話讀音表》 235

陳憶崙 漢語拼音SCRABBLE——教學設計 241

GENERAL INFORMATION 通訊

ILE Publications Available from the Government Publications Sales Centre 245

Information for Contributors 246

FOREWORD

The eighth issue of the ILEJ contains sixteen articles, eight written in English and eight in Chinese. This issue continues the balance of the previous issues. The articles are followed by a section of reports and summaries which reports recent and ongoing activities in and around the Institute itself. This issue also continues its direction of making the journal as a whole more accessible and relevant to teachers and maintaining it as a forum of exchange of academic and professional discussions.

The first two articles in the English section of this issue discuss the Education Commission Report No. 4 (ECR 4). Each article has a different focus, but they similarly offer constructive recommendations to improve the quality of teaching and learning of English in Hong Kong secondary schools.

R. K. Johnson deals with the problem of English as the medium of instruction. Education Commission Report No. 4 accepted the recommendations of the Language Report which has identified the medium of instruction as a worsening problem despite the various measures taken up by people 'with different positions and interests' to improve the teaching of English as a subject. His article attempts to clarify the rationale by which ECR 4 policy was arrived at and explains the difficulties that would be involved when implementing the policy. Next, he explains that the success of the Bridge Programme will be determined by the extent to which students are able to continue to study through English once the Bridge programme is over and teaching and learning in the normal secondary curriculum has begun. To achieve this, subject area teachers across the curriculum will need to change radically their style of teaching and their attitudes to education. Finally, he examines some of the major changes that will be required in thinking about and planning the curriculum and in performing in the classroom.

Alan Hirvela and Eva Law report and discuss data relevant to the proposals ECR4 made with respect to its 'Language in Education' section, as well as to other ELT-related concerns. The data are the results of a survey of 246 Hong Kong primary and secondary school teachers. The authors hope that the results of this research will offer some useful insights into the feasibility and advisability of the ECR 4 recommendations, and into the whole issue of English language and English medium teaching in Hong Kong. And since they believe that the teachers' feedback is the most essential, the most meaningful, and the most informed on school related matters because teachers have 'active, hands-on presence in the day-to-day life of school teaching,' they suggest that teachers' 'meaningful feedback' must be included in the formation of educational policies to ensure effective implementation of educational planning.

Jack Richards in his article provides teachers advice and support to undertake professional development in their own teaching context. He introduces a reflective approach to teaching which involves changes in the way teachers usually perceive teaching and their role in the process of teaching. He suggests a three part process central to the approach and then examines the approaches to critical reflection which reflect these processes. The article sends out a clear and powerful message that experience alone is insufficient for professional growth, but that experience coupled with reflection can be a powerful impetus for teacher development.

Christopher Green identifies and enquires into major aspects of motivation and their connections with second language learning. Despite the apparently profound subjectivity of motivational drives, he suggests that the role of the teacher is of vital importance in enhancing students' motivation to learn a second language. In this respect, a broad plan of action, including a number of practical suggestions, is offered for the teacher's guidance.

The next two articles deal with evaluating materials, particulary coursebooks and textbooks. ***Gregory James*** points out that the evaluation and design of textbooks and of classroom materials in general have not always been well thought out or satisfactorily carried out. He suggests that evaluating, designing and selecting coursebooks and classroom materials should not be just the responsibility of a selected few, it should also involve practising teachers. He believes that practising teachers' knowledge, experiences and insights can provide 'a valuable source which can contribute significantly to the development of effective classroom teaching materials particularly suited to their individual teaching situations.'

Norman Bird, who considers publishing economics the reason why reading materials such as supplementary readers are often over 50 years old, and important research findings have only a very limited distribution, foresees changes with the advent of desktop publishing.

The last two articles in this session explore the use of learner materials. ***R. R. K. Hartmann*** investigates the value of Learners' Dictionaries in the process of vocabulary acquisition. He believes that what is important in vacabulary teaching is not just the numerical frequency of a word, but also its complexity, its learnability, and the specific motivation the learner may have for its acquisition in terms of interest and familiarity. His survey of learners' dictionaries points towards the need to find out more about the dictionary user, his/her preferences, habits and experiences in actual contexts of dictionary consultation.

K. K. Luke and Owen Nancarrow's article demonstrates how (Chinese) newspapers, once properly described and understood, can be used to good effect in the teaching of Cantonese as a foreign language. Apart from providing teaching implications for the Chinese language classroom, the article could be an inspiration for all language teachers who are considering a project work dimension on analysing some of the features as they may occur in newspaper texts.

Reports and Summaries

This section falls into two parts. The first contains a progress report of the HongKongBank Language Development Fund Development and Research Project entitled 'Minimum English Language Requirements and English Courses for Colleges of Education Student Teachers' by ***Chan Wai Ming, Neil Drave and Mabel C. P. Wong;*** a project report of the Hong Kong Extensive Reading Scheme in English (HKERS) by ***Vivienne Yu and Christina Wong;*** and ***May M. T. Lee's*** brief outline of the progress of last year's SWAPSHOP, a series of post course follow-up activities undertaken by the participants of the English secondary refresher courses.

The second part of the section is likely to be of most interest to teachers, it contains eight summary reports of action research carried out by primary and secondary ILE participants during their refresher courses. The reports may be helpful, not only as examples, but also for the recommendations they make for the implementation of their action research and for future actions.

The Chinese section contains eight articles which are arranged by the number of strokes in the characters of the authors' surname. The articles deal with a variety of topics. ***Chan Jifan's*** 'New Strategies for Training Language Teachers' considers the situation of teacher training in China and makes some constructive suggestions on teacher training. The next three articles deal with issues related to syntax. ***Gun Zhendong and Gao Geng Sheng*** in their article examine the pedagogy of syntax with a view to bringing improvement to classroom practices. ***Chow Kwok Ching's*** article on the comparison of Putonghua and Cantonese investigates the development and relationship of two languages which are derived from the same origin. Another theme of the articles in this section is vocabulary. ***Zhou Jian*** expresses his views on how certain borrowed words in modern Chinese came about. ***Wang Jian Lun and Liang Dao Jie*** study and consider the implications of the patterns of newly coined phrases that emerge in Hong Kong and Guangzhou. ***Wang Shoushun*** discusses the teaching of Chinese proverbs to foreigners. The authors' suggestions are able to provide Chinese language teachers some new ideas in their teaching. ***Lam Wai Hung*** examines the role of a translator in the process of translation based on the theory of Jin Di and Nida. He suggests that the translator can be creative and at the same time be faithful to the author.

前言

本期英文論文共有八篇，內容涉及英語教與學的問題及其解決方法、英語教材的運用、教師如何介入及推行培訓的工作、提高讀寫能力的參考資料等各方面。這些論文包括：祈莊信 (K. Johnson) 的《中學英文部的教與學：教育統籌委員會第四號報告書的啟示》；李察斯 (J. Richards) 的《邁向反省教學》；羅鳳娟、希維拉 (E. Law & A. Hirvela) 的《本地英語

教師對英語及英語教學的態度研究》；祈敬輝 (C. Green) 的《學習動機，第二語言學習者及其導師》；詹格禮 (G. James) 的《教材的運用》；白爾德 (N. Bird) 的《英語閱讀教材的供應：舊問題與新答案》；夏德曼 (R. Hartmann) 的《語文學習者的詞典有何用途》；陸鏡光與藍嘉羅 (K. K. Luk & O. T. Nancarrow) 的《在香港做個識字的人》。

本期中文論文共有八篇，排列次序，原則上按作者的姓氏筆畫作先後：筆畫少的在前，筆畫多的在後。八篇論文的內容，可約略分為幾類。陳基潞的《語文教師新的培訓策畫》，是一篇討論語文教師培訓的文章，作者結合國內的情況，對培訓策畫提出了一些新建議。有關語法問題的文章有三篇：于鎮東的《語文課中語法教學的重要性和方法》和高更生的《漢語特殊句子的教學》，主要是從教學的角度，探討怎樣才可以把語法教好的問題；周國正的《普通話、粵語語法比較的問題》，則是一篇就兩種同源語言進行比較的文章，作者既探索語言發展的規律，又估量兩種語言之間的關係。有關詞匯討論的文章有三篇：周荐的《漢語外來成分譯借方式之我見》，內容主要從形式、內容兩方面，討論現代漢語外來成分的譯借方式，並說明外來語成分怎樣融入現代漢語詞彙的系統。王健倫、梁道潔的《試論穗港新詞》，主要就廣州和香港兩地所產生的新詞，探討兩個問題：(一)穗港新詞的造詞方式；(二)穗港新詞大量產生的意義。汪壽順的《談對外漢語教學中的成語教學》，談論的是在對外漢語教學中，應該怎樣進行成語的教學，意見無疑本為外國人學習漢語而發，但作者的建議，對中國語文教師來說，也有啟發的作用。林偉洪的《譯者在翻譯過程中佔了什麼地位》，是一篇討論翻譯問題的文章，作者以金隄和奈達 (JIN DI & NIDA) 的理論為基礎，探討現代譯者在實際翻譯過程中所擔當的角色。作者認為，譯者是譯文的創造者，而不是原作者必恭必敬的從屬。

TEACHING AND LEARNING IN THE ENGLISH STREAM IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS: IMPLICATIONS OF ECR4

R. K. Johnson
Hong Kong University

1.0 Background

Hong Kong has nine years of compulsory education, six years primary and three years secondary with over 90% of students continuing to secondary form five. 98% of primary school education is conducted through the medium of Chinese (oral Cantonese, written Chinese) and there is no pressure within society for more English at this level. At secondary level, however, 90% or more of the student population enters schools which are nominally English medium. It has been government policy since the 1960's to maintain a strong Chinese medium stream at secondary level, but moves to promote Chinese have been frustrated by parents who opt for the language of upward (and outward) mobility for their children, and by the influence parental choice has been able to exercise on school principals.

For almost all students making the switch from Chinese medium to English, there is a gross mismatch between their level of proficiency and the level required to study the secondary curriculum successfully. As a result, the written curriculum is interpreted in the oral medium through a combination of English and Cantonese. Teachers switch between the two languages and use a mixed code which consists of English technical terms embedded in Cantonese.

1.1 The Evolution of the Problem

Immersion programmes, i.e. programmes where a second language is the medium of instruction, aim to achieve a large quantity and high quality of purposeful communication in the target language. They are particularly effective in contexts where there would normally be little or no exposure to that language outside the school. Hong Kong is essentially a monolingual Cantonese-speaking community which uses English only in its contacts with expatriates and with the outside world. The importance of these contacts is rarely questioned, but they take place at relatively high levels of professional and commercial activity or in specialised domains such as tourism. The average citizen has little need for English and the average child, outside the classroom, none. In the post world war II period up to 1960 English medium education was highly selective. Many of the most prestigious schools were controlled by, and their students were largely taught by, expatriates and the rule of 'English only' within the school grounds was often rigorously enforced (with fines for the use of Cantonese in the playground as an often-quoted example). Those schools achieved a very high standard of English.

The policy from 1960 to 1990 has been for rapid expansion, greater equality of opportunity and localisation in the education system. Nine years of compulsory education was achieved in 1978. Over the same period, the financial support that the prestige schools increasingly needed from government was used to ensure access to those schools for academically able students from every level in society. In order to facilitate this process, English was removed from the student evaluation carried out at the end of primary six, with a consequent drop in both emphasis on English in primary schools and the standard of English of students entering English medium secondary schools. Localisation meant that English was no longer the language of administration and social exchanges within the school and the average level of proficiency of Chinese speaking members of staff is generally assumed to have declined. By the end of the 1970's the fact that a major problem existed for most English medium schools had been clearly established. The text books might be in English but the teaching to a greater or lesser extent was not. Throughout the 1980's there were a series of attempts to address the problem through strengthening the teaching of English language as a subject and the failure of these attempts culminated in a radical change in approach to the medium of instruction issue 1990. However before describing these measures and why they failed, it is important to be clear about the nature of the problem that was being addressed.

1.2 Mixing and switching in Teacher-talk in Immersion Classes

As I have stated, by the late 1970's, it was clear that English was no longer the sole medium of teacher-talk in the English medium schools. Various studies, most in the form of questionnaires to schools and teachers, suggested that the proportion of Cantonese and mixed mode to English increased during the 1980's, as did the level of conviction amongst content area teachers that mixing and switching did not constitute a problem: e.g. in one survey covering 193 schools only 7% of respondents felt that the mixing and switching mode of instruction was wrong (Shek, Johnson and Law, forthcoming). Some felt that there were advantages and disadvantages, but the great majority clearly indicated that their current practice was the best solution to the problems they faced, given the proficiency levels of students, the demands of the curriculum in terms of the quantity of content to be covered and the linguistic difficulty of the textbooks.

The position taken by the teachers is not unreasonable. The secondary curriculum is generally acknowledged to be overloaded with facts, and several studies confirm the difficulties students have in reading texts on entry to secondary school and subsequently (Cheung, 1985; Kwan, 1989). In upper secondary, a recent study (Tang, 1990) showed that the readability levels of science text books were comparable to or slightly more difficult than those used with native speakers in the U.K. The Biology textbooks used at Forms 4 and 5 were significantly more difficult. Some teachers report that they ignore their textbooks altogether and work from hand-outs and notes.

The data in Tables 1 to 3 are from studies conducted in 1981 and 1990. The 1981 study (reported in Johnson 1983) covered Forms 1 to 3, the 1990 study covered Forms 1 to 7 (Johnson, Shek and Law, 1991). In both studies, content area teachers in English medium schools were asked to record 'typical' lessons so that the modes of instruction could be investigated. If there was any deviation from the teachers' normal practice, it can be assumed that more rather than less English would have been used in the recorded lessons. Table 1 presents data for Forms 1 to 3 only.

Table 1

A Comparison of the % of English, Cantonese and C-e* in teacher-talk in Forms 1–3 content area subjects in studies conducted in 1981 and 1990

		FORM			Overall F1–3
		1	2	3	
English	1981	37	45	53	43
	1990	11	15	18	15
Cantonese	1981	57	44	33	48
	1990	67	70	60	65
C-e	1981	6	11	14	9
	1990	22	15	22	20
No. of Lessons Analysed	1981	19	17	8	44
	1990	22	22	26	70

(* Cantonese with English terminology inserted.)

Table 1 shows the tendency for less English to be used in 1990 than in 1981, from 43% overall in Form 1 to 3 in 1981 to 15% in those forms in 1990.

The use of English, Cantonese and Mixed Code in Forms 1 to 7 in the 1990 study is shown in Table 2. In the 1981 study, no significant difference was found between Arts and Science subjects in the use of English, though there was a great deal of variation amongst teachers, schools and classes. In 1990, there was still considerable variation in the Arts subjects, but in Science and Maths it was very much reduced, as the use of English had become minimal (approx. 10% of teacher-talk overall in each case). Further, there was little evidence of any clear increase in the amount of English used as students moved up the school. As Table 3 shows (the figures are extracted from Table 2 for ease of reference), it is the use of C-e, or Cantonese with embedded English terminology, which increases, until it is the dominant mode in Science and Maths in forms 6 and 7.

Table 2

Percentages of English, Cantonese and C-e modes with 'teacher-talk' for Arts subjects, Science and Mathematics

	Arts			Science			Maths		
	E %	C %	C-e %	E %	C %	C-e %	E %	C %	C-e %
Form 1	49.9	33.4	16.7	6.3	73.2	20.5	1.6	72.3	26.1
	N=3	SD=45.3		N=11	SD=7.2		N=8	SD=2.0	
2	44.2	40.7	15.1	1.6	88.3	10.1	9.3	74.2	16.6
	N=5	SD=48.4		N=5	SD=1.4		N=12	SD=28.6	
3	28.6	52.4	19.0	1.8	71.1	27.1	23.2	57.4	19.4
	N=9	SD=32.5		N=8	SD=2.1		N=9	SD=42.5	
4	30.3	44.4	25.3	16.7	39.4	43.9	10.6	45.6	43.8
	N=9	SD=33.9		N=24	SD=32.9		N=12	SD=28.2	
5	42.1	24.9	33.0	0.2	61.2	38.6	5.0	48.0	47.0
	N=6	SD=46.9		N=26	SD=0.3		N=9	SD=4.9	
6 & 7	84.5	8.5	7.0	4.2	29.0	66.8	23.2	16.5	60.3
	N=7	SD=37.3		N=9	SD=5.8		N=6	SD=38.4	
Overall	45.1	34.7	20.2	9.2	52.9	37.9	11.5	54.7	33.8
	N=39	SD=41.9		N=61	SD=22.6		N=56	SD=28.0	

N = Numbers of cases
SD gives standard deviation in the % of English

Table 3

The % of C-e used in Arts subjects, Science and Mathematics in Forms 1 to 7 (1990 study)

Subject Area	Form Level						
	1	2	3	4	5	6 & 7	Overall
Arts	17%	15%	19%	25%	33%	7%	20%
Science	21%	10%	27%	44%	39%	67%	38%
Maths.	26%	17%	19%	44%	47%	60%	34%

Number of Lessons: 156

2.0 Policy Measures Adopted to Address the Medium of Instruction Issue

Until the 'Language Report', published in 1989, and Education Commission Report No. 4 which followed from it, the problem of English as the medium of instruction was not directly addressed. In all measures proposed and adopted, at secondary and tertiary levels, it was assumed that the solution to the problem lay through changing the medium to Chinese and/or improving the teaching of English as a subject.

2.1 Measures for Schools

Within the school system, the then, relatively new 'communicative' approach was adopted in the late 1970's and new syllabuses were produced for primary and secondary English programmes. As part of the 'languages package' announced by government in 1981, a new Centre for In-service primary and secondary English teacher-training was established (the Institute of Language in Education), listening laboratories were installed and special 'remedial' posts for additional English teachers were established in secondary schools.

In 1987, the government introduced the 'Expatriate English Teacher Scheme' whereby qualified native-speakers were recruited to teach English in secondary schools. The scheme was interpreted by local teachers as a vote of no confidence in them and was widely resented. The evaluation of the scheme showed no major differences between the proficiency gains of students taught by expatriate and local teachers except amongst the weakest students, where the expatriate teachers achieved clearly superior gains (British Council, 1989). In 1989 after trialling, an extensive reading scheme was introduced in twenty schools; and is being extended throughout the secondary system (Education Department, 1988).

The Education Commission, in Report No. 1, advocated the abolition of the problem rather than its solution, through a massive switch to Chinese medium instruction (80% Chinese 20% English by 1988). Schools were offered additional teachers and resources for English teaching and the dubious assurance that the standard of English would not decline as a result of the change in medium. However, there was no compulsion, and the proportion of Chinese medium schools did not change (Shek, Johnson & Law, forthcoming). In the business community concern about the standard of English continued to grow. In 1985 a consortium of major corporations joined together to form the Hong Kong Language Compaign to exert pressure on government, and to raise public awareness of the importance of English to the business community.

In the late 1980's, the situation with regard to the medium of instruction in schools is best described as chaotic, not only in the oral medium, but with English medium schools beginning to introduce Chinese medium texts for some subjects and with some students in the lower forms, often switching to English however, before the public examinations. Meanwhile, so-called Chinese-medium schools were consistently using English language textbooks in some subject areas, particularly Maths and Science and in the higher forms. In 1988, the Education Department abolished the formal distinction between Anglo-Chinese and Chinese Middle schools, referring simply to secondary schools. The Hong Kong Examinations Authority at the same time announced that it would not identify the medium on examination certificates, since it was impossible to say what the medium of instruction had actually been; a specious argument, since the medium of the examination itself clearly could be specified, but symptomatic of the situation that had developed in the schools and the lack of any principled basis for dealing with it.

Late in 1988 government, under pressure from the business community and the tertiary institutions, asked the Education Department to review its language policy and the manner in which it had been implemented. The Education Department established a 'Working Group to Review Language Improvement Measures'. The brief for this group was initially, as its title suggests, to show how active the Education Department had been throughout the 1980's in improving language teaching. To its credit the Group largely abandoned the exercise in self-justification that it had been given and identified the medium of instruction as a worsening problem which had been unaffected by the various measures to improve the teaching of English as a subject.

Education Commission Report No. 4 (the third report to tackle the language issue) broadly accepted the recommendations of the Language Report, which were as follows: One, a 'Bridge Programme' was to be introduced between primary and secondary levels for students moving from Chinese medium to English medium. Its purpose is to eliminate the gap between the proficiency of the students and the demands of the curriculum. Two, the mixing and switching mode of oral instruction was to be eliminated so that the full benefits of the English immersion programme could be achieved. Three, entry to the English medium 'stream' should be restricted to those 'able to benefit', which was assumed to be approximately 30% of the intake. The remaining 70% were advised to follow Chinese medium secondary education. A further 'Bridge Programme' was proposed for Chinese medium students before entry into English medium tertiary education, though no agreement has yet been reached (Sept. 1991) on the nature of the course, length, or resourcing, including who would do the teaching. This is the stage that the secondary education system has now reached, with a radical change required and proposed as policy, but with considerable doubt as to whether that change can be implemented effectively unless there is some measure of compulsion on school principals and unless there is a radical change in the attitudes and teaching style of secondary school teachers.

2.2 The Medium of Instruction in Teacher-training Institutions

There is a great deal of evidence that the most powerful influence on the way teachers teach is the way in which they were taught. Throughout the 1980's Hong Kong teachers entering the profession have themselves been taught through the mixed mode and see it as the accepted norm. Teacher-training Colleges and the Faculties of Education have made little attempt to change either the perception or the practice.* This can be justified by the argument that teacher-training, to be credible, must take account of and prepare teachers for the actual teaching and learning situation in schools rather than some ideal situation which may be desirable but does not exist. Less justifiably, a great deal of the teacher-training in the teacher-training institutions is conducted in the mixed mode and Cantonese, and at no time has any distinction been made either in the preparation or in the qualification awarded between the two media within the school system. Teachers are assumed to be qualified to teach through English or Chinese. Evidence that teachers find extreme difficulty in fact in doing either is ignored so far as methodology and theory components are concerned. One implication of ECR4 is therefore that teacher education needs urgently to be reviewed, and teacher education is the topic of the forthcoming ECR5. Whether the medium of instruction will feature in that report remains to be seen.

2.3 The Medium of Instruction in other Tertiary Institutions

With the exception of the Chinese University which claims to be 'bilingual', without defining what the term implies, tertiary institutions in Hong Kong claim to be English medium. Hong Kong University has taken the strongest stand on this issue, raising its entry requirement in English and pressing government, unsuccessfully, for an additional 'foundation year' in which language and study skills could be strengthened. At one extreme, e.g. in Vocational and Technical Institutes as in many secondary schools, the text books are in English but little else. At the other, even in Hong Kong University, group and laboratory work, some seminars and even lectures are conducted in Cantonese and mixed mode. Tertiary institutions are currently expanding rapidly, with the intention of almost doubling the numbers of places available in 1989 by 1995. It follows that as a result the average capacity of students to study through the medium of English will continue to decline over this period.

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* **Editors' notes**: This has been subsequently changed and work is underway. See CHAN, DRAVE & WONG in the Report and Summaries Section of this issue.

If the ECR4 policy is implemented and there is a major shift at secondary level to Chinese medium instruction, many Chinese medium students will have to switch from Chinese to English on entry to tertiary institutions. The problems these students, and the institutions receiving them, will face can hardly be exaggerated. The students will not be able to read the texts in their discipline areas, understand lectures or join in English language discussion. As a rather simplistic illustration, a series of bilingual English/Chinese glossaries is being prepared by the Education Department to assist secondary teachers to eliminate mixed code teaching from the Chinese medium stream. The glossary for Chemistry alone contains over 5,000 terms. Unlike the situation where related languages and writing systems are involved, as with English and French for example, none of the meanings of these terms are transparent or guessable. ECR4 proposes a secondary/tertiary Bridge Programme for these students, but no steps have been taken to implement this proposal so far (July, 1991). The implication of this failure is either that schools will not support the change to Chinese medium education, because students from that stream will have little chance of being accepted into tertiary education, or the viability of English as the medium of instruction at tertiary level will be increasingly threatened.

3.0 Alternative Policy Options

As I hope is clear from the above, the situation is complex, and many different arguments for solutions can be (and have been) put forward by people with different positions and interests. It is not my wish to argue for the superiority of one solution over another here; nevertheless it may help to clarify the rationale by which ECR4 policy was arrived at if alternative approaches are considered briefly.

First there is a strong argument that a move to Chinese medium at secondary and tertiary levels would solve the problem. The business community, many educators, and, significantly, almost all parents are against such a move. For the moment at least any educational institution which made this move would attract only the weakest students unable to gain places elsewhere, and the qualifications awarded would have a second class status. After 1997, when Hong Kong returns to Chinese sovereignty, such a move may indeed take place, though the oral medium would presumably be Putonghua and not Cantonese as at present, and the implication would be that Hong Kong would no longer be required to fulfil its present role as the major commercial, banking and service centre of South East Asia.

To fulfil that role, and to continue to interact with the developed world economically and educationally as it does at present, Hong Kong does not need 100% of students to be highly proficient in English. It does, and will need at least 20%–30%. That objective seems only to be achievable through an effective English immersion stream at secondary and tertiary levels.

Another view which is held by the vast majority of teachers and students at secondary level, and has some support also at tertiary, maintains that there is nothing wrong with the mixed mode of instruction that has emerged. It is seen as a Hong Kong solution to a Hong Kong problem. Teachers are able to transfer to students the knowledge, attitudes and skills of a demanding curriculum and the best Hong Kong students are amongst the best in the world, at least in the Maths and Science areas where the mixed code is most prevalent. The counter-argument is that, while the best students emerge with some credit on objective tests of content in the less language orientated subject areas, their language skills in both English and Chinese are deficient. The mixed code is the only medium in which they can operate effectively. For the weaker students, the present secondary system is an unmitigated disaster. Students cannot read effectively the English language texts they supposedly study and their Chinese language and literacy skills suffer through neglect.

To some extent the mixing and switching between Cantonese and English can be seen as a product of the unique circumstances in which Hong Kong has developed, and if Hong Kong were a self-contained and self-sufficient community, the mixed code could well become institutionalised, Creolised and standardised through the stages by which many other languages have developed. Hong Kong however will never be self-sufficient communicatively or independent from either the national language, Chinese, or the international language, English. Mixing and switching has a place within the sociolinguistic framework of Hong Kong, but for those who are restricted to that code, their role in society will inevitably be essentially, and literally, provincial.

In ECR4, the Hong Kong government explicitly rejects these alternatives to an English immersion stream.

4.0 Implementing ECR4

While the policy advocated in ECR4 is arguably correct, implementing it will be extremely difficult. The success of the Bridge Programme will not be determined by the gains in English proficiency that students make, it will be judged by the extent to which students are able to continue to study through English once the Bridge Programme is over and teaching and learning in the normal secondary curriculum has begun. In order to achieve this, subject area teachers across the curriculum will need to change radically their style of teaching and their attitudes to education. They will not become language

959

teachers as such, but they must become aware of language and plan in ways that take account of second language constraints as they have never done before. The remainder of this paper examines some of the major changes that will be required in thinking about and planning the curriculum and in performing in the classroom.

4.1 Rate of Progress

It is not possible to advance as rapidly through the curriculum in a second language as a first language, particularly in the early stages. It has been estimated that students in the French immersion programmes in Canada achieve academic parity with native speakers, at the earliest, after five years. School principals or teachers who insist on following the current secondary curriculum exactly (e.g. completing the first year of the current year one curriculum on time) will inevitably have to revert to mixing and switching in order to do so; first for the reason just given and second because the Bridge Programme itself will occupy the first three months of the year.

4.2 Planning the L2 Curriculum

In the past, teachers of Mathematics, Science, History, Geography etc. have seen their task as transferring to students the knowledge, attitudes and skills which constitute their disciplines. If explanations could be given more easily in Cantonese, they were; if students' discussions were inhibited by the need to use English, they were allowed, even encouraged to use Chinese; if students were unable to formulate extended answers in English, then questions in class and in examinations were restricted to the types of answers that could be given. If ECR4 is to be implemented effectively, teachers in the English medium stream will need to teach students to give extended answers and to give them the linguistic support they need in order to be able to do so. Teachers will also need to develop their own English language skills so that they are able to provide explanations and illustrations in English which are clear and attuned to the level of English proficiency of the students being taught.

Beyond these general considerations, in planning the L2 curriculum, the teacher needs to consider three major aspects of language: input to the student from the teacher and from text, output by the student and interaction between teacher and student and between student and text.

4.2.1 Input from the teacher

In society, individuals modify their language use when communicating with learners: e.g. mothers and other 'caretakers' when talking to children, people communicating with foreigners, and, not surprisingly effective teachers in L2 classrooms. Few Hong Kong teachers, however, have thought consciously about such features of 'teacher-talk' as rate of delivery, clear pronunciation, restricted vocabulary and structure, choice of concrete rather than abstract terms, and the use of a wide range of realia, demonstration and exemplification to make meanings clear.

Input from texts must also be controlled, and here both text book writers and teachers have been at fault. Text book writers have either failed to adapt the level of language at all (e.g. most History texts, and Biology texts above Form 4) or they have virtually eliminated language from their materials, relying on diagrams and charts and short, simple, sentences which inhibit the presentation of ideas more complex than a statement of fact. (Some Integrated Science texts illustrate this tendency particularly clearly.) Similarly, the approach of teachers has often been unhelpful. Our task as teachers is to help students to become autonomous: able to learn through their own efforts and resouces; but, rather that helping students to develop their reading skills, teachers typically explain a text either in advance or taking the students through it, eliminating the need and the opportunity for students to develop reading strategies for themselves. Facilitating the development of reading skills is discussed further below (4.2.5).

4.2.2 Output from the Students

Again, the present tendency of teachers is to limit student output. Strategies adopted include asking 'either/or' or 'Yes/No' questions, or framing questions in such a way that only a word or phrase has to be supplied by the students. Little or no extended writing is required of students, and when it is, it is an exercise in frustration for teachers and learners alike: the teachers set a task far beyond the students' linguistic capability, the students make a mess of it and the time, effort and red ink expended in marking is of no satisfaction (or use) to either. There are a range of techniques that can be used to support spoken and written output. Speaking and writing tasks can then become a source of satisfaction and can build the learners' confidence rather than destroying it. Such techniques, however, are not as commonly used as they should be by English language teachers, and are rarely if ever used by content area teachers.

Output is not advocated for its own sake. There is now a great deal of support for the view that language acquisition depends as much upon opportunities for active use of the target language as it does upon exposure to the language.

4.2.3 Interaction between Teacher and Learner

Interaction is the best way of ensuring that input is comprehensible as well as providing opportunities, if usually limited, for student output. Again, a great deal of work has been done on interaction between proficient and non or less proficient language users, and we know a great deal about 'repair strategies', techniques that both proficient and less proficient speakers use when communication breaks down. At present almost the only strategy used

952

by content area teachers, and even by some English teachers, is to switch to the mother tongue.

4.2.4 Interaction between Learner and Learner

This is a controversial area, a surprising statement perhaps to those who believe pair and group work are necessarily beneficial. In fact the findings of research in this area are inconclusive and the argument is persuasive that students should not be forced into situations where they must make errors and communicate ineffectively or are forced to switch into their mother tongue. In Hong Kong classrooms teachers use more and more pair and group work, but very little of that work typically involves English. The argument against group work however, as against student output, is essentially an argument against conducting it badly. Given large classes, if students are to engage in interactive oral communication this must be achieved amongst themselves. The problem is to ensure that the interactive activities are well-planned and structured and that the language support is adequate. This problem has evidently not been solved in Hong Kong classrooms as yet.

4.2.5 Interaction between Learners and Texts

As stated above, students have far too little opportunity to develop strategies for interacting with texts. The texts tend to be too difficult, or the teacher, rather than helping students to develop reading skills, does the work for them. A wide range of activities have been developed in recent years which give students insights into the discourse structure, content structure and rhetorical functions of texts and which develop students reading skills and strategies. Content area teachers need to become aware of these approaches and to become skilled facilitors of the development of reading skills of all kinds from code-breaking and dictionary use, to prediction (with all that this assumes about knowledge of texts) and interpretation (with all that this assumes about knowledge of writers' intentions in different kinds of texts), identifying main points, establishing causal connections etc. Interactive work with texts of this kind can also be very effective in stimulating and improving the written output of students, but only if the learners are given the opportunity to use their growing understanding in text production. Though the development of reading skills inevitably precedes that of writing skills the two are complementary and should be seen and developed as such.

Each discipline has its own communicative requirements, expectations and conventions. Most students acquire, or fail to acquire these skills through trial and error, a method which in a second language content subject area ensures that success is limited to above average or exceptional students. English teachers are of little use here. They are not expert in the disciplines concerned. So far, the content area teachers have also been of

953

little use since they have lacked the knowledge about texts that would make successful intervention possible.

5.0 Content Area Language in Action in the Classroom

As an illustration of the complexity of the problem let us take Mathematics, the subject usually considered to be least dependent on language and therefore the subject in which Hong Kong students tend to perform best (Brimer, 1985). The difficulty of the sentence structures associated with certain kinds of Mathematical problem has often been noted (e.g. If X and Y when Z and P and Q when R, what . . . etc.). However, these may often be seen more as problems in formal logic than natural language – the reason no doubt why students who can hardly put together a simple sentence in English can nevertheless answer questions of that type. I will use 'division' to illustrate the natural language problems which exist and which would be likely to confront a student entering Form I.

The sum $10 \div 5 = 2$, so simple when expressed numerically, can be expressed in at least the following ways:

(I) Ten divided by five equals two
(II) Ten divided by five is two
(III) Five divided into ten . . .
(IV) Five into ten . . .
(V) One fifth of ten . . .
(VI) Ten over five . . .

The passive/active distinction allows the second number to be used first, as in (III) & (IV) and the wealth of prepositions being used (by, into, of, over) is a notoriously difficult problem area for Chinese (and other) students of English as a second language.

Once terms like 'quotient' are introduced, the possibilities for further syntactic complexity are greatly increased:

(VII) The quotient of . . . is . . .
(VIII) Two is the quotient of . . . etc.

There are several points to be made here. At present, as I have shown teachers eliminate the problem by using Cantonese. They can also eliminate the language problem by working visually with the numbers ($10 \div 5 = 2$). The language then becomes irrelevant as the nature of the task is 'language free'. The potential value of the subject for language development is lost either way. A more positive approach would be to limit the English language expressions to be used initially and to ensure that these are mastered, gradually extending the range of structures used over time. The 'core' structures of English would be consolidated in the Maths lesson, and the language of Mathematics could be carried over into other subjects (Physics, Economics etc.) and recycled.

Techniques which would achieve this objective are obvious enough, e.g. mental arithmetic, dictation of a sum by the teacher, or by a student; one student can be asked to describe the numerical functions being performed by another student on the blackboard; students could work in pairs discussing problems and the means to their solution. Thinking aloud and interacting with others are known to assist learning in any discipline. Doing so in English will also assist the development of the language, but this will not happen unless teachers are aware of the problems and are willing to plan and experiment to overcome them.

6.0 Summary and Conclusion

If the policy in ECR4 is to be implemented effectively, there are major problems to be overcome and opportunities to be exploited. At present, as the data presented above demonstrate, the problems are overwhelming the opportunities as Cantonese and Mixed Code teaching take over from English. ECR4 requires that English medium education should be precisely that; so that the well-established benefits of additive bilingualism can be achieved. This means that the avoidance strategies of the past need to be discarded and the opportunities offered by an L2 medium need to be exploited to the full. The Bridge Programmes which will be available from September 1993 will assist schools considerably because they will narrow the gap between the students' proficiency on entry to Form I and the level required of them to study effectively. If properly implemented, the Bridge Programmes should facilitate a very rapid development in the students' language proficiency so that the consistent use of English as the medium of instruction can be maintained and strengthened throughout the secondary curriculum and at all levels. This will require very positive attitudes from students and teachers, a very different approach to the processes of teaching and learning in the classroom and a far greater commitment to English than has been shown in the past.

None of these changes will be easy to achieve, but without them it is doubtful whether maintaining a so-called English medium stream in secondary schools can be justified; and in the longer term, whether English medium tertiary education could remain viable. These are critical issues indeed for education and for the future of Hong Kong.

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A SURVEY OF LOCAL ENGLISH TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD ENGLISH AND ELT

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Introduction

The question of which language to use as the dominant teaching medium in Hong Kong's schools is, as anyone on the local scene knows, an extra-ordinarily complex one resulting in extremely intense debates on the subject. Nowhere has this been more evident than in the constant flow of remarks on the recently released Education Commission Report No. 4 (ECR 4). This has been particularly true with respect to its recommendations in the 'Language in Education' section (Chapter 6). The following paper is not intended as a critique of ECR 4, but the research it reports on and the recommendations it makes will be particularly relevant if seen within the context of ECR 4. Furthermore, our remarks will be even more pertinent to the concerns of a document which does not yet exist: Education Commission Report No. 5, which will investigate various issues regarding teachers and teacher education.

Before going on to discuss the objectives of this paper, we would like to draw attention to a few key language-related recommendations contained in ECR 4. These, quoted verbatim from the report, are to 'encourage Chinese-medium instruction, to minimise mixed-code teaching and to give schools the choice as to which medium of instruction they use' (1990:103).

In this paper we would like to report and to discuss data relevant to these proposals, as well as to other ELT-related concerns. The data are the results of a survey of 246 Hong Kong primary and secondary school teachers conducted in the spring and summer of 1990. It is our belief that the results of this research offer some useful insight into the feasibility and advisability of the ECR 4 recommendations just cited, and into the whole issue of English language and English medium teaching in Hong Kong.

In order to put the results of our research into a fuller context, we would like to say a few words about the concerns motivating and underlying our research. These are embodied in a few key elements in the abstract accompanying this paper.

First, we indicated that we are aiming at providing what we called 'meaningful feedback' in our paper. A few words about that phrase are in order.

Hong Kong has approximately 40 000 primary and secondary school teachers. Of these, not *one* is permitted to serve on either of Hong Kong's most powerful educational bodies: the afore-mentioned Education Commission and the Board of Education. Meanwhile, a third vital body, the Education Department, is a Government organ designed to oversee, rather than to be comprised of, teachers.

In other words, practising teachers are offered no significant opportunity to supply their insights from the field into the decision making processes, or to the decision making bodies, which govern educational policy. Their absence from these influential organisations denies them any kind of institutional authority, and this in turn implies that their views lack any credence compared to that of the serving members of these bodies.

To be fair, teachers, like any other members of the community at large, are asked to submit their responses to white papers and the like, and they have equal access to the letters to the editor columns of newspapers and to radio and/or television chat shows. But feedback reflecting more than isolated individuals' opinions is not widely sought and is therefore not available when important educationally-based decisions are made. And teachers themselves are keenly aware of the way in which they have been excluded from the corridors of power. Indeed, in our research we discovered that 72% of our respondents agreed with the following statement: 'The decision-makers in Hong Kong's educational system do not take into account the feelings of teachers when making language policy decisions'. Only 4% of our respondents disagreed with this statement.

ECR 4, for all its good intentions, is a case in point. In addition to the fact that no practising teachers are listed among the Commission's members, no mention is made throughout the report of the feelings of teachers on the subjects the report concerns. Nor is there evidence of any significant effort to systematically collect or solicit the thoughts and feelings of teachers. It is interesting to note, for example, that in Annex 1B, which lists the participants during five panel discussions, only 3 of 21 speakers were teachers below the tertiary level. And while it is true that eight school visits were made in 1989, nowhere in the report is there evidence that input from these visits figured in the recommendations made in ECR 4. This despite the fact that ECR 4 concerns itself with curricular issues (as well as behavioural problems among students), issues that affect and involve teachers as much as anyone in education.

It should be pointed out, in fairness, that individuals connected with the Education Commission did make an effort, on an informal basis, to talk with teachers about the issues the Commission was investigating. Still, teachers had no official role in the construction of the report.

Another recent situation is also worth noting in this context. On December 11, 1990, the Hong Kong Language Campaign sponsored and conducted a symposium on ECR 4. The speakers included a school headmistress, a university academic and a university administrator, a former school head, and a member of the business community. In short, no school teachers were invited to speak, even though it is the teachers who will have to implement, and live with, ECR 4's recommendations.

Our purpose here is not to pillory the well-intentioned people connected with ECR 4 or the Hong Kong Language Campaign. Rather, we wish to point out that the exclusion of teachers from any role in the situations just mentioned is symptomatic of a general reluctance, or perhaps refusal, on the part of the educational establishment to look to teachers for advice or feedback in any collective sense. Given this situation, we feel it is necessary to seek and to provide opportunities for representative samples of teachers' opinions and ideas to be heard as well as discussed. Hence the 'feedback' part of our abstract. And we used the term 'meaningful' because what we will be reporting in this paper is, as indicated earlier, more than just the thoughts of a lone individual here or there; as such, we can attach some meaning to the results we will share and discuss.

Second, we also used the term 'front lines' in our abstract. Here we did not mean local or overseas experts who do not teach, or perhaps have never taught, in a Hong Kong secondary or primary school, or who have no real contact with people who *do* teach in the 'real', everyday world of schools. 'Front lines' refers to the many thousands of teachers facing an all-too familiar, and horrifying, scenario: teaching more than 30 periods per week or cycle; teaching in the neighbourhood of 40 students per class; marking endless piles of exercise books, tests, and compositions; coping with increasingly difficult, and dangerous, disciplinary problems; supervising various inner-school and extracurricular activities; attending meetings; talking with parents; preparing lessons and test questions; and so on. These are the people on the 'front lines', i.e. the people who will now be asked to carry the burden of the policies encouraged by ECR 4 despite the fact that they have had no hand in formulating them. And these are the people we feel should most be heard when educational matters are discussed and policies are set in place.

In war, it is often said, it is necessary to 'know your enemy'. It stands to reason that in education those in decision-making roles should 'know their teachers'. This means two things. First, it means knowing what their teachers, their front-line troops, as it were, think, especially about particularly contentious and important issues such as mixed code teaching. Second, it means knowing about the particular abilities and weakness of their teachers. Sadly, both types of knowledge seem to be lacking on the local scene.

The research we are going to report on in this paper will, we believe, provide some of this knowledge. In the process, we think, it will shed some supplementary light on a few of the key areas discussed in ECR 4 and, we hope, to be investigated in ECR 5. At the same time, it will help fill a rather vexing vacuum in our knowledge of Hong Kong's school teachers. What do they think about the English language and their ability to use it? What do they think about mixed code teaching? For which subjects do they think English should be used as the teaching medium? How do they rate their confidence in the teaching of various language skills? These are some of the questions which we feel need to be answered if a complete, meaningful discussion of language teaching in Hong Kong is to occur. We feel that our paper will provide some insight into those crucial questions, as well as others which we will raise in the course of this paper.

The format for our paper is as follows. First, we will review data which offer some insight into how teachers feel about English, about English

959

language teaching, and about their ability to teach the language. Here our primary purpose will be to simply give teachers a chance to say what they think about such subjects. Second, we will share and discuss data which tie in more directly to the concerns raised and explored in ECR 4 and, again, which should figure in ECR 5. As we discuss this data we will make some recommendations pertaining to the ideas outlined in ECR 4, and to language teaching in general.

Before looking at any of our data, we would like to state clearly the underlying thesis of our paper, which is that it is time teachers become involved in the creation of policies which directly affect their working lives. For too long now they have been denied a significant voice in policy making; for too long now they have been denied a place at the table where decisions are made. In our opinion, it is teachers' feedback which is the most essential, the most meaningful, and the most informed on school-related matters, given their active, hands-on presence in the day-to-day life of school teaching in Hong Kong. Our paper is an attempt to provide some of that feedback.

Data Collection Process

Our research was conducted via an 8 page 63 item questionnaire distributed to three separate groups of respondents. The breakdown is as follows:

36 respondents from an English teaching discussion held at the Professional Teachers' Union in the spring of 1990.

127 respondents from the membership of the Secondary School English Teachers' Association (SSETA); all SSETA members were sent a copy of the questionnaire in the summer of 1990.

83 respondents from a refresher course at the Institute of Language in Education (ILE); the questionnaire was distributed to them in the fall of 1990.

After compiling the total number of responses to each question, the researchers examined the responses via chi-square analysis. For the purposes of this paper, cross-tabulations were made on the basis of the respondents' age, educational background, and self-perception of their ability in English relative to their colleagues' proficiency. However, given the time constraints in which the data must be presented, the results will be reported on the basis of frequency counts except where noteworthy statistically significant differences occurred.

Profile of the Respondents

The following tables provide a brief view of the survey respondents, with the numbers listed representing frequency counts.

Age

19–28 years old	50
29–40 years old	141
41–60 years old	52

Sex

Male=36 Female=205

Teaching Posts held

C.M.=120 A.M.=16
G.M.=76 S.G.M.=27

Levels

Primary=102 Secondary=141

Range of Teaching Experience

1 to 27 years

Academic Qualifications

University Degree holders:	106
Diploma holders:	62
Matriculants:	38
HKCEE:	37

Collectively, these numbers are satisfying because they demonstrate that the respondents are distributed within the generally recognized groupings of teachers in Hong Kong in each of the profile categories.

Results of General Interest

In this section of the paper we would like to briefly report results which offer insight into the respondents' feelings about their ability in English and their ability to teach the language. We will begin by looking at the responses to the following pair of questions:

Table 1A

What are your feelings about using English . . .

	Comfortable	Uncomfortable
with foreigners	53.6% (123)	5.8% (14)
with other Chinese	20.5% (50)	28.0% (68)

We found these results interesting in several respects. First there is the fact that so many teachers feel comfortable using English with foreigners (53.6%), while only a handful (5.8%) reported feeling uncomfortable. We found this breakdown reassuring and encouraging. The somewhat substantial change in the teachers' feelings concerning the use of English with other Chinese is also worth noting, both for the significantly lower percentage of teachers who feel comfortable under such circumstances (only 20.5%) and the higher percentage who feel uncomfortable (28.0%). This latter set of responses is worth future exploration in terms of its implications regarding Chinese teachers teaching English to Chinese students.

Moving on now to the respondents' self-perception of their ability in English in the four skills areas, we would like to point out several interesting results. First, the breakdown of the respondents' rating of their English language skills:

Table 1B

Self-perception of English Ability

	READING	WRITING	LISTENING	SPEAKING
Very good	13.2% (32)	3.3% (8)	9.9% (24)	5.0% (12)
Good	39.5% (96)	22.3% (54)	33.1% (80)	30.4% (73)
Acceptable	37.9% (92)	57.9% (140)	43.8% (106)	51.7% (124)
Poor	8.2% (20)	14.5% (35)	6.2% (15)	10.8% (26)
Very poor	1.2% (3)	1.7% (4)	2.1% (5)	1.7% (4)

In terms of the teachers' overall ranking of their English language profiency, we note the following results after combining 'good' and 'very good' responses: reading was ranked first, listening second, speaking third, and writing fourth. We find two points especially interesting here. First is the fact that the receptive skills are ranked ahead of the productive skills. Second is the fact that the teachers rank their ability to write in English as low as they do. This response seems to fly in the face of conventional wisdom, which maintains teachers have far more confidence in their writing ability than in their speaking ability.

It is also worth noting that, when 'poor' and 'very poor' are grouped, rather small numbers of teachers included themselves in these categories in any of the skills areas. Also, teachers saw themselves as slightly weaker in the productive skills than in the receptive skills, a response consistent with the results cited earlier.

We would also like to point out the large numbers of teachers who saw themselves as having an acceptable level of ability in all four skills.

The respondents were also asked to rate their ability to teach the four language skills, and here, again, we see some interesting results.

Table 1C

Q50. If you teach English, how do you rank your overall ability to teach the following skills?
(1 represents "strongest" and 4 represents "weakest")

	READING	WRITING	LISTENING	SPEAKING
1 = strongest	39.3% (92)	19.2% (45)	23.9% (56)	26.9% (63)
2	24.4% (57)	26.1% (61)	29.5% (69)	23.5% (55)
3	26.5% (62)	19.7% (46)	23.1% (54)	25.2% (59)
4 = weakest	9.8% (23)	35.0% (82)	23.5% (55)	24.4% (57)

When '1' and '2' responses are combined, we see, once again, that teachers feel more confident with respect to receptive skills, i.e. their ability to teach reading and listening skills, though their confidence in teaching the productive skills is not significantly lower. It is important to note, however, their continued lack of confidence concerning writing, particularly the fact that just over a third of the teachers gave the teaching of this skill the lowest ranking, '4'. This is not surprising in view of their rankings in table 1B, but it is still worth bearing in mind.

An interesting follow-up to Table 1C occurs in Table 1D.

Table 1D

What is your perception of the relative usefulness of the following components of English language learning/teaching?

Teachers' ranking		**Students' ranking**	
1.	reading comprehension	1.	oral activities
2.	listening comprehension	2.	listening activities
3.	compositions	3.	grammar
4.	grammar	4.	pronunciation
5.	pronunciation	5.	class readers
6.	readers	6.	reading comprehension/ vocabulary

(Law, 1989)

We note here, again, the teachers' preference for receptive skills. The high ranking (third) for composition is interesting in light of the teachers' doubts about their own ability to write in English and to teach writing skills. The high ranking for grammar is also noteworthy given the local emphasis on the communicative approach to language teaching. (It should be noted, incidentally, that the teachers were asked to rank the importance of a total of 13 different components in language teaching; for convenience' sake, we have reported only the six highest ranking items.)

By way of interesting comparison, we have included results of a survey of student preferences conducted by Law (1989). What makes this comparison important is the students' belief in the importance of learning oral skills above all others, in sharp contrast to the teachers' views. The complete reversal in the ranking of reading skills is also important to look at, with students ranking this area sixth and teachers, as stated earlier, ranking it first.

We would now like to look at another section of the questionnaire and the more relevant and important findings which emerged from this area of the research. In this final section of the questionnaire, the teachers were asked to respond to a set of statements concerning language teaching within the Likert Scale format. That is, they were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement with each statement, with three different levels of agreement and of disagreement available for selection. The statements they were asked to respond to, together with percentages indicating, on the left, strong to very strong agreement, and to the right, strong to very disagreement, are included in Table 1E below.

Table 1E

37 vs 25 53. The communicative approach to language teaching is less effective than the grammatical/structural approach used in the past.
37 vs 12 54. Computers are a useful tool in language teaching.
40 vs 24 55. "Streaming" students into either English medium or Chinese medium secondary schools after P. 6 will improve their language skills more than does the present system.
72 vs 4 56. The decision-makers in Hong Kong's educational system do not take into account the feelings of teachers when making language policy decisions.
57 vs 10 57. Students' English standard would be improved through the study of literature written in English (i.e. short stories, poetry, drama, novels).
47 vs 13 58. Hong Kong students nowadays have less interest in learning English than did students in the past.
47 vs 12 59. The P. 6 "streaming" proposal will create a small, 'elite' group of English speaking students rather than benefitting the majority of Hong Kong students.
81 vs 4 60. The English standard of Hong Kong students has declined in recent years.
76 vs 3 61. The Chinese standard of Hong Kong students has declined in recent years.
71 vs 1 62. Students' English standard would be improved through the use of an 'extensive reading' scheme.
31 vs 19 63. Literature is not an effective language teaching tool.

The first statement we would like to draw attention to is no. 56. The responses to this statement were mentioned earlier, but are worth a second glance. Clearly, teachers feel very strongly that they have been excluded from the decision making process currently at hand on the local educational scene.

Statement no. 57 also elicited a markedly strong favourable response, with 57% of the respondents supporting a role for literature in language teaching and only 10% opposing that idea.

Statements no. 60 and 61, individually and collectively, deserve a few remarks. In each case the percentage of teachers supporting the statement was extremely high, while only a miniscule percentage disagreed with each statement. The fact that teachers feel as strongly as they do about the decline in the standard of both languages is particularly interesting, especially during a period when many local educationists maintain that the English and/or Chinese standards have not fallen at all.

Finally, the very strong support of extensive reading, together with virtually no opposition to such a scheme, is both interesting and, from our point of view, highly encouraging.

Respondents' Attitudes Towards Mixed Code Usage and Teaching

This area of our research is particularly relevant to the concerns underlying ECR 4 with respect to the crucial and controversial question of medium of instruction. The advisability of mixed code teaching has been an especially contentious issue. ECR 4 has taken a strong stance against mixed code teaching, and the following survey results are therefore of particular use in judging the wisdom of ECR 4's opposition to mixed code teaching.

As a backdrop to a series of questions regarding teachers' feelings about mixed code instruction, we asked a pair of questions exploring teachers' personal use of a mixture of English and Cantonese and their accompanying feelings about the general practise of mixed code language use. Table 2A examines their own use of a mixed code while speaking in Cantonese:

Table 2A

What is the extent of your personal use of English when speaking Cantonese with other Chinese?

Always	1.7% (4)
Often	6.2% (15)
Fairly often	19.4% (47)
Sometimes	66.5% (161)
Never	6.2% (15)

As the teachers' responses clearly indicate, mixed code communication is a common occurrence. Table 2B reflects teachers' feelings about such communication:

Table 2B

What are your feelings about *mixed use* of Cantonese and English among Cantonese speakers?

Very acceptable	10.3% (25)	59.7
Acceptable	49.4% (120)	
Unacceptable	25.5% (62)	38.3
Very unacceptable	12.8% (31)	
Neutral	1.6% (4)	

These figures are interesting for a couple of reasons. First there is the fact that a sizable majority of respondents, about 60%, are favourably inclined toward mixed code communication. While this may not be surprising in light of the fact that nearly all the teachers use the mixed code to some degree, it is nevertheless worth noting their relatively strong approval of the practice. Second, a relatively large number of respondents disapprove of mixed code conversation despite engaging in it. Thus we see that the respondents have strong feelings on the subject; indeed, less than 2% had no feelings about mixed code discourse. That teachers are polarized on the issue is a point worth bearing in mind in future discussions of the mixed code.

We will now look at how teachers feel about mixed code teaching, first in a general sense, then with respect to specific subjects. In each case the respondents were asked to comment on mixed code teaching at both lower (Forms 1–3) and upper (Forms 4–5) secondary school level.

Table 2C below reflects teachers' feelings about mixed code teaching at lower secondary school level.

Table 2C

What, in general, is your attitude toward *mixed code teaching* at the *lower secondary level*?

Strongly favour	7.8% (19)
Favour	33.7% (82)
Slightly favour	35.8% (87)
Slightly oppose	10.7% (26)
Oppose	7.8% (19)
Strongly oppose	3.7% (9)

Here we see a decidedly positive attitude toward mixed code teaching, with about 3/4 of the respondents indicating some degree of acceptance of the practice, and with just over 40% registering a favourable to strongly favourable attitude. It is also worth noting that just 11½% are particularly opposed to the idea. All of these figures are interesting in comparison with those in Table 2D below.

Table 2D

What, in general, is your attitude toward *mixed code teaching* at *upper secondary level*?

Strongly favour	1.2% (3)
Favour	13.6% (33)
Slightly favour	24.3% (59)
Slightly oppose	24.3% (59)
Oppose	23.5% (57)
Strongly oppose	12.3% (30)

These figures show, of course, that significantly fewer teachers favour mixed code teaching, in general, at the upper secondary level, with just under 40% reacting favourably. At the same time, far more teachers signalled some degree of disapproval of mixed code teaching, with fairly considerable increases in all three categories of opposition.

With these figures in mind, let's look at how the teachers feel about mixed code teaching on a subject basis, first at the lower secondary level in Table 2E:

Table 2E

For which subjects do you think it is acceptable to use a *mixture* of Cantonese and English as the teaching medium in *lower forms*?

Subject	*Acceptable*	*Not acceptable*
English	18.6% (45)	81.4% (197)
History (foreign)	55.8% (135)	44.2% (107)
Geography	63.2% (153)	36.8% (89)
Maths	69.0% (167)	31.0% (75)
Science	68.2% (165)	31.8% (77)
Social Studies	67.4% (163)	32.6% (79)
EPA	66.5% (161)	33.5% (81)
None	13.6% (33)	86.4% (209)

We can see here that, with the strong exception of English and the slight exception of History, the teachers favoured mixed code teaching by about a 2–1 margin, a figure in line with the results indicated in table 2C.

Looking now at the teachers' feelings about the teaching of various subjects at upper secondary school level, we find that the 2-1 margin favouring the mixed code has shifted somewhat, as reflected in table 2F:

Table 2F

For which subjects do you think it is acceptable to use a *mixture* of Cantonese and English as the teaching medium in *upper forms*?

Subject	*Acceptable*	*Not acceptable*
English	8.3% (20)	91.7% (221)
History (foreign)	23.8% (57)	76.3% (106)
Geography	34.6% (83)	65.4% (157)
Maths	49.2% (118)	50.8% (122)
Biology	47.5% (114)	52.5% (126)
Chemistry	45.8% (110)	54.2% (130)
Physics	49.2% (118)	50.8% (122)
Commercial studies	34.6% (83)	65.9% (157)
Computer studies	35.8% (86)	64.2% (154)
None	28.8% (69)	71.3% (171)

The first thing to note here is the even stronger opposition to mixed code teaching of English, with about 92% of the respondents opposing the idea. The 76.3% of opposition to mixed code teaching of History (foreign) is also interesting to note. Meanwhile, we see about a 50-50 split in four conceptually-dominated subjects: Maths, Biology, Chemistry, and Physics, while the remaining subjects show a reversed 2-1 margin, with teachers this time shifting against the mixed code.

Bearing these and some of the earlier results in mind, we would now like to offer some reflections on our results and make recommendations arising from them.

Recommendations

Before offering specific recommendations deriving from our research results, we would like to briefly sketch an illustration of our respondents who, on the basis of the general profile data described earlier, seem to represent an accurate sampling of teachers in Hong Kong.

We have found that the teachers feel, on the whole, that they have achieved at least an acceptable standard of English, and that they largely feel comfortable in using the language with foreigners, while having some reservations about communication in English with other Chinese. Furthermore, they feel more positively inclined, as both users and teachers of English, with the receptive than the productive skills. They also, with few exceptions, tend to use at least some English while conversing in Cantonese, though a fair number do not approve of that practice. As for the use of the mixed code in teaching, they favour it at lower secondary level and are selectively opposed to, or in favour of, the idea at upper secondary level depending on the subject taught.

While many conclusions can be drawn from these and other results of our research, we feel the following points are especially important with regards to teaching.

1. The seemingly common perception in Hong Kong that local teachers feel insecure about their English does not hold true, though their hesitation about use of the language with other Chinese must be noted. The significance of this to us is that it contradicts a standard belief in Hong Kong, i.e. that local teachers need exposure to expatriates in order to improve their English and build their confidence in using it. Given that the only strong insecurity about using English is in the context of communication with other Chinese, the real need is to find ways for local teachers to more effectively interact in English with their local compatriots. Further exposure to expatriates will not achieve this goal. And given that the teachers are teaching Chinese students, it is especially important that they overcome their fears or doubts about using English with other local people. We would therefore like to see an emphasis in teacher training courses on building teachers' confidence in the use of English with other Chinese.

968

2. The vast majority of teachers we surveyed, like the largest group in Hong Kong's schools, fell within the age range of 29–40. Most of these respondents did not have a university education, and it was these teachers who generally expressed some doubts about their use of English, either in general or in teaching. We view these findings within a larger context, that of the Government's recent call for a significant increase in the number of people who can study at tertiary level. Our strong feeling is that a set number of these future places be reserved for teachers falling within the crucial 29–40 age group. The acquisition of a tertiary qualification would increase, in general, their personal and professional self-esteem and self-confidence (other data we compiled showed that university graduates possess signficantly more confidence in themselves than do other, non-graduate teachers). At the same time, study at this level would, given an effectively designed and managed English language component, enable these teachers to further develop their language ability and their feelings about the language. It is our belief that setting aside a suitable number of tertiary level places for teachers in this age range is crucial to the future of English language teaching in Hong Kong.
3. On the subject of mixed code teaching, our findings suggest a few important points. First, the view of mixed code teaching in ECR 4 is a monolithic one which broadly dismisses the idea of mixed code teaching. This is at least partly because it does not, apparently, take into account teachers' feelings about mixed code teaching. Second, and following from our first point, there is a need for flexibility in attitudes toward, and use of, mixed code teaching. As our results clearly indicate, teachers are very selective in their feelings about mixed code teaching, with their attitudes varying according to the forms being taught as well as the subject(s) being taught. This suggests to us that it is counterproductive to dictate an outright and total rejection of mixed code teaching. What we propose, instead, is a more flexible view which distinguishes between 'good' and 'bad' mixed code teaching. That is, in certain forms and in the teaching of certain subjects, mixed code teaching might be the most effective means of instruction, hence making it 'good'. In other forms and with respect to some subjects, such as English and History, the mixed code approach should be avoided, thus making it 'bad'. It seems to us that this kind of distinction between 'good' and 'bad' mixed code teaching would leave schools and teachers considerable room to make intelligent decisions on when to use, and when to avoid, mixed code instruction, rather than adopting the highly restrictive approach outlined in ECR 4.

969

Conclusion

Some of the data produced in our research will come as a surprise, and some will not. Taken collectively, the data suggest to us that what teachers feel about their use of English and their teaching of the language goes to some degree against the grain of thought which prevails among many of Hong Kong's educationists. The ultimate importance of this difference between what teachers feel and what other educationists assume they feel is tied to the main point made in the introduction to this paper: that it is both unjust and impractical to exclude teachers from the decision-making process. This point is best illustrated with respect to ECR 4. Had an effort been made to systematically collect teachers' attitudes about, say, mixed code teaching, the Commission might well have made significantly different recommendations on the question of mixed Code teaching. Because teachers were not consulted in a systematic way, and because they were not permitted to help form the Commission's recommendations, faulty guidelines which are virtually certain to become policies have been put forth. The relatively simple and highly logical approach of including, in an authoritative sense, teachers in the decision-making process would have led to recommendations which would more accurately reflect teachers' strengths as well as insights into the realities of language teaching in Hong Kong's schools.

While some of our data are in line with what educationists apparently assume about local school teachers, enough are not to reinforce our thesis: that sound, effective educational planning, as well as education itself, cannot take place until those who must implement, on a daily, indeed an hourly, basis, are included in the formation of educational policies. In short, school teachers must be given a significant role in influential bodies such as the Education Commission and the Board of Education. Until and unless that time comes, Hong Kong's teachers will be forced to implement policies and approaches which, lacking their input, will fail to produce the desired results because of the uninformed conditions under which they were generated.

TOWARDS REFLECTIVE TEACHING

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Most teachers develop their classroom skills fairly early in their teaching careers. Teachers entering the profession may find their initial teaching efforts stressful, but with experience they acquire a repertoire of teaching strategies which they draw on throughout their teaching. The particular configuration of strategies a teacher uses constitute his or her 'teaching style'. While a teacher's style of teaching provides a means of coping with many of the routine demands of teaching, there is also a danger that it can hinder a teacher's professional growth. How can teachers move beyond the level of automatic or routinized responses to classroom situations and achieve a higher level of awareness of how they teach, of the kinds of decisions they make as they teach, and of the value and consequences of particular instructional decisions? One way of doing this is through observing and reflecting on one's own teaching, and using observation and reflection as a way of bringing about change. This approach to teaching can be described as 'Reflective Teaching', and in this paper I want to explore how a reflective view of teaching can be developed.

What is reflection?

Reflection or 'critical reflection', refers to an activity or process in which an experience is recalled, considered, and evaluated, usually in relation to a broader purpose. It is a response to past experience and involves conscious recall and examination of the experience as a basis for evaluation and decision-making and as a source for planning and action. Bartlett (1990) points out that becoming a reflective teacher involves moving beyond a primary concern with instructional techniques and 'how to' questions and asking 'what' and 'how' questions that regard instruction and managerial techniques not as ends in themselves, but as part of broader educational purposes.

> ***Asking 'what and why' questions gives us a certain power over our teaching. We could claim that the degree of autonomy and responsibility we have in our work as teachers is determined by the level of control we can exercise over our actions. In reflecting on the above kind of questions, we begin to exercise control and open up the possibility of transforming our everyday classroom life.***
>
> ***Bartlett, 1990. 267.***

How does reflection take place?

Many different approaches can be employed if one wishes to become a critically reflective teacher, including observation of oneself and others, team teaching, and exploring one's view of teaching through writing. Central to any approach used however is a three part process which involves:

Stage 1 The event itself

The starting point is an actual teaching episode, such as a lesson or other instructional event. While the focus of critical reflection is usually the teacher's own teaching, self-reflection can also be stimulated by observation of another person's teaching.

Stage 2 Recollection of the event

The next stage in reflective examination of an experience is an account of what happened, without explanation or evaluation. Several different procedures are available during the recollection phase, including written descriptions of an event, a video or audio recording of an event, or the use of check lists or coding systems to capture details of the event.

Stage 3 Review and response to the event

Following a focus on objective description of the event, the participant returns to the event and reviews it. The event is now processed at a deeper level, and questions are asked about the experience.

Let us examine approaches to critical reflection which reflect these processes.

Peer Observation

Peer observation can provide opportunities for teachers to view each others teaching in order to expose them to different teaching styles and to provide opportunities for critical reflection on their own teaching. In a peer observation project initiated in our own department, the following guidelines were developed.

1. *Each participant would both observe and be observed.* Teachers would work in pairs and take turns observing each others' classes.
2. *Pre-observation orientation session.* Prior to each observation, the two teachers would meet to discuss the nature of the class to be observed, the kind of material being taught, the teacher's approach to teaching, the kinds of students in the class, typical patterns of interaction and class participation, and any problems that might be expected. The teacher being observed would also assign the observer a goal for the observation and a task to accomplish. The task would involve collecting information about some aspect of the lesson, but would not include any evaluation of the lesson. Observation procedures or instruments to be used would be agreed upon during this session and a schedule for the observations arranged.
3. *The observation.* The observer would then visit his or her partner's class and complete the observation using the procedures that both partners had agreed on.

4. *Post-observation.* The two teachers would meet as soon as possible after the lesson. The observer would report on the information that had been collected and discuss it with the teacher (Richards and Lockhart, 1991).

The teachers identified a variety of different aspects of their lessons for their partners to observe and collect information on. These included organization of the lesson, teacher's time management, students' performance on tasks, time-on-task, teacher questions and student responses, student performance during pairwork, classroom interaction, class performance during a new teaching activity, and students' use of the first language or English during group work.

The teachers who participated in the project reported that they gained a number of insights about their own teaching from their colleague's observations and that they would like to use peer observation on a regular basis. They obtained new insights into aspects of their teaching. For example:

> *"It provided more detailed information on student performance during specific aspects of the lesson than I could have gathered on my own."*
>
> *"It revealed unexpected information about interaction between students during a lesson."*
>
> *"I was able to get useful information on the group dynamics that occur during group work."*

Some teachers identified aspects of their teaching that they would like to change as a result of the information their partner collected. For example:

> *"It made me more aware of the limited range of teaching strategies that I have been using."*
>
> *"I need to give students more time to complete some of the activities I use."*
>
> *"I realized that I need to develop better time management strategies."*

Longer term benefits to the department were also sighted:

> *"It helped me develop better a working relationship with a colleague."*
>
> *"Some useful broader issues about teaching and the programme came up during the post-observation discussions."*

Written accounts of experiences

Another useful way of engaging in the reflective process is through the use of written accounts of experiences. Personal accounts of experiences through writing are common in other disciplines (Powell 1985) and their potential is increasingly being recognized in teacher education. A number of different approaches can be used.

Self-Reports

Self-reporting involves completing an inventory or check list in which the teacher indicates which teaching practices were used within a lesson or within a specified time period and how often they were employed (Pak, 1985). The inventory may be completed individually or in group sessions. The accuracy of self reports is found to increase when teachers focus on the teaching of specific skills in a particular classroom context and when the self-report instrument is carefully constructed to reflect a wide range of potential teaching practices and behaviors (Richards, 1990).

Self-reporting allows teachers to make a regular assessment of what they are doing in the classroom. They can check to see to what extent their assumptions about their own teaching are reflected in their actual teaching practices. For example a teacher could use self-reporting to find out the kinds of teaching activities being regularly used, whether all of the program's goals are being addressed, the degree to which personal goals for a class are being met, and the kinds of activities which seem to work well or not to work well.

Autobiographies

Abbs (1974, cited in Powell 1985) discusses the use of autobiographies in teacher preparation. These consist of small groups of around 12 students who meet

> for an hour each week for at least 10 weeks. During this period of time each students works at creating a written account of his or her educational experience and the weekly meetings are used to enable each person to read a passage from his or her autobiography so that it can be supported, commented upon by peers and the teacher (43).

Powell (1985) describes the use of reaction-sheets—sheets student teachers complete after a learning activity has been completed—in which they are encouraged 'to stand back from what they had been doing and think about what it meant for their own learning and what it entailed for their work as teachers of others' (p. 46). I have used a similar technique in working with student teachers in a practicum. Students work in pairs with a co-operating teacher and take turns teaching. One serves as observer while the other teaches, and completes a reaction sheet during the lesson. The student who teaches also completes his or her own reaction sheet after the lesson. Then the two compare their reactions to the lesson.

Journal Writing

A procedure which is becoming more widely acknowledged as a valuable tool for developing critical reflection is the journal or diary. The goal of journal writing is,

1. to provide a record of the significant learning experiences that have taken place.

2. to help the participant come into touch and keep in touch with the self-development process that is taking place for them.
3. to provide the participants with an opportunity to express, in a personal and dynamic way, their self-development.
4. to foster a creative interaction
    - between the participant and the self-development process that is taking place
    - between the participant and other participants who are also in the process of self-development
    - between the participant and the facilitator whose role it is to foster such development

(Powell, 1985, Bailey, 1990)

While procedures for diary keeping vary, the participant usually keeps a regular account of learning or teaching experiences, recording reflections on what he or she did as well as straightforward descriptions of events, which may be used as a basis for later reflection. The diary serves as a means for interaction between the writer, the facilitator, and sometimes other participants.

Collaborative Diary Keeping

A group of teachers may also collaborate in journal writing. A group of my colleagues recently explored the value of collaborative diary-keeping as a way of developing a critically reflective view of their teaching (Brock, Yu and Wong, 1991). Throughout a 10 week teaching term they kept diaries on their teaching, read each other's diaries, and discussed their teaching and diary keeping experiences on a weekly basis. They also recorded and later transcribed their group discussions and subsequently analyzed their diary entries, their written responses to each other's entries, and the transcripts of their discussions, in order to determine how these three interacted and what issues occurred most frequently. They reported that:

> Collaborative diary-keeping brought several benefits to our development as second language teachers. It raised our awareness of classroom processes and prompted us to consider those processes more deeply than we may otherwise have. Collaborative diary-keeping also provided encouragement and support; it served as a source of teaching ideas and suggestions; and in some sense it gave us a way to observe one another's teaching from a "safe distance". . . .
>
> By reading one another's diary entries, we were able to share our teaching experiences, and we often felt that we were learning as much from one another's entries as we were from our own. Reading and responding to the entries led us back to our own teaching to consider how and why we taught as we did.

These teachers observed however that

1. collaborative diary-keeping is more effective if the scope of issues considered is focussed more narrowly,

2. a large block of time is needed,
3. participants must be comfortable in sharing both pleasant and unpleasant experiences and be committed a gaining a clearer picture of their teaching and their classrooms.

Recording Lessons

For many aspects of teaching, audio or video recording of lessons can also provide a basis for reflection. While there are many useful insights to be gained from diaries and self-reports, they cannot capture the moment to moment processes of teaching. Many things happen simultaneously in a classroom, and some aspects of a lesson cannot be recalled. It would be of little value for example, to attempt to recall the proportion of Yes-No Questions to WH-Questions a teacher used during a lesson, or to estimate the degree to which teacher time was shared among higher and lower ability students. Many significant classroom events may not have been observed by the teacher, let alone remembered, hence the need to supplement diaries or self-reports with recordings of actual lessons.

At its simplest, a tape recorder is located in a place where it can capture the exchanges which take place during a lesson. With the microphone placed on the teacher's table, much of the teacher's language can be recorded as well as the exchanges of many of the students in the class. Pak (1985) recommends recording for a one or two week period and then randomly selecting a cassette for closer analysis. This recording could be used as the basis for an initial assessment. Where video facilities are available in a school, the teacher can request to have a lesson recorded, or with access to video equipment, students themselves can be assigned this responsibility. A 30 minute recording usually provides more than sufficient data for analysis. The goal is to capture as much of the interaction of the class as possible, both teacher to class and student to student. Once the initial novelty wears off, both students and teacher accept the presence of the technician with the camera, and the class proceeds with minimum disruption.

Conclusions

A reflective approach to teaching involves changes in the way we usually perceive teaching and our role in the process of teaching. As the examples above illustrate, teachers who explore their own teaching through critical reflection develop changes in attitudes and awareness which they believe can both benefit their professional growth as teachers, as well as improve the kind of support they provide their students. Like other forms of self-inquiry, reflective teaching is not without its risks, since journal writing, self-reporting on making recordings of lessons can be time consuming. However teachers engaged in reflective analysis of their own teaching report that it is a valuable tool for self-evaluation and professional growth. Reflective teaching suggests that experience alone is insufficient for professional growth, but that experience coupled with reflection can be a powerful impetus for teacher development.

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MOTIVATION, THE SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNER AND THE TEACHER

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Introduction

> *Thought must first pass through meanings and only then through words . . . Thought is not the superior authority in this process. Thought is not begotten by thought; it is engendered by motivation, by our desires and needs, our interests and emotions. (Vygotsky, 1922).*

Vygotsky's statement of the primacy of motivation in cognition and communication is worth reiterating. It is often assumed that motivational aspects of the second language learning process are immutable phenomena; either conferred benefits or irksome constraints for the teacher. The general belief seems to be that students either enter the learning process motivated to learn or they do not, and that the consequences of this lottery have to be accepted and accommodated.

In this brief and preliminary paper aimed at Hong Kong teachers of General English working with students at all post-primary levels, I want to suggest that learner motivation is actually in a constant state of flux brought about by a concatenation of developmental, personality and attitudinal factors. This point alone means that the area is one of limitless richness and complexity. However, although motivation is a deeply personal impulse, it is possible to identify dimensions of motivation under which individualistic factors are largely subsumed. This is fortunate in that it enables us to discuss an essentially subjective topic in more general terms, and so identify ways in which pedagogic planning can take aspects of learner motivation into account.

Three main dimensions of motivation are readily identifiable. These are displayed below with their various definitions and drives. Needless to say, the dimensions are in constant parallel interaction.

Dimensions of Motivation

Holistic	Definition: the individual as organism seeking to realise its fullest potentialities: physical, emotional, mental and spiritual. Drive: – Egocentric.
Cultural-Linguistic	Definition: the individual as user of non-native languages in relation to others within and across cultures. Drives: – Instrumental. – Integrative.

Cognitive-Linguistic Definition: the individual in formal learning situations.
Drives: – Security and Progress.
– Involvement in the Learning Programme.
– Cognitive Engagement.
– Incentive to Sustain Impetus.

Holism: The Whole Student Approach.

Abraham Maslow's pioneering work (1954) in presenting a unified hierarchy of individual needs which naturally motivate human behaviour, was influential in Western education systems in the 1960s and early 1970s. Maslow's hierarchy is constructed on the essentially Western notion that maximal ego-centred development is the goal of each and every individual. The hierarchy represents the individual's progress in meeting needs and wants which range from the purely physiological to the highly creative; from survival to self-actualisation.

Maslow's explicit description of what is entailed in the process of "becoming whole" has helped teachers to perceive learners as constantly striving individuals, since at each level of attainment a new need is created; defined and potentially limited to some extent by the degree of success achieved at the previous level. The developing and enquiring individual, then, is constantly in a state of what might be termed necessary and beneficial disequilibrium. The concept of learner disequilibrium may have profound implications for teacher behaviour; these are elaborated as the discussion develops.

Maslows' work, however, is of limited direct relevance to the language teacher; he makes no reference to the position a second language might occupy on the hierarchy of needs. Despite this we can guess with some confidence that the position is likely to depend heavily on the cultural and occupational context in which the individual finds himself. Maslow does, however, provide an important global, if semi-deterministic, view of the individual as a striving organism; a view which may help the teacher to be more aware of the student in whole-person terms rather than simply in his or her studial capacity. The need for the Hong Kong teacher to regard each learner in whole person terms is all the more urgent in view of the extremely competitive nature of the local education system and its potentially destructive effects on the individual learner.

The Cultural-Linguistic Dimension

At the level of the individual within and across cultures, the motivation to learn a foreign or second language has tended to be stated in dichotomous, either-or terms; that is a learner is driven by either instrumental or integrative motivation (Gardener, 1968 and 1979). Instrumental motivation is engendered and sustained by extrinsic forces such as job getting, promotion enhancement or passing examinations, while the integrative type is generated intrinsically by positive perceptions of the target language culture and its peoples. Gardner himself has stated unequivocally that integrative motivation provides the strongest, deepest and most lasting drive to learn the target language. Perhaps the most important feature to note about learners motivated by instrumental ends, is that they may take a dangerously short-term view of learning resulting in fossilisation of key aspects of the target language system and their communicative use. As Stevick indicates (1982):

> *Apparently people acquire as much of a language as they really need for what they really want, but only that much.*

It is, nevertheless, surprising that the categories of instrumental and integrative motivation have been accepted as canons of linguistic law. This dichotomy, like any other dichotomy, may be a useful contrasting device but can hardly hope to account accurately for the actual operations of such a multi-faceted, elusive quality as motivation. Gardner's research data originated from the bilingual situation in Montreal and the close-proximity nature of this environment may have produced too strong an emphasis on integrative motivation for wider applicability. Porter Ladousse (1982) seems to support the notion that the integrative variety has little relevance other than to close-proximity environments.

In fact, the social context in which the second language learning takes place may well be a very powerful constraint on the development of that language, in that this context provides the parameters of intra-national identity and solidarity. It is clear, taking Hong Kong as an example, that close-proximity bilingual environments do not necessarily engender integrationist tendencies. Richards and Luke (1982) present a convincing case for regarding Hong Kong as essentially dualistic in socio-cultural terms, and Pierson and Fu's (1982) findings point up an important linguistic consequence of this separatism; that is Hong Kong people's uneasiness in using English and in their negative perceptions of other local people who speak English in situations where the use of Chinese would be natural.

In sharp contrast to all this, is the fact that in Hong Kong the level of instrumental motivation to learn English runs very high. Peceptions of English as low in status but high in utility set up a strong contradiction in the learner. He or she needs English to achieve success in terms of education and occupation, but at the same time the majority of Hong Kong people have strongly anti-integrationist tendencies. This attitude is manifested linguistically in the very high levels of virtually intractable fossilisation found in the English of many Hong Kong learners and users of English. A form (not variety) of English seems to have developed in Hong Kong which meets practical intra-national needs, while preserving socio-cultural identity and solidarity. This form, consequently, has limited international viability.

Low affective drive is common to many contexts in which English is a foreign, rather than second, language. There is, of course, little the teacher can do to alter cultural-linguistic constraints radically although, as will be described later, these may be modified to some extent. Incidentally, it is interesting to note in passing that, in sharp contrast to English, French and Japanese in Hong Kong appear to enjoy high status but have relatively restricted utility at present. These positive perceptions are, perhaps, the result of admiration for particular facets of French and Japanese cultural-economic life; style and economic success respectively.

The strongest strain of integrative motivation, drawing closer to or actually integrating into the target language culture, seems then to be generally untenable. It is certainly difficult to conceive of a degree of own culture alienation so great, or target culture attraction so overwhelming, that an individual would wish to disown his own context of development completely, although some isolated instances of this do, of course, exist.

It is rather more likely, as already indicated that specific features of the target language culture may be admired or particularly valued by learners. Flavell (1984) for example, reported on the very considerable number of young Brazilian adults learning English to understand and possibly perform Anglo-American pop music. This particularist and narrowly-focussed motivation is actually a very positive, and potentially expandable phenomenon and once again indicates that, in reality, there is probably no sharp distinction to be made between instrumental and integrative modes of motivation. Interestingly, Burstall (1975) found that the two motivational drives by no means stand in mutual exclusion or contradiction, and that non-threatening and successful learning experiences develop positive attitudes to the target language, its people and culture that were not present at the start of the learning programme.

For the teacher this realisation is a crucial breakthrough because it promises a way in which positive attitudinal and instrumental drives might be linked to achieve optimal learning through combining extrinsic and intrinsic elements of motivation. In this way it might be possible to take the learner from limited perceived target language needs to a positive desire to learn more about a culture through its language and so continually progress in the acquisition of the target language. This is not to say that the learner is likely to become integrationist in any strong sense, but low affective drive and the resulting high level of fossilisation might be prevented.

I want to suggest, then, that integrative motivation might best be redefined as a force potential in any environment conducive to second language acquisition while acknowledging that it could equally well be viewed in universal, non-linguistic terms as the drive for acceptance and security to bring a sense of belonging to a particular community.

The Cognitive-Academic Dimension

I use this term to refer to the level of the individual in formal learning situations. This is naturally the level at which teachers are most directly concerned with questions of student motivation. Burstall's findings (op. cit.) strike an intuitive and positive chord for many teachers; that no matter how poorly motivated a learner may appear to be, the aware and sensitive teacher can actively develop strategies to generate, harness and sustain a motivational dynamic not entirely directed towards instrumental ends. I want to propose an integrated four-point plan; one that as presented is not very elaborate but which should provide a practical framework for the enhancement of motivation in the second language classroom.

Security and Progress

My first point relates to the need for the teacher to create a low-anxiety atmosphere in the classroom while, at the same time, allowing the learner to perceive that real progress is being made. This is of particular importance for learners with potentially inhibiting socio-cultural backgrounds or personality types. Although there is little direct action the teacher can take to influence these factors, it is worth noting in passing that Pickett (1978) offers a description of the ideal background of a second language learner, some features of which are; secure but non-restrictive early rearing, no binding identification with a particular socio-economic class, and no confining membership of an exclusive, monodialectal regional grouping. The good language learner is open-minded and accepts cultural and linguistic variation with good grace and humour.

Krashen (1981) has absorbed the basic personality types of introvert and extrovert into his model of second language acquisition, claiming that extroverts are more likely, because of their lack of inhibition, to communicate more effectively in the early stages of the second language programme than their self-repressing introverted classmates. This is displayed schematically below:

Learner	*Speaking*	*Rules*	*Personality*
Monitor overuser	–	+	introverted
Monitor underuser	+	–	extroverted

More importantly perhaps, Krashen has also emphasised the need to allow for a relatively silent, receptive period early in the second language acquisition process. Part of the reason for this is to lower the affective barrier erected by many learners when presented with a form of learning which threatens individual identity. Allowing for an appropriate lag between reception and production of language has become one of the bedrock principles of communicative approaches to teaching and, in the sense that this has reduced the use of audiolingual techniques demanding immediate oral responses, has been reasonably successful in dismantling affective barriers. However, comprehensible input from the teacher and reception-based work for the student does not provide enough momentum to keep the learner optimally motivated. Output, and consequent feedback, are the means by which a learner becomes acquainted with his level of success. Successful learning experiences will tend to engender the desire for more success. It is in this way that the individual's resolution to progress is strengthened.

However, in large teacher-centred classes, students have little opportunity to deliver enough output to be judged fairly or receive constructive feedback to enhance feelings of security and success. Teachers, then, need to build approaches into the learning programme which do allow for substantial and significant output without threatening the learner with individual, oral production in front of the whole class. Project and theme work, and activities utilising interactive techniques including the interactive noticeboard, intra- and inter- school English Days and visits, and the electronic mail system are clearly most likely to facilitate this. Swain (1990) describes the need for the teacher to:

> *. . . plan for opportunities for sustained language use by students where they are motivated to express faithfully and precisely their thought, and are provided with useful and consistent feedback.*

Comprehensible input from the teacher is of little use if students, through lack of language practice and use, are able only to produce virtually incomprehensible output, or at least language so marked by gross error that it has little international viability.

Substantial practice and feedback is not only essential to sustain motivation, but also to prevent the fossilisation of erroneous target language forms already mentioned. The fossilisation potential of learning programmes too sharply focussed on fluency development has long been recognised. Canale and Swain (1979) acknowledge that a certain level of grammatical competence must be reached before strategic, communicative and discourse competencies are able to play their vitally important roles in language use; that "what can be said determines what can be meant." More recently, Major (1988) linked the effects of fossilised language to studies investigating perceptions of the relative gravity of errors and concluded:

> *There is a significant difference between a listener who merely understood the [inaccurately formulated] message and was unaffected, one that understood but was annoyed in the process, and one who understood and was sympathetic. In all three situations the basic message may be the same, but the total meaning and impact are different.*

Providing opportunities for increased practice could be facilitated by the use of self-directed (self-access) learning materials particularly for listening, reading and writing. Afterall, the ultimate objective of self-access systems is maximum individualisation of learning. This personalisation of the learning procees should enhance motivation provided regular review sessions with teachers are built into the programme to maintain internal dynamism and counterbalance the social isolation inherent in self-access systems. For speaking and pronunciation, I would advocate regular recording, promptly followed by monitoring (with the teacher) of the taped samples for the learner to detect progress and repair problems effectively.

Involvement in the Learning Programme

The learner needs to be able to perceive that there are real purposes and benefits to be derived from learning a second language and that the learning programme is appropriately focussed and internally dynamic. Only then are they likely to feel involved fully in the learning process.

It is something of a surprise, then, that although teachers may well know what they are doing, why they are doing it and where they are going, the students usually do not. It is a truism that school-level students remain largely unaware of the reasoning and goals, other than examination-passing, underlying the second language learning programme. The learners are left bereft of a real purpose to learn and of the directions that learning will take. The fact that the learners in question are often relatively young is no reason for keeping them unenlightened.

To promote participative learning, I want to suggest that the teacher could interview at least a representative cross-section of students before the start of the learning programme to gauge the approximate nature and range of learner interests. These interests could than be fed into the programme as projects, topics or themes. The programme might than be perceived as taking regard of student needs and wants. This kind of activity on the part of the teacher should have beneficial effects in generating and sustaining learner motivation.

The suggestion here implies a move towards more learner-centred (almost client-centred) approaches to teaching. A co-occuring de-emphasising of prescribed study areas and of the set textbook in favour of relevant tasks and activities derived from source books or created by individual teachers to meet student demand is also implied. I am not, of course, suggesting a radical and sudden change to a negotiated procedural syllabus, but a limited number of student suggestions could be easily accommodated within most school-based learning programmes.

Keeping the learner informed in order to keep him motivated does not stop at this point. It needs to be seen as a continuous process. For example, a student version of both medium-and longer-term teaching plans could be produced and referred to at regular intervals to let students see clearly just where they are, what is to be tackled next and why.

The teacher might also consider spending a few minutes at the beginning of each lesson (or just the first of the week's lessons if time is very short) sketching a very brief overview of the lesson or lessons on the board. Time elements might be included if this is felt to be useful. Again, this would allow students to see the direction of their learning and may well enhance motivation to achieve clear-cut ends within a certain time-scale. To communicate these details effectively, the teacher will need to conceive and phrase lesson objectives in terms of learner activity; an empathetic process in itself.

Involving the learner in the global teaching and learning process is of the greatest possible importance since language, as a subject per se, is rarely enough to motivate to any significant extent. It is not surprising, for instance, that Munby (reported in Porter Ladousse op.cit.) recorded a drastic decrease in motivation among African students when English was introduced as a subject rather than being used as the medium of instruction for the delivery of science subjects; a genuinely communicational use of the target language.

Cognitive Engagement

There is no such thing as a learner completely uninterested in each and every aspect of learning a second language. An interest (in the sense of psychological arousal) will exist, albeit slight, grudging and covert, as a natural consequence of exposure to the language and aspects of its culture. The teacher's task is to bring this level of arousal to maximum positive pitch. This all seems obvious enough but is easily forgotten in the teaching process. Arousal will not be maximally effected, for example, by the provision of a very brief "motivation" section early in the lesson in which pictures or realia might be used to stimulate interest in the whole lesson. This kind of procedure reflects a clear use of Stimulus-Response models of learning based on relatively unrefined behaviourist psychology. Motivation is regarded here a short-range force designed to operate over the span of the single lesson as a necessary condition for the achievement of prescribed, and equally short-range behavioural objectives. Such procedures keep the content of the learning process distant from the learner and make little attempt to encourage his active cognitive participation in the process. Cognitive engagement in the learning process must be seen as inextricably linked to motivation. Ausubel (1968) expresses this concisely:

> *The most appropriate way of arousing motivation to learn is to focus on the cognitive rather than the motivational aspects of learning, and to rely on the motivation that is developed from successful educational achievement to energise further learning.*

Learner curiosity is perhaps best aroused by using the appeal of those aspects of the target language which meet the developmental interests of a particular group of learners. Staging the lesson, or activities within it so that pre, while and post phases occur should help to maximise motivation to learn through engaging learners in a primarily cognitive process; the pre stage to utilise existing knowledge on the topic of study and raise expectations, the while stage to provide a purposeful means of confirming or disconfirming those expectations and to provide guidance in processing input, the post stage to build on what has been learned and provide a sense of completion to the whole process. Clearly, the use of tasks and activities based on the principles of problem-solving are likely to be most effective in engaging the learner's cognitive machinery fully.

Channels of exposure to the target language and its peoples and culture are, of course, important in maximising the cognitive engagement of the learner, and in maintaining the beneficial disequlibrium required to keep the learner wanting to learn more. Authentic print and video materials provide the best channels of exposure, since they naturally embody aspects of the target language culture. The corollary of this applies too; that learners are made much more aware of their own culture by learning about foreign ones. It hardly needs to be reiterated that even this kind of exposure will fail if the topic presented is not made interesting and appropriate for the developmental level of particular learners.

Incentive to Sustain Impetus

The long-term, unfocussed and urgency-free nature of many general language courses is a major hindrance to the maintenance of genuine, enquiry-driven momentum in the classroom. For this reason, there is a need for the teacher to build into teaching plans and schemes of work a set of learning aims to connect and relate particular lesson objectives. Single lesson behavioural objectives are aimed at mastery of certain items of language within a set time frame. While a sense of having mastered particular items of language is of some importance in that the learner can claim linguistic pay-offs at regular intervals, this is not as important as encouraging the learner to regard mastered objectives as simply part of a larger and more purposeful set of aims which is always proximal and in view (aims must not be dishearteningly out of reach or insultingly easy to attain) but which is never completely achieved. In this way one of the major outcomes of all educational initiatives might be achieved; the development of the efficient, independent, self-directed learner competent in organising his own learning long after programmes of formal instruction have ceased.

This kind of broad programmatic planning implies a more away from behaviouristic teaching approaches and techniques. Pre-set aims simply provide a structured and secure frame for demonstrating implicitly the continuing, long-term nature of learning, while specific lesson objectives offer shorter-term points of reference against which the students may evaluate their progress in a positive light. In keeping with Burstalls' findings, this should help to ensure positive perceptions of target language phenomena and help sustain the learning process. Learning aims harness learner disequilibrium in a positive way by sustaining the desire to learn more, even when set objectives appear to have been achieved.

The clear implication for the teacher here is not to simply teach, practise, test and then abandon language items, but rather to introduce and recycle them, for example in the guise of problem-solving tasks which have a cognitive orientation but which necessitate, for their solution, use-based combinatorial practice of language items. Learning thus becomes a spiralling and combining process rather than a linear and separating one.

I want to suggest that the integration of language parts and language use is best fostered by a holistic syllabus and its derived methodology. This is in sharp contrast to a great deal of current practice in which a rather more synthetic approach is taken; that is language items are taught as discrete entities requiring the learner to reintegrate these items as a prior condition to their communicative use.

As a consequence of the preceeding argument, behavioural and product-focussed specific objectives might well become less important than process-oriented ones which are phrased and evaluated in terms of tasks and activities rather than outcomes, products or the display of language-like behaviour.

To be successful this kind of approach demands substantial and effective feedback to students on the degree of cognitive and linguistic success achieved in particular tasks. Indeed, without systematic feedback any pedagogic approach is likely to fail to maximise learner success and thus fail to sustain the impetus to learn.

Afterword

This paper has taken a broad, generalised and, I hope, balanced view of motivation. This is necessary if anything at all meaningful is to be recommended to teachers who, in the local context, are constrained by large class size and pedagogic traditions of teacher-centred approaches to learning. For this reason individualistic factors, for example, have been de-emphasised in the foregoing discussion. That said, no matter how comprehensive and successful the teacher's motivation-enhancement plans, certain students will travel further along the learning continuum than others. This degree of success must to some extent be determined by uncontrollable cultural, individualistic and socio-economic factors. The teacher can, nevertheless, help to provide the impetus for the individual learner to achieve all that he or she is able to achieve in this particular field of endeavour.

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987

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CONSUMING MATERIALS

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One of the project assignments recently prescribed for candidates for the University of Cambridge/Royal Society of Arts Diploma for Overseas Teachers of English (D.O.T.E.) was:

Choose a particular level of learner . . . and then write:

(i) a critical analysis of three coursebooks designed for use at that level;
(ii) a detailed plan of the coursebook you would like to see written for that level;
(iii) one complete unit of the coursebook detailed in (ii).

This Diploma is specifically designed for teachers who are non-native speakers of English, practising outside the United Kingdom. Many of the candidates are working within their own State systems, at primary or secondary level, and consequently are rarely involved in the selection or evaluation of the textbooks from which they are required to teach. In a large number of cases, the materials, whether commercially or publicly produced, are prescribed by the authorities and even the schools themselves have no opportunity independently to select what to adopt for use in their own classrooms. All the more significant is it, then, that within the framework of an international public examination, serving teachers should be required not only to make a critical appraisal of the classroom materials they are using, which in many cases have been imposed upon them, but also to offer suggestions for the design of materials specifically appropriate to the circumstances in which they are teaching. This is not merely a reflection of the growing importance attached to consumer reaction to textbooks, but more confirmation of the realisation that classroom teachers should not be treated as unthinking, uncreative and totally passive purveyors of others' work, but that their experiences, knowledge and insights provide a valuable source which can contribute significantly to the development of effective classroom teaching materials particularly suited to their individual teaching situations (cf. Allwright 1981; Brumfit 1984).

Many coursebook writers are, or have been, language teachers. Some, sadly, have not; or, at least, have not taught at the level or in the countries for which their materials are ostensibly designed. (The literature is peppered with anecdotal evidence of the absurdities to which this can lead. The classic example of my experience was of an exercise in a coursebook designed for use in the Gulf area, which demanded that an atmosphere of 'horror' be built up, and to this end the tape supplied with the textbook had a disembodied echoing voice describing two people exploring a damp, dark cave – even the water could be heard dripping ponderously from the 'cave roof'. I witnessed this material being taught in Abu Dhabi in 40° of heat under an implacable desert sun. The atmosphere conjured up in the pupils' minds was one of desirable comfort, rather than that envisaged by the text writers in the wintry drizzle of northern Europe.) It is, unfortunately, not unknown for a textbook writer, whose course has been adopted for use in a particular school system, even to dismiss well-reasoned complaints by local teachers as to the unteachability of parts of the material as symptomatic of the teachers' intransigence and unwillingness to try something new; of their laziness or their ignorance; or, at worst, of their inability to teach at all. Such unmitigated arrogance, motivated by commercial, rather than educational, factors, is all the more unfortunate when the teachers concerned are working in developing countries, and when those responsible for the adoption of the materials – in ministries or wherever, and often divorced from regular classroom contact – may have been persuaded by the superficial modernity and alleged efficacity of the materials, succumbing to the suaviloquy of local or overseas salespeople rather than relying on adequate evaluative judgements of the pedagogic implications of the materials. In fairness, however, such judgements, or rather the people able to make them, may not always be available at the crucial times. Indeed, in extreme cases, 'judgements' may be clouded by external considerations.

Pre-service, as well as in-service, courses for language teachers have, in my experience, often lacked sufficiently rigorous models for the evaluation of classroom materials. Typically, a checklist of points to be looked for is all a teacher has to refer to in assessing a selection of materials (cf. Cunningsworth 1984; but see also Williams 1981). But all too commonly, the checklist offered is biased in favour of one or other 'approach' – usually the one being promoted in the training course concerned. An example of this, and of loaded questions which presuppose 'correct' answers can be seen in this extract from the I.L.E.'s Checklist for Textbook Review (Ref. TL 31 1084), once used on in-service refresher courses for primary-level teachers in Hong Kong:

> To what extent does the course material contribute to meaningful interaction (e.g. crossing the information gap)?
> To what extent are the activities task-based?
> Does the material lend itself to classroom activities?
> Are there any suggested activities which particularly contribute to pupil participation?

The refresher course had as one of its rationales the familiarisation of teachers with the classroom implications of the introduction of textbooks in response to the Government's adoption of a 'communicative' syllabus at primary level in Hong Kong. The point here is not that the questions asked are 'bad', but that the bias is explicitly towards the orientation of the syllabus. The checklist is not neutral, and can only be evaluative if the basic assumptions are accepted in the first place. If the assumptions are explicit, of course, the checklist is, presumably, valid for the circumstance.

By giving strategic importance to the evaluation of materials actually in use, through professional examination for practising teachers, Cambridge/ R.S.A. have afforded candidates the opportunity to think critically about the (often sole) sources of their pupils' language experience within the classroom and thus the rôle of the textbook in the learning/teaching situation in which they are working; to inform themselves about what is and what is not relevant when appraising materials for their own circumstances; and to apply their own experience and information to make judgements about textbook materials which, in many circumstances, are still regarded as sacrosanct. In microcosm, the D.O.T.E. examination project aptly demonstrates how any decision-making process for coursebook evaluation might usefully proceed. Adequate, informed evaluation should be made of existing materials in use, taking into consideration, above all, the experience of those responsible for using them in the classroom. This evaluation should be followed by a similar one of the projected new materials, bringing to bear on any decision the experience of their use elsewhere, as well as the results of short, selective pilot experiments in similar contexts to those for which they may ultimately be adopted. It is, in my judgement, extremely unwise to make decisions for the wholesale adoption of classroom materials, particularly in state school systems, without gathering the opinions of those who will ultimately be responsible for using those materials. If these opinions are to be informed and to any degree reliable, they should be empirically based. Teachers should be given the chance to try out selections of the materials, and to have guidelines by which they may make assessments that can, in turn, be realistically interpreted by the ultimate decision makers. It is not sufficient to rely on publishers' or authors' claims that the materials have been designed with this or that population of teachers or students in mind, or that the materials conform in spirit and content to a particular syllabus etc., if one is to make a reliable judgement as to the appropriateness for the purpose for which they are used, namely to offer effective help to pupils in learning the target foreign language successfully.

As a corollary to this, the increasingly common practice of providing 'teacher training' as part of a package involving the purchase of classroom materials for a nation-wide school system may be seen as an endeavour to pre-empt consumer resistance to the new materials. Such courses, by definition, exclude realistic and objective evaluation of the materials being presented. It is, on the one hand, essential that everyone involved in the adoption of new materials should be fully informed about the rationale behind the decision and any ramifications of it, for example, implications the adoption may have for classroom methodology, examination formats etc. within the educational system. On the other hand, 'teacher training' by those directly responsible for the production of the materials could, if not carefully managed, have the negative effect of numbing criticism, rendering informed evaluative judgement quasi-heretical, provoking frustration, and in the end, contributing to consumer resistance which may result in failure to achieve

991

the desired effectiveness of the materials in the classroom. Even the best materials cannot be effective without the active and enthusiastic support of the teachers and students using them. Above all, teachers need to have confidence in the materials. If the teacher training is to mean anything at all, the trainers must be responsive to the reactions of consumers, both teachers and students, and must be ready to make appropriate alterations to the materials, if perceived to be necessary – in some cases, this will involve compromises to take account of local sensitivities. Such considerations dictate that training should be undertaken with pilot materials, not final publications. The presentation of a published fait accompli will hardly persuade teachers of the sincerity of the publisher and/or author in any avowal of willingness to undertake substantial alterations in response to suggestions and the confidence of the teachers in the purveyors of the materials, and by extension the materials themselves, may be seriously undermined.

It is a truism to repeat that pupils require materials which directly respond to their needs and interests in learning the target language. However, millions of pupils sitting in language classrooms around the world have or perceive no need or interest in the matter whatever, except, in many cases, to pass examinations. This is especially true at the lower school level, primary or junior secondary. How, then, is a textbook writer to respond, and how can a teacher evaluate that response? Long-term needs for a second or foreign language are locally defined, and have their origins in the sociolinguistic fabric of the community. Junior school pupils often do not appreciate the importance of language lessons in their classrooms, and consequently their motivation to make the necessary effort to master the target language may be very low. This in turn affects teachers, who themselves, may find little satisfaction in their teaching in such circumstances. When pupil motivation, stimulated by the perception of a pragmatic need for the foreign language, does occur, it is often too late to benefit from the provision of language classes at school. In many countries where pupils may have attended English language classes at school for up to twelve years, the demand for classes for adults in the commercial sector does not abate. Post-secondary private language schools flourish, in many cases because of the failure of the state school system to accomplish the task of effectively teaching language as a communicative activity. This is not to say that such private schools necessarily have any more success than others, but they do enjoy specific advantages not available within a state system. For example, the motivation level will be higher, because generally the class will represent a deliberate commitment of time and money on the part of the students, who will wish to perceive (sometimes, an almost immediate!) return on their investment. There will, in most cases, be a level of flexibility in the choice of materials impossible in a bulk-purchasing state system. Students can be actively involved in the selection process, and their individual long- and short-term needs visibly catered for; the face validity and personal applicability of the classroom materials and activities are thus enhanced. Courses can be designed for specific groups of learners, with teachers and students culling material from a variety of sources, trying, testing, refining or rejecting. Materials for use in school systems, however, must have an almost universal applicability within the defined population. The pupils' long-term needs for learning the language, as perceived by those who provide the language component of the curriculum, may be subtly introduced into the materials via, for example, pictures, stories, situations, characterisations etc. for the use the language is put to by the learners in the tasks and exercises they are called upon to accomplish. The relevance of the materials' content and format to the pupils' long-term needs is an important criterion for evaluation by a teacher. It is essentially the teacher's professional judgement and knowledge of the social situation that come into play here.

A reflection of societal attitudes may be manifest in the types of textbook adopted within the same system for use for different languages. In one case in the Middle East, in my experience, the secondary-level English language textbook had been written especially for the area, and concerned characters who were obviously Arabs, living in the Arab world, but speaking English to each other. The intention was alleged to be to demonstrate the relevance of English to the pupils' own lives and experiences, as well as to prepare them for interacting in English within their own geographical area in situations, e.g., of international commercial intercourse, where English might conventionally be appropriate. English was ostensibly being presented as a language of local as well as of international relevance, and there was a deliberate attempt to shy away from the association of Western cultural values associated with the European origins of the language. At the same school, however, French was also taught, in classes where the Frenchness of French was emphasised. The textbooks used were produced in France for worldwide consumption, and concerned almost exclusively the use of French in France amongst French people. French culture was conspicuously and unashamedly exalted and there was no demonstrable attempt to make French anything other than the language of France. The opposite circumstance obtains in certain countries of the Central and South Pacific, e.g., in Vanuatu, where French language materials are specifically written with the local conditions in mind, and where French is actively promoted, notably by the French Government, as a viable lingua franca of the area in the face of what is perceived to be the cultural imposition of English. English language materials, however, tend towards an emphasis on the internationalism of English, its use not only as a local lingua franca, but its practicality in world communication. The French materials portray French as a valid medium for the transmission of local cultural values; the English materials tend to concentrate on showing English to be the appropriate medium for appreciating, and interacting within, all European and Western milieux. Both are attempts to win support of the local population, for, as in many cases around the world, linguistic support leads to political and commercial influence.

That the significance of their long-term needs, with respect to the consequences for materials design, may not immediately be perceived by pupils themselves at any particular stage of their learning development would, all other things being equal, not necessarily be a sufficient case for rejection of the teaching materials of a course. Very different, however, is the case of the short-term needs of the pupils. Immanent needs are those which are the reflections of the intellectual maturational stages of the pupils, and which derive from their socio-cultural background. Collateral needs are those which originate from external sources, such as examination or vocational requirements.

As a general rule, authors attempt consciously to respond to both these sets of needs: immanent needs are reflected in e.g., the grading, sequencing and recycling of linguistic and functional items, the subject matter treated in exemplification, the amount and variety of material to be covered in a given time, the design and types of exercises set; collateral needs are catered for by e.g., the deliberate cover of explicit syllabuses, the choice of structural, lexical and functional practice, attention paid to situational demands.

An important feature of the response to short-term needs is that of the methodology associated with the use of the materials. Particularly at times when syllabuses are being changed, and new materials being introduced into a school system, there may be resistance from the pupils, once the novelty has worn off. There is also the fear on the part of teachers, who expect the immediate feedback of better results than they had been used to and who are disappointed despite their best efforts to conform to the new style of approach. Currently almost throughout the world, teachers are being exhorted to adopt the so-called communicative approach in their classes. A 'communicative' approach, however, is still a widely misunderstood concept, and has tended to become variously associated with oral work, playing games, pair or group work, noise and indiscipline, lack of learning, allowance of error, no 'grammar', little written work etc., etc. A teacher wishing to evaluate materials written within a 'communicative' framework must consider the relevance of the methodology associated with the approach adopted, to the group of learners with whom the materials are destined to be used. If, for instance, group work is absolutely unacceptable within a given socio-pedagogic environment, there is no merit in labouring the point that it would be ideal to engage in this particular procedure.

The ideal catalyst for communicative interaction in one school context may have precisely the opposite effect in another. An author may perceive his or her rôle as pseudo-evangelistic or general-educational in one sense, and may wish consciously to project certain techniques and procedures, in the hope that in the long term they will have the desired effect and be accepted by a population of teachers and learners unwilling to trust them initially. This is, however, a process which may have to be extremely gradual, involve numerous revisions of materials, especially teachers' books – the 'author's voice' – over a period of time. (There is, of course, the reductio ad absurdum that without an element of proselytism inherent in the propagation of innovation in materials, in response to the demands of a syllabus, no changes will ever be possible however desirable. A problem facing publishers and authors needing to respond to a market is exactly how to balance the conservative and the radical whilst preserving palatability within the particular circumstances of the sales area.)

What, then, of the non-native-speaking English teacher, whose intellectual and cultural traditions may be challenged by the new materials and the concomitant methodology? In circumstances where ministerial enlightenment via civil servants returning to the fold after a spell in an English-speaking country studying in applied linguistics or allied disciplines, has led to a reshaping or revision of language objectives and syllabus criteria, materials are often thrust upon teachers who are apprehensive, ill-prepared and often hostile. They feel threatened by the changes, and lead themselves to believe that their professional knowledge is no longer equal to coping with the newness of approach exemplified by the new materials. In-service teacher-training which concentrates heavily on this newness and which neglects to capitalise upon and exploit teachers' own long experience will certainly be inadequate to counter the frustration sensed by these experts suddenly made to feel so incapable.

During the initial courses for primary-level teachers at the I.L.E., there used to be a component entitled 'Coursebook evaluation', in which there was a certain amount of lecture input concerning the background principles of evaluation, based on the checklist in Daoud & Celce-Murcia (1979), followed by a group activity in which course participants offered comments, under certain headings, on a series of different textbooks produced for use in their schools. Post-course questionnaires over the first three vears of the I.L.E.'s existence revealed this component to be the most unpopular activity of all: in one internal survey of 126 participants, for example, 77% stated that they saw 'little' or 'no' value in the exercise; 86% said that they had 'little' or 'no' interest in the activity. Given that in Hong Kong each school is allowed to select its coursebooks from an approved list provided by the Education Department, it is not uncommon for teachers to be consulted on the choice of materials for their schools, though such consultations may only be informal and not necessarily acted upon. To require teachers with little or no experience in formalised evaluation processes to make comments or recommend materials under such vague headings as 'operational objectives' or 'work procedure' as used to be done at the I.L.E. resulted, not surprisingly, in teachers' becoming totally confused and in rendering the exercise counter-productive. Instead of leaving the course armed with the wherewithal to make constructive evaluative judgements of materials, based on informed group experience, course participants returned to school more firmly convinced than ever that their intuitive, anecdotal judgements offered more valid reference criteria than any formalised checklist or grading system.

Candlin and Breen (1979) offer a comprehensive series of questions which teachers might realistically ask themselves when making an evaluation of classroom materials, but the relevance and appropriateness of these questions is apparent only with specific reference to the teachers' own situations. 'Are the materials appropriate to the particular curriculum?' is a question which did not suggest itself immediately to the primary teachers I have mentioned above; nor does it necessarily apply to circumstances where the State imposes one coursebook on the whole population, as, for example, in certain countries in the Middle East.

> *Materials need to be contextualised within ... [the] curriculum process; they should be seen as one resource within it and not the 'driving force' of the curriculum itself. It will be the case, however, that materials may have their own purposes, they may imply or even prescribe a methodology, and they may provide criteria against which to assess learner's progress, judge our own methodology and reconsider the suitability of our own original purposes. So, there needs to be harmony between the 'hidden curriculum' of the materials we use and the actual curriculum within which we work.*
>
> *(Candlin & Breen 1979:178)*

I feel that the population of teachers whom I am considering here is not always in a position to formalise a judgement of this sort, and yet, almost unconsciously, perhaps, they will be seeking the harmony of the use of the materials in the classroom and the achievement of the curriculum objectives – provided that these are understood! There is a danger, I feel, not of a watering down, but of misguided thought consequent upon misunderstanding of the import of the syllabus or curriculum. 'It's not communicative!' ran a familiar critical refrain amongst I.L.E. course participants when evaluating their peers' lesson preparation: the remark was made in response to lessons without any games, ones with no visual aids, ones with an element of grammatical drill or explanation etc., etc. (Similarly, 'It's not student-centered!' meant that the desks weren't to be moved.) 'Communicative approach' became the watchword of the cognoscenti, the in-group (not necessarily the course tutots), a weapon in the hands of the 'knowers'. Teachers typically might react with either rejection ('I never use this approach.'), avowal of 'surrender' (a term actually used by one course participant), or token gestures in the direction of the methodology associated with the syllabus. One course participant once said to me, at the conclusion of his four months of in-service training destined to give him a background to the rationale behind the syllabus changes and the introduction of new materials, 'The course was fine, and I enjoyed it very much. I am determined to put into practice a lot of what you suggested – during the fortnight after the exams.' For him, there appeared to exist no harmonic relationship between the Government's language curriculum objectives, his school's internal examination objectives, and the materials (and methodology) he was supposed to use to achieve these. Thus he would persist in dealing with whatever materials he had at hand in his own time-hallowed way, because that had, in his experience, proved successful in preparing pupils effectively for coping with their examinations. His 'retraining', then, served only to confirm him in his belief in the efficacy of his own approach (his original training, one supposes) and its relevance to the existing examination requirements.

It is too simple to offer the solution that if examinations change, teaching will follow suit. Firstly, the assumption is false. Secondly, teaching should inform examinations and not the reverse; examination serve the teaching, they do not control it.

This admittedly isolated instance is nonetheless symptomatic of a general feeling I have experienced amongst teachers in different countries, that somehow the still 'new' approach (implying 'new' techniques) and the new materials lack something which has hitherto been present. The philosophy of the new approach is not in question, its relevance and appropriateness, as exemplified by materials, sometimes still are. These can be convincing to teachers only if their confidence in the materials can be strengthened and maintained. Teachers must be convincingly persuaded by demonstration or explication (or by deductive reasoning) that the particular materials are teachable within their own situations, e.g., to take extremes, with unruly, crowded, urban classes of mixed ability and an age range of up to four years; or with groups sitting on the sand under an awning of palm thatch, any attempts at speaking either by the teacher or pupils instantly drowned in the noise of the heavy, rolling surf. The materials must be seen to serve not only the needs of students, but also the needs of teachers for approachable support to their teaching, as well as meaningful and manageable activities for classroom use. The materials must accommodate the desire for conformity to local educational norms, and must not be seen radically to alter the chemistry of local classrooms, whilst at the same time, perhaps, seeking to effect change in these areas. (It is well known that the supplement of a 'communicative grammar' substantially improves the general acceptability of material to teachers and pupils alike. A secondary-school teacher in Hong Kong assured me recently that a certain series of revised coursebooks was a considerable improvement over the originals 'because the new books have a section on English grammar at the end of each chapter'.)

Materials must be seen to reflect the interests of students – not their interests as assumed by teachers and coursebook writers, but the genuine interests of the target age-groups within their socio-cultural milieu, and should ideally be flexible enough to be responsive to social changes which engender new interests at different periods. Coursebook writers seem for long to have got away with producing materials of pseudo-interest: what the pupils might or should be interested in. The elementary nature of the linguistic content should not excuse non-linguistic content that is psychologically inappropriate or unsatisfying – and yet this is what still sometimes happens.

Candlin and Breen (1979) offer a sophisticated list of questions which teachers may wish to ask themselves in order to evaluate their materials. I suggest, however, that this very sophistication renders the list to some extent unhelpful in the case of untrained, non-native-speaking English teachers. This is not to deny the essential necessity for the kind of analysis proposed by Candlin and Breen; indeed, would that it were possible to train all teachers to use it, and for materials to be significantly affected thereby. But for those who work in the real world of heavy timetables, the imposition of materials and severe local constraints on school life, there has to be a simpler, but not simplistic, model of appropriate evaluation. I have proposed some of those elements which suggest themselves as essentially relevant. The double entendre of my title sums up the position I have attempted to adopt.

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THE PROVISION OF ELT READING MATERIALS: AN OLD PROBLEM AND A NEW SOLUTION

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This short article reviews the development in the last twenty years of four types of reading materials (general and ESP course books, with their related supplementary readers), and considers the different problems encountered by large and small-scale publishers in attempting to satisfy the expanding demand.

In 1972 A.V.P. Elliott wrote:

> *In learning a foreign language a good start is, as we know, important. But it is not everything. A pupil taking English for five hours a week cannot learn the language effectively from his oral work, however good, or from the written work he does in school or at home. He needs, above all, experience of the language, and the only way he can get this experience is through reading. Therefore I would say: "Use the spoken words for teaching the language, but back it up with plenty of reading?" (The End of an Epoch)*

Both the title and the timing of this article were apposite, since in 1972 the communicative approach to ELT was about to replace the earlier grammar/translation and audio-lingual structural teaching methods. This was done partly to bring ELT in line with new pedagogical theory, and partly to meet new educational circumstances such as providing language education to a continually growing number of people which now encompasses some half a billion non-native speakers of English, or well over ten percent of the world's population.

Elliott's general point that pupils need experience, i.e. exposure to the target language outside the classroom in order to improve their language skills is still valid, although his point that 'the only way he (the pupil) can get this experience is through reading' requires modification; exposure to the spoken language through cinema, video and television is now more generally available than in 1972, and, in fact, the time the learner is exposed to the target language in this way, may count for much of the time formerly spent on reading.

The course materials in common use in 1972 by such writers as Palmer, Hornby, West and Stannard Allen, have for the most part disappeared, but it is perhaps worth noting in passing that a demand for ELT materials with traditional elements still exists as seen in the fact that one of the best-selling course books today is Raymond Murphy's "English Grammar In Use," C.U.P. (1985). In 1972 the general courses were backed up by a solid list of simplified readers many of which dated back to the early 1930's, e.g. "Robinson Crusoe," by Daniel Defoe, simplified by Michael West and revised by D.K. Swan, Longman: London (1931), New edition 1976. Many of these readers are still with us, although possibly in re-edited and repackaged forms, e.g. the Longman Classics series which appeared in 1987. As for ESP reading materials, however, they were rare in 1972, and in spite of their importance, they are still surprisingly rare to this day.

The nineteen years since Elliott published his article have seen many changes in general ELT reading materials. The most radical of these changes has perhaps been in the design of textbooks. This has been done, in part, out of necessity to encapsulate the theoretical elements of the communicative approach, but also to appeal to a much wider ability spread of students than in the past. As Hill and Thomas (1989) rightly observe:

> *In a country where only ten per cent of the 13-year-olds attend secondary school, all the students are potentially of university calibre. In one where 100 per cent attend and have EFL lessons, there will be many learning English who rarely read in their mother tongue. (p. 230)*

The number of supplementary readers available on the market has increased to nearly two thousand, but they are still mainly produced by only seven British publishers Cassell, Collins, Heinemann, Hutchinson, Longman, Macmillan and Oxford University Press. These readers have been thoroughly researched in the Edinburgh Project on Extensive Reading (EPER), and reviewed in depth by Hill and Thomas (1988, 89). A similar survey of ESP reading materials has been carried out by Flowerdew (1990).

Supplementary readers in general and those of Longman in particular depend ultimately on the word-frequency lists compiled by Thorndike in the late twenties and modified by West (1936, 1953). The debt to West is sometimes acknowledged, e.g. Fry (1963) but is sometimes only implicit, e.g. Procter (ed.) (1978) in the defining vocabulary of "The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English" (pp. 1283–88). Since the works of Thorndike appeared, other word frequency lists have been successfully compiled, especially Kučera and Francis (1967) and Hofland and Johansson (1982), but surprisingly little use has been made of their findings. Publishers continue to publish simplified readers with only vague indications of level such as "elementary" or "intermediate", make no reference to published lists of either words or grammatical structures, state nothing concerning word counts, give no definition of "word" nor issue lists of the words upon which their readers are based.

Furthermore, in spite of the considerable research into the skill of reading in recent years, both in terms of using overt markers such as titles, subtitles, paragraphing, the conclusion, or discrete markers derived from discourse analysis, few new series based on this new research have appeared even with such simple features as varied print types or page layout beyond the publishers' new obsession with the so-called "busy page" in which solid text is broken up by pictures etc. as in a popular magazine.

In a field closely related to the production of reading materials, namely foreign learners' dictionaries, there has, however, been one new interesting and possibly very significant development, the publication of "Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary" (1987), and the Collins COBUILD Essential English Dictionary (1988). The latter also contains a defining vocabulary list constructed according to the rather novel principle of carrying out a word frequency count based on the lexicographer's definitions. It is still too early to judge the effect of this new venture on the future of ELT, as a firm list of supplementary readers based on the COBUILD database is yet to be published, but it is worth noting COBUILD's emphasis on one of the latest buzzwords in ELT, "authenticity". This is exemplified in the trade literature on COBUILD.

> *Firstly, it is a dictionary of real English – English as it is really used today. Not necessarily how conventional rules say it should be used or how we may like to think it is used, but how it is actually used in books, the media and everyday speech . . . Secondly, the Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary is not only a dictionary of real English – it is also written and presented* **in** *real English . . .*

Such advertising copy appears to present "real English" despite all its inconsistencies as the panacea to all the old problems. While not denying that authenticity is an important element in ELT materials production, experienced practitioners of the ELT craft also realise that equally important elements are good selection, grading and presentation. Anyone who has either taught or made a serious attempt to learn foreign languages knows just how useful well-graded readers based on a rational and systematic introduction of lexis and syntax can be in giving exposure to the target language and in developing some idea of order to help the learner deal with the unrestricted flow of natural language.

In spite of numerous positive developments in the past twenty years many problems related to ELT materials still need to be resolved. One of these problems is how to enable the language learner to make the transition from reading in a controlled vocabulary of two or three thousand words (however this is defined) to reading materials written for native speakers of English on technical subjects such as medicine or engineering. No instant solution is likely, and a lot of patient research is still required.

A means of alleviating the problem, however, now exists in the form of the recent emergence of desktop publishing, since much of the research material concerning bridging the learning gap between reading materials prepared for language learners and those for native speakers may now gain a wider readership. At the moment such research exists mainly in the form of unpublished theses, e.g. Bird (1971), (1985), Lattuf (1979), or as semi-official documents with only limited distribution, e.g. Cheung Yat-shing (1986).

Academics and students alike still face the problem that the publication of much potentially valuable research material is commercially non-viable for large publishing houses, since these depend on long print runs of 5 000 or above to reduce unit costs, and achieve a quick turnover to reinvest in the next project. As a rule of thumb in the book trade, it is said that books remaining on the bookseller's shelf three months after delivery are losing money. Furthermore, in order to illustrate the hazardous nature of publishing, it is also said that publishers rarely accept more than one unsolicited manuscript in ten. If ten such published manuscripts are printed, then on average only one will be reprinted, and it is this one reprint which represents the publisher's clear profit, since any profits from first print runs only cover overheads. Under the circumstances, therefore, it is hardly surprising that publishers do all they can to continue selling products such as simplified readers dating originally from the 1930's rather than invest in research in order to publish educationally more progressive materials.

Desktop publishers, however, may well be able to keep overheads low after the initial investment in a personal computer and the relevant software, and they may even make profits on short print runs of as few as 300 copies. Their problems lie in quite different directions, such as being regarded as competing with, rather than complementing established commercial publishers, in spite of the fact that they play only a marginal and supplementary role in terms of publishing economics.

The significance of desktop publishing should be that it is flexible, and therefore better able and prepared to undertake small original projects than the large commercial publishers operating within the framework of a costly bureaucracy created to safeguard the financial interests of a multitude of frequently faceless shareholders who may know a lot about money but nothing about books.

If we consider the simplified reader as an example of a field in which the desktop publisher can play a useful role, then it is clear that the potential market is vast. The Edinburgh Project on Extensive Reading (EPER) found from its questionnaires that over 90% of those who responded recommend that a larger number of easy readers should be available to those taking part in the scheme, and over 70% recommend that a greater variety of readers/titles should exist.

Furthermore, some of the problems encountered by large publishers described in the following quotation from Hill and Thomas (1988) might be overcome by smaller publishers such as a desktop publishers, especially if the work can be done as part of a joint venture.

> *A second difficulty is the problem of choosing content that is suitable and interesting for the EFL learner. One solution is to specialize in information about the United Kingdom, as CSS (Cassells Spotlight Series) does for the most part. Another is to concentrate on specialized topics such as sport, or space research, the problem here being that any information goes rapidly out of date. Heinemann in their series Heinemann Science and Technology aimed for a specialized market, but it turned out to be too specialized, and despite the attractive layout and clear illustrations, the series did not prove particularly successful.*
>
> *So what solutions are there?*

I suggest that one of several solutions might be joint-ventures between desktop and commercial publishers. Such arrangements would benefit desktop publishers who could take advantage of commercial publishers' networks for promotion and distribution. Commercial publishers would benefit by being in contact with a greater range of original ideas and small-scale projects but with little financial risk to themselves, and at the same time by being in a position to adopt projects if/when they reached sufficiently large proportions where economies of large-scale production become viable.

Before this can take place, however, considerable changes of attitude must take place in the world of publishing. Desktop publishers may have to be prepared to sacrifice some of their independence and treat publishing realistically as a business. Commercial publishers, on the other hand, may have to learn to approach their tiny potential rivals with more understanding and a more open mind.

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WHAT'S THE USE OF LEARNERS' DICTIONARIES?

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Vocabulary acquisition

May I start* with a quotation from a recent paper by Gabriele Stein? (She is not only a well-known German scholar working on English, as professor of English at Heidelberg, but she was the first president of EURALEX, the European Association for Applied Linguistics.) At the third EURALEX Congress in Budapest (Hungary) she argued that vocabulary acquisition had been seriously neglected in language teaching and language learning for far too long (and the quotation gives one important reason for this neglect):

> ***"The belief generally held is that vocabulary acquisition can be delayed until the rudiments of pronunciation and a substantial proportion of the grammatical system have been mastered." (1990: 401)***

There is a simple experiment you can do yourself to demonstrate that vocabulary is more important in communication than grammar. If you take a text, any text in English, and first of all delete all the grammatical information from it – all the little 'function words' like conjunctions, articles, prepositions, pronouns and endings of nouns and verbs, you can probably still guess what the text is about. But if you leave all the grammatical information intact and delete the words themselves, i.e. all 'lexical words' like nouns, verbs and adjectives, you will not be able to make sense of what is left at all. So we can safely conclude that vocabulary is crucial in communication, and therefore it ought to be crucial in language learning.

This is exactly what people like West, Thorndike, Hornby and Palmer have been saying since the 1930's, under such slogans as 'vocabulary selection' or 'vocabulary control'. The claim is made that the 700 most frequent words can account for 75% of all texts, the 1 500 most frequent words cover 78%, and the 2 500 most frequent words cover 80% of texts. So if we concentrated on this core of common or basic vocabulary, we would make learning more productive or efficient.

Unfortunately, there are some snags in a purely statistical approach to vocabulary teaching, and today we take a more sophisticated view of vocabulary selection (cf. Richards 1976). What is important is not just the numerical frequency of a word, but also its complexity, its learnability, and the specific motivation the learner may have for its acquisition in terms of interest and familiarity.

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* This is an adaption of a lecture given at the City Polytechnic of Hong Kong on 6 March 1991

Relative frequency is certainly an important factor for establishing whether an item is a candidate for the 'core' vocabulary, according to Ronald Carter, an applied linguist at Nottingham, who has given us a check-list of tests or criteria for determining whether a particular word is a member of the core or nuclear vocabulary (Carter 1987).

Thus, a word like *cat* is more basic because it is more common or frequent than, say, *pussy* or *feline* or *grimalkin*. (In Roland Hindmarsh's CAMBRIDGE ENGLISH LEXICON, a consolidated frequency dictionary for teachers of English, *cat* is listed as a 'Level 1' word, i.e. it is among the 600 most frequent words of English, while its rarer synonyms do not figure even among the first 5 000 most frequent!)

But it scores well on the other tests, too: It is easy to pronounce. It is morphologically productive, i.e. other words can be derived from it, such as *tom-cat, pussy-cat, catty* and *cat's-eye*. It has a wide collocability range, i.e. it combines freely with other words, e.g. *big cat, stroke a cat, swing a cat*. It is syntactically more variable and semantically more substitutable than synonyms like *feline* or compounds like *cat-o'-nine-tails*. It is neutral in style, as compared with the slang word *moggy* or the informal word *puss*. It is relatively easy to translate, and it has etymological cognates in related languages. Finally, it can act as a super-ordinate or generic word for more specific cat-like creatures such as *domestic cat, wild cat, Persian cat* etc.

I do not have time to pursue the topic of vocabulary selection, and certainly cannot go into the question of how vocabulary items, once selected, should be taught, but must instead move on to the topic of dictionaries in general and learners' dictionaries in particular. Dictionaries in my view (and I am not the only one who thinks so) are one of the most undervalued and at the same time most effective tools in the process of vocabulary learning.

What is a learner's dictionary?

The simple answer is the definition given by Thomas Herbst in the new *Encyclopedia of Lexicography*:

> **"A learner's dictionary is a synchronic monolingual dictionary intended to meet the demands of the foreign user."** (1990: 1379)

There are problems with such a definition, as we shall see in a moment, but it works reasonably well in terms of the extracts from 3 British dictionaries of this type that I have given here: the ALD, the LDOCE, and the COBUILD.

Now what is so special about these dictionaries? That they are all 'monolingual' we can see at a glance. Both the examples and the explanations are in English, the target language of the foreign learner. That they are all 'synchronic' is also self-evident: they cover the language of today and are not interested in any earlier periods in the history of the language. The third part of Herbst's definition is the most import-

fag /fæg/ *n* **1** [sing U] (*infml*) tedious and tiring job: *I've got to tidy my room. What a fag!* ○ *It's too much (of a) fag.* **2** [C] (*Brit infml*) cigarette. **3** [C] (*Brit*) (formerly) junior boy at a public school performing certain duties for a senior boy. **4** [C] (*esp US*) = FAGGOT 3.

▷ **fag** /fæg/ *v* (-gg-) **1** [I, Ipr, Ip] ~ (away) (at sth/at doing sth) (*infml*) do very tiring work: *fagging (away) in the office, at her work.* **2** [I, Ipr] ~ (for sb) act as a fag(3) (for sb). **3** (phr v) **fag** sb/sth out (*infml*) make (a person or an animal) very tired: *Running soon fags me out.* ○ *He was completely fagged out*, ie exhausted.

☐ '**fag-end** *n* (*Brit infml*) **1** end of a cigaretta after it has been smoked. **2** (*fig*) inferior or useless remnant; worthless part of anything: *He only heard the fat-end of their conversation.*

ALD (1948/89)

fag¹ /fæg/ *n BrE sl* a cigaretta

fag² *n AmE derog sl for* HOMOSEXUAL

fag³ *n infml, esp. BrE* **1** [S] an unpleasant and tiring piece of work: *Cleaning the oven is a real fag!* **2** [C] (in certain British PUBLIC SCHOOLS) a young pupil who has to do jobs for an older pupil

fag⁴ *v* -gg- [I] *infml, esp. BrE* **1** [(for)] (of a pupil in certain British PUBLIC SCHOOLS) to have to do jobs for an older pupil **2** [(AWAY)] to work hard

fag end /, ' '/ *n infml* **1** [C] *BrE* the last bit of a smoked and usu. no longer burning cigarette: *an ashtray full of fag ends* **2** [*the* + S + of] *esp. BrE* the very end or last part of something: *At the fag end of the football season the fans lose interest*

fagged /fægd/ also fagged out /, '/— *adj* [F] *sl, esp. BrE* extremely tired

LDOCE (1978/87)

fag /fæg/, **fags, fagging, fagged**. **1** A fag is 1.1 in informal British English, a cigarette. EG *I just slipped out for a packet of fags.*	N COUNT
1.2 in very informal American English, a homosexual; an offensive use.	N COUNT
2 If you say that a particular task is a **fag**, you mean that it is boring or tiring and you do not really want to do it; an informal use. EG *You may find it a bit of a fag to dig up every weed.*	N ENG: A + M, USED AS C ↑ nuisance – pain
3 At some British public schools, **a fag** is a younger boy who has to do jobs for an older boy. EG *He was my fag at Eton.*	N COUNT ↑ servant
4 A younger boy who **fags** for an older boy at a British public school has to do jobs for him.	V: IF + PREP THEN *for*
5 See also fagged.	
fag end, fag ends; an informal expression, also spelled with a hyphen. **1** A fag end is the last bit of a cigarette, which people throw away when they have smoked the rest.	N COUNT = stub
2 The fag end of something is the last or worst part of it. EG *...the fag end of the day.*	N COUNT + *of*
fagged /fægd/. If someone is fagged or fagged out, they are very tired; used in informal British English. EG *'You look fagged to death,' said Kate.*	ADJ QUALIT: PRED = knackered

COBUILD (1987)

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ant: what really distinguishes – or ought to distinuish – the 'learner's dictionary' (LD) from the traditional 'native speaker dictionary' (NSD) is the fact that it is, in Herbst's words, "intended to meet the demands of the foreign user".

I want to examine to what extent LD's are different from NSD's, and whether they actually meet the demands of the foreign user. I shall do this by referring to the above extracts from the three British learners' dictionaries.

There are about 10 design features that most people stress when they characterise learners' dictionaries.

The first I have already hinted at: restricted vocabulary. And in this respect LD's are clearly distinguishable from NSD's: they give considerably more information about the central core of the vocabulary, but they also (and that may be a *dis*advantage) give less information (or rather: no information) about peripheral, less common words.

The frequency of vocabulary items is taken into account in three different ways: firstly by selecting the word-list, usually on the basis of existing word-counts, or after analysing a new corpus of texts. A word like *fag* is just about inside a frequency of occurrence that ensures its coverage in these three dictionaries. (I must admit I was a little surprised, actually, to find all four senses of the word *fag* included, one way or the other. Hindmarsh's CAMBRIDGE ENGLISH LEXICON, for example, does not list any of them.)

The second way in which LD's use vocabulary is in definitions, by trying to restrict the kinds of words that are used in explanations of meanings to basic core items. LDOCE in particular has stressed this feature, less in the 2nd edition than in the 1st, by insisting that almost all definitions use only a limited vocabulary of about 2 000 of the most common English words.

The third way in which word frequency plays a part in LD's is in the ordering of senses within entries. You notice that LDOCE and COBUILD put the sense 'cigarette' before those of 'homosexual', 'boring job' and 'public school pupil'. The ALD disagrees, but its entries were probably in place before recent frequency information became available. Having said all this, I wonder whether vocabulary selection is not at least in part counterintuitive, because advanced learners may want to look up rare ('hard') words as much as frequent ('easy') words.

The second design feature of LD's is to do with separating out the different senses of words and the explanation of these meanings. You can see, by looking at the sample entries, how these three dictionaries differ in the way they handle 'sense discrimination' and 'definitions'.

The ALD uses a definition and 2 examples for *fag* 1 (boring job), a synonym for *fag* 2 (cigarette), a definition for *fag* 3 (junior pupil). LDOCE has a synonym for *fag* 1 (cigarette) and a cross-reference for *fag* 2 (homosexual). Sense *fag* 3 is subdivided: 1 (boring job) has a definition and an example, 2 (junior pupil) has a definition. COBUILD uses full-sentence definitions, most with examples, of *fag* 1 (subdivided into cigarette and homosexual), *fag* 2 (boring job) and *fag* 3 (junior pupil).

I wonder whether you agree that this variety of defining styles must be rather difficult for foreign learners. Do we dare ask the rather timid question: would it not be easier if instead of abstract definitions or contrived synonyms the learners were to be given a single-word translation equivalent in his/her own language?

Do not worry, we are in good company. As long ago as 1899 Henry Sweet, the famous British linguist (who was the model for the phonetician Henry Higgins in Shaw's play "Pygmalion" which became the musical "My Fair Lady"), stressed that even if you banned translation from the classroom, foreign learners would still make mental associations between words in the target language with equivalent words in their mother tongue! And Oxford U.P. and other dictionary publishers have made a lot of money, a second time round, from letting their monolingual LD's be turned into 'bilingualised' LD's (see below).

The third design feature of LD's is the treatment of grammar, in terms of such things as word classes, subcategorisation, collocations and clause patterns. Hornby had claimed that a foreign learner must be given explicit guidance on the syntactic behaviour of words, and our three dictionary extracts exemplify this point very well.

If you look at the verbal sense of *fag*, the one marked with a triangle or arrow in ALD (with 3 subdivisions), the one numbered 4 in LDOCE (and subdivided into 1 and 2), and the one numbered 4 in COBUILD, you will certainly get more specific grammatical information than in an NSD, but some research into dictionary use has shown that learners are often puzzled by the abundance of codes, abbreviations and examples.

We note, in passing, the COBUILD has introduced a novel feature, the so-called 'extra column' on the right of entries, which gives semantic and grammatical information in abbreviated form. An Exeter EFL teacher has recently told me that he advises his students to use the items preceded by an equal sign as alternatives for stylistic variation, e.g. *fag end = stub* or *fagged out = knackered*. Such advice may be particularly useful in cases where a colloquial phrasal verb may be considered too informal in academic writing and should be replaced by a more formal single-word verb, e.g. *make it = succeed, make out = comprehend, make up your mind = decide*.

The fourth design feature after vocabulary selection, sense discrimination and grammatical specification is 'usage labelling'. A variety of labels can be found in the three dictionary extracts to mark such things as formality level, regionalisms and technical uses. A word like *fag* in the sense of 'cigarette' is labelled 'Brit infml' in the ALD, 'BrE sl' in LDOCE, and 'informal British English' in COBUILD; *fag* in the sense 'homosexual' is marked 'esp US' (with a cross-reference to *faggot*) in the ALD, 'AmE derog sl' in LDOCE, and 'very informal American English' plus 'offensive' in COBUILD.

Such usage labels are of course also used in monolingual NSD's and in bilingual dictionaries, but in LD's they are considered essential warnings, especially if the dictionary is to be consulted for the purpose of helping the user to write in the target language, provided of course he/she can work out the often complicated conventions.

The remaining typical characteristics I shall mention only in passing. Feature 5, pronunciation, is not very different from NSD's (most of which have gone over to IPA), but one could have a long debate on how useful phonetic transcriptions are to foreign learners at all. Feature 6, examples, are certainly more elaborate and more useful in LD's than NSD's; the issue that experts have not yet settled is whether these should be based on 'authentic' citations in a text corpus (COBUILD) or whether they can be made more user-friendly by inventing 'typical' instances (ALD and LDOCE). Feature 7, pictorial illustrations, could form the subject of a special lecture. ALD and LDOCE have line drawings for selected items, like most NSD's in the North American tradition, but COBUILD have decided, perhaps for financial reasons or lack of space, not to use pictures. Feature 8, etymology, is nowadays usually omitted in LD's, since Clarence Barnhart found out in a survey of North American college students in the 1950's that they ranked this item last in order of preference. Feature 9, cultural information, I would like to see not only incorporated, but stressed in LD's. But then, culture-specific vocabulary is still lamentably ignored in both NSD's and in bilingual dictionaries.

Monolingual or bilingual?

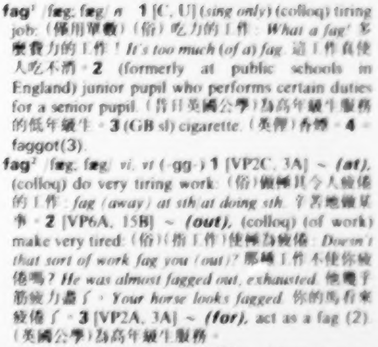
When I introducted Thomas Herbst's definition of LD I said that there are problems with it. The main problem I have with it is its limitation to the monolingual type. It so happens that for English the monolingual LD does seem to have become the norm, and the examples I have given from the Oxford, Longman and Collins dictionaries may bear this out.

There is a widely held view among EFL teachers that since we now have monolingual target language LD's, the use of bilingual dictionaries should be discouraged. This view is understandable due to the fact that EFL teachers often operate in classes with mixed language background, that they cannot be expected to know the respective mother tongues of all their students, and that in any case they are trying to encourage these learners to communicate through the medium of English.

However, speaking globally and realistically, this view is short-sighted, hence my own reservations:

> ***". . . the use of bilingual dictionaries is so entrenched within and outside formal languages classes – where translation activities still reign supreme – and monolingual learners' dictionaries are so underdeveloped in languages other than English, that the idea of 'weaning away' the learner from the translation dictionary seems rather unrealistic." (Hartmann 1987: 22).***

Why else would there be a need to adapt the OXFORD ADVANCED LEARNER'S DICTIONARY for Chinese students? See the entry *fag* from the 'bilingualised' version of the ALD, currently being revised.



fag¹ /fæg; fæg/ *n* **1** [C, U] (*sing only*) (colloq) tiring job: (僅用單數)(俗)吃力的工作: *What a fag!* 多麼費力的工作! *It's too much (of a) fag.* 這工作真使人吃不消。**2** (formerly at public schools in England) junior pupil who performs certain duties for a senior pupil. (昔日英國公學)為高年級生服務的低年級生。**3** (GB sl) cigarette. (英俚)香煙。**4** = faggot(3).

fag² /fæg; fæg/ *vi, vt* (-gg-) **1** [VP2C, 3A] ~ ***(at)***, (colloq) do very tiring work: (俗)做辛苦令人疲倦的工作: *fag (away) at sth/at doing sth.* 辛苦地做某事。**2** [VP6A, 15B] ~ ***(out)***, (colloq) (of work) make very tired: (俗)(指工作)使辛勞為疲倦: *Doesn't that sort of work fag you (out)?* 那種工作不使你疲倦嗎? *He was almost fagged out, exhausted.* 他幾乎筋疲力盡了。*Your horse looks fagged.* 你的馬有些疲倦了。**3** [VP2A, 3A] ~ ***(for)***, act as a fag (2). (英國公學)為高年級生服務。

The trend towards bilingualised LD's (there are similar adaptations available now for language as diverse as Arabic, Hebrew, Greek, Polish and Italian) is in line with the double criticism that, on the one hand, monolingual LD's are still too much like NSD's and, on the other hand, straightforward bilingual dictionaries are too far removed from the target language and tend to encourage interference errors because they promote a mistaken trust in direct word-for-word equivalents. Perhaps we have become more sceptical about a single most appropriate dictionary format, perhaps we are more wary about dogmatic statements on which dictionary is good for you, and realise that more research is needed on what real dictionary users do in real situations of dictionary look-up.

Already we have seen that there are several very different monolingual LD's. If we are prepared to consider that bilingual dictionaries also may have their place and new bilingualised compromise dictionaries are being developed for learners, why not go a step further and investigate whether there are still other dictionary types that might be useful for meeting particular needs of foreign language learners? (Cf. several contributions in the RELC volume edited by Tickoo 1989.)

One relatively new type of LD that many EFL teachers and students have found helpful is the LONGMAN LEXICON, a new style thesaurus which gives definitions in context for a limited learners' vocabulary in thematic groups. The word *fag* appears in Entry E85 (see extract), *fag* in the sense 'homosexual' is covered in Entry C34 (nouns and adjectives relating to homosexuality).

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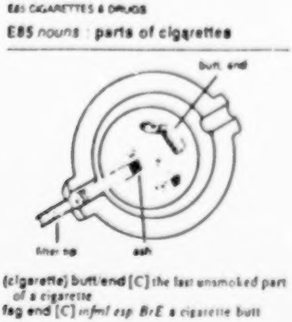
LLCE
(1981)


E85 CIGARETTES & DRUGS

E85 *nouns* : **parts of cigarettes**

butt end
filter tip
ash

(cigarette) butt/end [C] *the last unsmoked part of a cigarette*

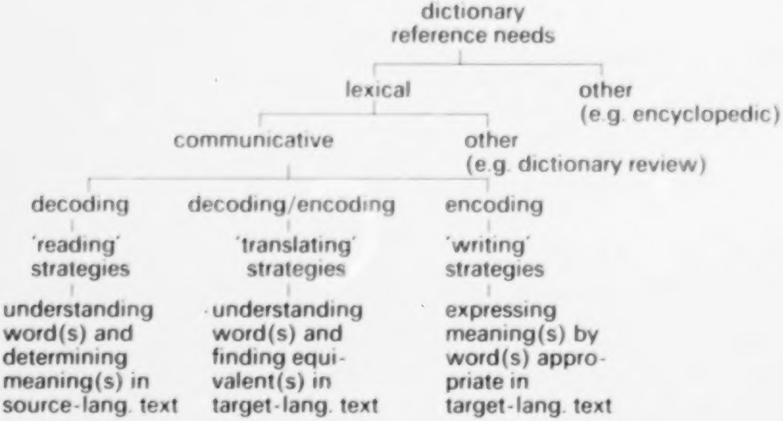
fag end [C] *infml esp BrE a cigarette butt*

Reference needs and skills

We have gradually shifted right into the centre of what I call the 'user perspective', an approach that asks not what given dictionaries may offer to anonymous users, but what reference needs users have, how these particular needs might be met, and what specific reference skills are required in the process. The main distinction that we can make is between reading and writing, comprehension and production, understanding and expression, or decoding and encoding.

It was the great achievement of pioneers like Hornby to realise that more explicit grammatical, semantic and stylistic information is required if the dictionary is really to help the learner compose in the target language, a function traditionally reserved for the bilingual translation dictionary.

The tree diagram below summarises some of these basic distinctions in terms of dictionary reference needs.


dictionary
reference needs
lexical
other
(e.g. encyclopedic)
communicative
other
(e.g. dictionary review)
decoding
decoding/encoding
encoding
'reading'
strategies
'translating'
strategies
'writing'
strategies
understanding
word(s) and
determining
meaning(s) in
source-lang. text
understanding
word(s) and
finding equi-
valent(s) in
target-lang. text
expressing
meaning(s) by
word(s) appro-
priate in
target-lang. text

The first division, from the top, is between 'lexical' reference and 'encyclopedic' reference, although the line between knowledge of vocabulary and knowledge of the world is not easy to draw, and often dictionaries cover much encyclopedic as well as lexical information; the second division is between 'communicative' and non-communicative needs. (I have given one example of a non-communicative reference, for the purpose of a critical review of a dictionary.) There are three types of communicative dictionary reference on this diagram, the two I have already mentioned, 'decoding' or reading and 'encoding' or writing, and a third, in between, which we can call 'translating' and regard as a combination of decoding and encoding strategies.

We associate decoding activities mainly with the conventional alphabetic dictionary: we encounter a word in a text, and we want to look up its meaning. For encoding activities, however, we may require a thesaurus type dictionary. When you are composing a text about smoking, you will want to be quite sure which particular word to choose to express an idea, and a dictionary like the **LONGMAN LEXICON** will help you distinguish a *fag* from a *cigarette*, a *cigar*, or a *filter tip*, or a *fag* from a *homosexual*, a *queer*, or a *gay*.

Whatever old and new dictionaries may be designed in the future, one thing is certain: we need to find out more about the dictionary user, his/her preferences, habits and experiences in actual contexts of dictionary consultation.

Imagine you found yourself in a decoding situation, the sort of thing you do everyday: reading and trying to make sense of an English text, with the help of a dictionary (cf. Scholfield 1982). What operations would you perform, and what sorts of skills would you require?

Suppose you had come across a sentence like *'You look fagged to death', said Kate*, and you were not quite sure what it meant.

- your first step is to decide which dictionary to consult (and I assume you would choose one of the 3 or 4 LD's I have described);
- your second step would be to make your mind up which word it was that caused your uncertainly (let us say you decide it is the word *fagged*);
- your third step is to decide what its 'canonical' or dictionary form is (2 of the 3 dictionaries actually list it as a headword, but that is rare; normally you would have to reduce this form to the infinitive of the verb *fag*);
- the fourth step is to search for the appropriate entry, and for that you need to know the alphabet (or other organising principle) to locate the headword *fag* or *fagged*;
- the fifth step is to decide where in the entry your particular *fag* is to be found (ALD: 2nd paragraph of the entry *fag* either subentry 1 or 3; LDOCE: *fagged* as separate entry; COBUILD *fagged* the separate entry where I had taken my example from!)

In the real world of dictionary look-up, you would probably have to go through two more operations:

- extract the information that is relevant for your sentence, and
- relate what you have found to the original context that started you on your search in the first place.

When you have skilfully completed your 7 steps, you either have success, or – if not – you may have to start again, or ask a friend or teacher, or (as sometimes happens) give up! The implication of all this is that dictionary reference is a complicated business, requiring skills that we are not born with, so we have to acquire them, often by trial and error. The obvious thing would be to teach these skills, to give deliberate instruction. No doubt, your teachers do this for you here as a matter of course.

If not, another answer may be the use of dictionary workbooks which more and more of the dictionary publishers are issuing to tell you how to get the most benefit out of their products. Unfortunately, as one of our researchers at Exeter found in his critical comparison of 40 such manuals (Stark 1990), they are still far from perfect. This is, to conclude our survey of learners' dictionaries, just one of the many problems awaiting a satisfactory solution.

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ON BEING LITERATE IN HONG KONG

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Literacy for What?

We understand literacy to mean the ability to read and write – but first and foremost to read. A question immediately arises here: to read and write what? There is a whole range of things that one can read and write: simple street names and neon signs, price tags in department stores and menus in restaurants, instructions and manuals that come with goods, posters, notices, and graffiti in public places. Each of these represents one kind of writing in its own right. But it can perhaps be argued that being able to read any of these kinds of writing is one thing, and being able to read connected texts is quite another. By connected texts we mean written materials like notes, letters, newspapers, magazines and books.

There seems to be a major difference between these two kinds of material, which is that explicit reasoning and argumentation is possible only with connected texts but not material of the other kind (e.g. signs and menus). There is a crucial distinction here between a 'lower-level literacy' which allows a person to play no more than a passive role and to stand at the receiving end of messages and instructions, as opposed to a 'higher-level literacy' which allows a person not only to decode messages but also to participate, directly or indirectly, outwardly or introspectively, in discussion and argumentation – and therefore to have, at least potentially, some say in his/her own fate. In fact, there may even be some truth in saying that to be equipped with the lower-level kind of literacy but not 'real literacy' is a fate worse than illiteracy iteself, because a literacy that does not open up possibilities of participation in rational and sustained argumentation is at best a triviality and at worst a liability. The ability to stand at the receiving end of messages could well become an apparatus of control: advertising and propaganda being prime examples here. By equipping people with a receptacle in the form of a lower-level literacy, those in power can turn them into unthinking and mindless subjects, ideal for manipulation and engineering.

If such a distinction between lower and higher-level literacy is worth making, it would seem to follow that literacy should in practice be defined not merely as the ability to read (and write), but perhaps more specifically as the ability to read (and write) certain kinds of material – letters, newspapers, magazines, and books. And of these various kinds of written material, newspapers would seem to provide the most natural base line for an operational definition of literacy, for the following reasons:

(1) Of the many different kinds of written material, newspapers are by far the most widely and regularly read at least in urban settings

throughout the world. At a time when telecommunication technology is surging ahead, newspapers represent for entire populations the only arena for the activity of reading to take place. They remain in a sense the last bastion of the written word.

(2) Newspapers have become a familiar feature of life in modern societies, and the most accessible source of ideas and information about one's own locality and the wider world.

(3) They provide a daily source of pleasure and entertainment – forms of life where cultural values and social attitudes are most readily produced and reproduced.

(4) For many people, particularly those in less open societies, newspapers serve as a window (albeit a possibly highly selective one) to a dynamic and fast-moving outside world.

(5) Newspapers provide at least the possibility of participation in discussions and arguments about local or international affairs.

(6) Newspapers are also of fundamental importance as cultural products. They form part of culture, but at the same time they constitute a means through which culture may be transmitted.

From the point of view of foreign learners of Chinese in Hong Kong, participation in the local community cannot really begin until some measure of cultural awareness is developed. We suggest that one of the best means of achieving this end is through reading newspapers.

The Making of Newspaper Style in Hong Kong

We contend that newspapers in Hong Kong speak a language of their own. No doubt they resemble, and have something in common with, newspapers in other Chinese communities. But they also have many unique features of their own. It can be argued that literacy in Hong Kong does not mean quite the same thing as literacy in Taiwan or the People's Republic of China. There are limits to a general definition of 'literacy in Chinese' for all Chinese communities around the world. For example, a non-Cantonese speaking person from Beijing will not find Hong Kong newspapers readily comprehensible. It would take him considerable time and effort to get used to them, and at the same time a degree of familiarity with Cantonese as a spoken vernacular. Precisely, the question being addressed in this paper is: just what are the conventions, and the corresponding skills and strategies, that go into the making (and reading) of "newspaper language in Hong Kong"? And if literacy should be defined in terms of newspaper reading, then an explicit and systematic delineation of these skills and conventions would be crucial to our understanding of what it means to be literate in Hong Kong.

Why should written texts found in Hong Kong newspapers be any different from Chinese writing in general, we may well ask? After all, doesn't everyone share a uniform writing system throughout the Chinese-speaking world? Isn't it the case that in spite of all their differences in speech (dialects, etc.), Chinese people have always had a common writing system?

There is of course some truth – even more than some truth – in this observation. There is a sense in which the notion of 'a Chinese language' is built upon a common writing system. Indeed, it may even be said that the ideas of a Chinese people and Chinese civilization, and the very notion of "Chinese-ness" itself, have their roots in the Chinese characters.

Any yet, just as the notions of "language", "people", or "civilization" are in a sense idealizations, "the Chinese writing system" too is an idealization – and to some extent a simplification. For one thing, if by "the Chinese writing system" we mean no more than a set of Chinese characters, then all (literate) Chinese people would share a writing system only in the trivial sense that the sum total of all the characters in use by them could in principle be collected together to form some kind of an overarching set – each variety and style of writing would in this sense be a sub-set of this universal set. This is all very well except that it would not then seem to make very much sense to say that everyone knows "the Chinese writing system" in the form of this overarching set of characters. Indeed such a notion of a Chinese writing system cannot by definition be fully known by *anyone*, let alone shared by all Chinese people. For example, a lot of special characters are in common use amongst dialect speakers, while new, *ad hoc* characters continue to be created from time to time. Such characters would essentially have no more than a limited currency.

Even if all (literate) Chinese people could somehow be said to have learned one and the same set of characters, it would still not follow that they therefore share a common writing system. A written text is more than a random series of characters. There are conventions within each kind of writing which have to be followed in order to produce acceptable texts, and these same conventions will have to be invoked in interpreting and understanding these texts. In this sense it is even less clear what one might mean to say that all Chinese people share the same writing system.

We alluded to the relevance of the spoken vernacular in the process of reading and understanding Chinese newspapers in Hong Kong. Precisely what kind of a relationship are we positing between speech and literacy in this context? Strictly speaking, literacy relates primarily, even solely, to writing, and would seem to have little to do with speech. But it seems to us that a certain degree of familiarity with Cantonese as a spoken vernacular is assumed in reading Chinese-language newspapers in Hong Kong. Some elements can be discerned in newspaper texts which are derived from features of spoken Cantonese.

In arguing for a certain relation between written texts (newspaper articles) and speech, we are not claiming that writing is a simple representation of speech. The relationship is much more complicated than that. The assumption is often made that whereas reading is a learned skill, speaking comes naturally. But this can only be true of speech at the most rudimentary and informal level. Spoken Cantonese in its more formal modes would equally require learning and practice. More important, it presupposes familiarity with writing, including newspapers. Thus it may not be too much of an exaggeration to say that the ability to speak formally and (as it were) literarily, must also be regarded as part of literacy. In any case, formal speech is often "speaking as if we were writing", or "speaking from a written text".

Another caveat: we are aware of the difficultly of the notion of "newspaperese". Not every newspaper is the same, and even within the same newspaper, articles are written in quite different styles – the news reports are not the same as the Editorial; the feature articles are different from the horse-racing pieces; the sport or leisure page is a world apart from the economic and financial section – not to mention page after page of advertisements aimed at different target groups of readers.

We confine our attention to news reports and feature articles in the more popular newspapers (such as *Dung Fong, Sing Pao, Ming Pao, Faai Bo, San Bo*). Although we believe that a lot of what we say should apply to newspaper articles other than these two kinds (with the exception of advertisements), we would not like to make any hasty claims about the exact degree of generality of our claims.

For the sake of illustration, let us explicate the fundamental character of the language of our newspaper articles diagrammatically as follows:

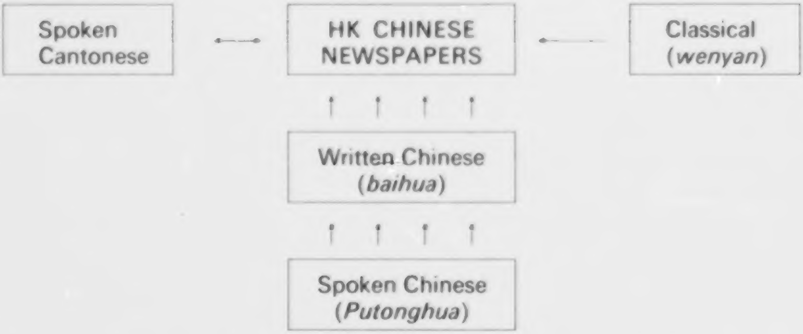

Figure 1: Major Sources of Input for Hong Kong Chinese Newspapers

In essence, the basic ingredients of the language in question are drawn most heavily from modern written Chinese (*baihua wen*), which is in turn based on (spoken) Putonghua. On such a *baihua* base is sprinkled generously and liberally elements from two other sources: Cantonese (Hong Kong style) and Classical Chinese (*wenyan*). The result is a hot-pot with many unique features of its own. It is not simply written *baihua*: in fact it is no longer recognizable to Putonghua speakers and *baihua* users. By the same token its production and comprehension does not presuppose or require knowledge of Putonghua. And yet it is not written Cantonese either. Forms of writing much closer to the spoken vernacular do exist (e.g.

non-serious pieces in newspapers, vernacular novels, and personal notes and letters). But the kind of newspaper articles we have analyzed required a lot more than knowing a set of characters and speaking Cantonese. It is a different kind of writing altogether.

One factor that contributes to the unique character of these texts, unrecognizable either as written Putonghua or written Cantonese, is the presence of a substantial element of classical Chinese (*wenyan*). Although *wenyan* particles and idioms are by no means absent even in *baihua*, which has never really completely freed itself from the influence of *wenyan*, the way classical *wenyan* elements figure in Hong Kong newspapers goes well beyond this. *Wenyan* influence in *baihua* is confined mostly to classical particles and set phrases. Some examples of these are given below:

(1) 非 贏 不 可
fei1 ying2 bu4 ke3
not win not can
"must win"

(2) 與 君 一 席 話 勝 讀 十 年 書
yu3 jun1 yi4 xi2 hua4, sheng4 du2 shi2 nian2 shu1
with you one sitting talk better-than read ten year books
"To have a conversation with you is worth more than ten years' reading"

In newspaper articles of the kind we have been looking at, *wenyan* elements are drawn from a broader set, and seem on the whole much more pervasive. As far as classical elements are concerned, we mention four most prominent aspects of this phenomenon:

a. The frequent occurrence of many *wenyan* particles, some of which have a distinctly Cantonese flavour (those marked with an asterisk below).

倘 *無 及 *乃 方
tong2 mou4 kap6 naai5 fong1
if not and so before

內 與 逾 *謂 故
noi6 yu5 yu6 wai6 gu3
within and over say therefore

否則 無從
fau2jak1 mou4chung4
otherwise cannot

b. Ellipsis (Hence a cryptic quality.)

一 間 公司 一 公司
yat1 gaan1 gung1si1 → yat1 gung1si1
one CL company one company

兩 個 女仔 兩 女子
leung5 go3 neui5jai2 → leung5 neui5ji2
two CL women two women

能夠 能
nang4gau3 → nang4
can can

如果 如
yu4gwo2 → yu4
if if

已經 已
yi5ging1 → yi5
already already

因為 因
yan1wai6 → yan1
because because

竟然 竟
ging2yin4 → ging2
surprisingly surprisingly

以後 後
yi5hau6 → hau6
after after

c. Expansion

食 藥 服食 藥物
sik6 yeuk6 → fuk6sik6 yeuk6mat6
eat drug eat drug
'taken drug'

搵 找尋
wan2 → jaau2cham4
look-for look-for

醒 甦醒
seng2 → sou1seng2
wake-up wake-up

d. Words and expressions in "imitation classical style"

Newspaper	*Cantonese*	*Putonghua*	
購物	買嘢	買 東 西	
kau3mat6	maai5ye5	mai3 dong1xi0	'shopping'
大量	好多	很多	
daai6leung6	hou2do1	hen3duo1	'a lot'
(致)電	打 電 話	打 電 話	
(ji3) din6	daa2 din6wa2	da3 dian1hua4	'phone'
上址	嗰 個 地 方	那 個 地 方	
seung6 ji2	go2 go3 dei6fong1	nei1 go0 di4fong1	'that place'
付 賬	比 錢	給 錢	
fu6 jeung3	bei2 chin2	gei2 qian3	'pay'

A second distinctive feature of the news articles we have analysed is the more or less direct insertion in between *baihua* and *wenyan* elements, expressions which are unmistakably (Hong Kong) Cantonese. Here are some examples:

Cantonese	*Baihua/Putonghua*	
有 可能 yau5 ho2nang4	可能 ke3nang2	'can/may'
銀包 ngan4bau1	錢包 qian3bao1	'wallet'
飲 yam2	喝 he1	'drink'
無 反應 mou4 faan2ying3	沒有 人 開門 mei2you3 ren2 kai1men2	
'no answer (in response to knocking on the door)'		

The welding of elements from *baihua*, Cantonese, and *wenyan* into a special kind of writing is a very intricate and complex process historically. However, the reader of a newspaper text does not need to be aware of any of the theoretical and historical aspects of the phenomenon. He does not need to know Putonghua; he does not need to know classical Chinese; knowledge of written Cantonese is not a requirement.

How then does a Cantonese speaker learn to read these newspapers? Very few people, if any, would have received any formal training in reading newspapers. For example, no primary-level Chinese textbook that I know of would formulate and explain explicitly any of the rules involved, or provide any systematic practice to help school children handle the task. And yet most people seem to have little difficulty finding their way into it and in the end do manage the task reasonably well. How do they do it? And what are the skills and conventions involved?

In our view, the reader will need to be equipped with no more than a relatively simple set of conversion rules between speech (Cantonese) and writing (*baihua*) to make a start. Most primary school graduates will have mastered a good proportion of these conversion rules through their reading of exemplary *baihua* texts (largely, one might add, through indirect instruction, paraphrasing and osmosis). Some of these rules are extremely simple and they may have frequent and extensive application:

a. **grammatical elements**

的 dik1	=	嘅 ge3	了 liu	=	咗 jo2
也 ya5	=	都 dou1	在 joi6	=	喺 hai2
是 si6	=	係 hai6	和 wo4	=	同(埋) tung4(mai4)

b. content words

圓(元) yun4	=	蚊 man1	'dollar'
店 dim3	=	舖 (頭) pou3(tau2)	'shop'
受騙 sau6 pin3	=	比 人 呃 bei2 yan4 ngaak1	'deceived'
發 票 faat3piu3	=	單 daan1	'receipt'

The primary school graduate will also have mastered a way of reading aloud *baihua* texts in a 'literary' (*wen*) way, distinct from his vernacular (*bai*, colloquial speech). This involves not only a different set of pronunciation, but also divergent conventions at the levels of vocabulary, grammar, and discourse. When confronted with a newspaper article, the Cantonese speaker is able to read it aloud in this special 'literary' style. Other Cantonese speakers will have little difficulty understanding what is being read aloud.

When equipped with these two skills it then becomes a question of accumulating a wider vocabulary (general as well as specialized, unique to newspapers) and regular practice. True, a lot of guesswork is involved, especially at the early stages, but the reader will build up more and more confidence as his grasp of this distinct flavour and style grows firmer with practice.

Interestingly, mastery of these reading skills feeds back into speaking. Because there is available a set of conventions governing written texts and their rendering into speech, a lot of the features (and specialized vocabulary and set phrases) found in our Chinese newspapers makes an impact on speech through the media (news reports on TV and the radio, e.g.). This makes the conventions more widely accessible and further facilitates the informal development of literacy skills. Writing also manages through this route to exert its influence on spoken Cantonese. Formal styles of speaking often contain features similar to those found in writing.

For the foreign learner, the relevance of these observations is that many of these rules can be made explicit, built into textbooks, and systematically taught. These rudimentary literacy skills are by and large not that difficult to acquire, and when mastered, would provide the foreign learner with a firm grounding from where they can approach local society and culture, and eventually participate in the community's affairs.

兩女酒後服藥昏迷

警隊破門救出送院

同屋兩男竟因熟睡未聞聲

【本報訊】兩名廿三歲女子，昨晨被發現昏倒紅磡漆咸道二百七十五號十五樓一單位內，懷疑酒後服食藥物引起，兩人送伊利沙伯醫院留醫，情況欠佳。兩送院女子劉惠娟及將惠玲。昨晨九時四十五分，一名自稱姓將女子致電「九九九」報警，謂有兩女子暈倒上址屋內，但警方依照地址前往找尋時，拍門逾半小時均無反應，破門而入，發覺屋內有兩男兩女，兩男子自稱因在屋內熟睡，未聞拍門聲，兩女子神智不清。

其中劉姓女子抵院後甦醒，向警方表示：前晚四人曾飲下大量烈酒，其後兩女子因不能入睡，故服食安眠藥，至昨晨感不適致電報警求助。

語文課中語法教學的重要性和方法

寸鎮東
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漢語語文教學有兩個特點：一是學習漢字要花很多時間和很多精力；二是既要學語體文，又要學文言文。第一點跟語法關係不大，第二點跟語法有密切關係。

一般是初級中學開始學文言文，所學篇目較少；高級中學篇目較多。文言文和語體文，有同有異。詞匯和語法的差異較大。不講語法，無法學文言文。必須先懂現代漢語語法，才便於學習文言語法，學得快，學得好。這就決定了漢語語文教學必須重視語法，既要學現代漢語語法，又要學文言語法。

語文教學的目的是學會正確使用語言文字表達思想感情，當然也包括閱讀和理解。要達此目的，需要諸多知識和修養，其中就包括語法知識。語法知識有助於把文章寫通順，有助於把文章寫好，也有助於閱讀和理解。語文課必須重視語法教學。有人認為，以母語為工具的語文教育，學生自幼就會說話，不學語法也可以學好，這是站不住腳的。語法規則潛藏在言語之中，不學語法而會說會寫，靠的是類化作用，憑語感行事。僅憑類化作用或語感，簡單的語法規則可以掌握，複雜的掌握不了，更談不上利用語法提高表達效果的問題。目前，報章雜誌裏，語法錯誤屢見不鮮；高中畢業生作文，不出語法差錯的較少，看看全國高等學校升學考試語文答卷的統計與分析就可知道。這是對語法教學重視不夠的必然結果，正說明必須加強語法教學。

任何文章總是由較小單位按一定規則逐級組成較大單位直至成篇的。用詞組成單句，單句組成複句，單句複句組成句群，句群組成段落，段落組成部份，組成篇章。這個由小到大的過程，都貫穿着語法規則，或者是直接用語法規則組合，或者是語法規則的擴大運用。複句和句群使表達具有邏輯性、條理性和層次性；句群的組合關係和規則跟複句大致相同，不懂複句和句群，理解和表達只是一句空話。段落與段落的組合關係和規則，基本上是複句關係和規則的擴大運用。複句是表達與理解的核心。複句在語法教學中具有關鍵性的地位。

語文不可避免地要涉及修辭，眾多修辭現像和修辭手法都跟語法有密切關係，不講語法，無法講修辭。對偶講究詞性相同，結構相同，句式相同，不懂語法，無法講對偶。

較長時期裏，我們的語文教學有一個程式，這就是把語文教學分為五個步驟：一、作者簡介（或字詞註釋）；二、時代背景；三、段落大意；四、主題思想；五、寫作特點。只有寫作特點部分提一提語言特點，而且是舉例式的講法，講一個特點舉一個例子。所講特點都是準確、鮮明、生動，篇篇文章都是這幾個特點。不從表達功能的角度結合課文作語言的具體分析，駕空的講一些特點，特點千篇一律就是那麼幾條，當然說不上真正理解，更難學會運用。學六年語文，相當多的中學畢業生寫不好一般的文章，這個花了代價取得的教訓，促使我們開始重視語言和語法教學，改變了教學方法。全國高等學校升學考試語文試題命題的指導思想、目的要求和考試方法，就是這種轉變的體現。

語文課必須重視、加強語法教學，這是毫無疑問的。關鍵在於講甚麼？如何講？基本的語法知識和語法規則要有系統地一部分一部分地講，最好是初中三年之內講完。但是，更重要的是要結合課文，從表達功能和作用角度講。抓住如何用語法規則和句式表達思想感情這個中心環節，既講語法規則，又講規則的運用。學用一致，知識容易轉化為技能。

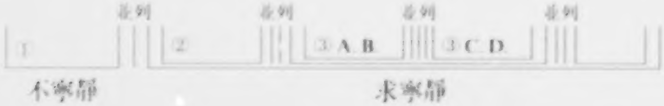
為了更好地說明問題，我們以《荷塘月色》一文作例，看看語文教學中語法的重要性，試探一下如何結合課文從表達功能角度講語法。

荷塘月色

荷塘月色，這不是偏正詞組，也不是一般的並列詞組，是特殊的並列組合，是列錦修辭格。表達的既不是荷塘與月色，也不是荷塘的月色，而是月色的荷塘、荷塘的月色兩組鏡頭組成的畫面與情調。這個標題是對全文內容凝煉而含蓄的概括，深化了意境；平平仄仄相間，二二節奏勻稱；達到了形式與內容的完美統一。

①這幾天心裏頗不寧靜。②今晚在院子裏坐着乘涼，忽然想起日日走過的荷塘，在這滿月的光裏，總該另有一番樣子吧。③A月亮漸漸地升高了，B牆外馬路上孩子們的歡笑，已經聽不見了；C妻在屋裏拍着閏兒，D迷迷糊糊地哼着眠歌。④我悄悄地披了大衫，帶上門出去。

這一段由一個句群充當。其組合層次及關係如圖：

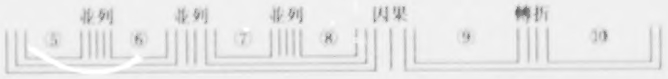


三個層次都是並列關係。句①是否定句。這句話的意思可以用肯定句表達，寫成心裏矛盾、苦悶、徬徨、煩躁。兩相比較①，否定句簡煉、含蓄，而且與②③④句的「靜」形成鮮明的對比，更加發人深思。肯定句就不可

能有這樣的功能。②句是推測設想，用語氣詞「吧」結尾，正好表示出不肯定的口吻。③句，AB寫屋外，CD寫屋內，表面寫景和人，搭配意思則暗含夜深人靜。AB與CD間用分號，A與B，C與D間用逗號，層次分明。3B是主謂句，主語太長，用逗號斷開，語氣舒緩，符合本文抒情氣氛。全段都用主謂句式，句式一致，語氣平實順暢，與全篇寧靜意境協調一致。

⑤沿着荷塘，是一條曲折的小煤屑路。⑥這是一條幽僻的路；白天也少人走，夜晚更加寂寞。⑦荷塘四面，長着許多樹，蓊蓊鬱鬱的。⑧路的一旁，是些楊柳，和一些不知道名字的樹。⑨沒有月光的晚上，這路上陰森森的，有些怕人。⑩今晚卻很好，雖然月光也還是淡淡的。

這一段與前一段是並列關係，用複句的意合法過渡和聯繫。前段寫荷塘另有一番樣子的設想，段末有披上大衫帶門出去，本段開頭已到荷塘。過渡連接自然。⑤⑥可以合為一句：「沿着荷塘，是一條曲折的，白天也少人走，夜晚更加寂寞的幽僻的小煤屑路。」⑦也可以合為一個單句：「荷塘四面長着許多蓊蓊鬱鬱的樹。」⑧可以去掉兩個逗號。合併的句子，去掉逗號的句子，變成了長句緊句，作者寫的是短句鬆句。短句鬆句有兩個作用：一是使語調語氣舒緩，跟幽雅寧靜的抒情意境相協調；二是鋪陳分述，突出強調路與樹的種種形狀、特徵，渲染幽靜的氣氛。長句緊句在此就不可能有這樣的作用。⑩是轉折複句，改變常規，偏句移後，為什麼？一方面，使⑨⑩兩句統一以「晚上」開頭，敘述角度一致，連接順暢；另一方面，強調淡淡的月光之美。這一段由一個因果句群充當，層次和關係如圖所示：



⑤⑦⑧三句，前後兩句用「是」字句，中間不用「是」字句，句式稍有變化，不覺呆板單調。

⑪路上只我一個人，背着手踱着。⑫這一片天地好像是我的；我也像超出了平常的自己，到了另一世界裏。⑬我愛熱鬧，也愛冷靜；愛群居，也愛獨處。⑭像今天晚上，一個人在這蒼茫的月下，甚麼都可以想，甚麼都可以不想，便覺是個自由的人。⑮白天裏一定要做的事，一定要說的話，現在都可不理。⑯這是獨處的妙處；我且受用這無邊的荷香月色好了。

本段與前一段也是並列關係。前段寫路上所見，本段寫路上所想。⑬既是對比，也是對偶，構成二重複句，整齊勻稱，層次分明。穿插在其他不整齊的散句中，使句式有起伏變化。⑭是主謂謂語句，以「甚麼」作小

主語，配合「都」，具有週遍性，正好強調獨處的自由。⑮也可以分兩句說：「白天裏一定要做的事，現在都可以不做，白天裏一定要說的話，現在都可以不說。」作者為甚麼合為一個單句呢？一是求簡潔，二是合說強調主語事和話，跟⑭的強調謂語稍有變化，以避單調雷同。

[17]曲曲折折的荷塘上面，彌望的是田田的葉子。[18]葉子出水很高，像亭亭的舞女的裙。[19]層層的葉子中間，零星地點綴着些白花，有嫋娜地開着的，有羞澀地打着朵兒的；正如一粒粒明珠，又如碧天裏的星星，又如剛出浴的美人。[20]微風過處，送來縷縷清香，彷彿遠處高樓上渺茫的歌聲似的。[21]這時候葉子與花也有一絲的顫動，像閃電般，霎時傳過荷塘的那邊去了。[22]葉子本是肩並肩密密地挨着，這便宛然有了一道凝碧的波痕。[23]葉子底下是脈脈的流水，遮住了，不能見一些顏色；而葉子卻更見風致了。

本段與上段是並列關係，靠意合法連接和過渡。⑰用「的」字結構作主語，概括無餘。⑰與⑱，前句賓語作後句主語，構成頂針修辭格，使句間聯繫密切，語氣順暢。⑱是比喻，用「甲像乙」的句式。⑲先連用兩個擬人格，用狀語修飾謂語動詞，使花具有人的體態容貌；接着連用三個比喻「『甲如乙』格式」，三個比喻又構成排比句式。⑳先用擬人，微風送來清香，次用比喻「用『彷彿……似的』格式」。㉑用「像……般」的詞組格式比喻。㉒先用擬人格，又用「宛然……」的比喻格。㉓兩用擬人格，「脈脈的」作定語，「風致」作賓語，使流水具有人的情態，讓葉子也有人的韵味。整段或交錯，或連續使用比喻、擬人，形象生動，感情濃烈；辭格所用格式和句式各不相同，富於變化，言語形式豐富多彩；顯示出作者利用語法規則和句式創造幽雅醉人意境的高超技藝。

[24]月光如流水一般，靜靜地瀉在這一片葉子和花上。[25]薄薄的青霧浮起在荷塘裏。[26]A葉子和花彷彿在牛乳中洗過一樣；[B]又像籠着輕紗的夢。[27]雖然是滿月，天上卻有一層淡淡的雲，所以不能朗照；但我以為這恰是到了好處——酣眠固不可少，小睡也別有風味的。[28]月光是隔了樹照過來的，高處叢生的灌木，落下參差的斑駁的黑影，峭楞楞如鬼一般；彎彎的楊柳的稀疏的倩影，卻又像是畫在荷葉上。[29]塘中的月色並不均勻；但光與影有着和諧的旋律，如梵婀玲上奏着的名曲。

從寫花葉轉到寫月，前段寫荷塘，本段寫月色，過渡自然而不留痕迹。㉔用了比喻，㉖也兩次用了比喻。三個比喻所用的句法結構格式不相同，言語形式富於變化。㉕也可寫成「荷塘裏浮起薄薄的青霧。」作者不取此法，讓「青霧」作主語，意在強調青霧，同時也使「月光、青霧、葉子和花」都作為陳述主體，敍述對像的角度一致，言語流暢。㉔㉕㉖使用合敍修辭手法，㉔是㉖A的原因，㉕是㉖的原因，㉔㉕又合為㉖B的原因。作者不用因果複句，使用單句與複句的組合，讓讀者自己聯繫體會，

行文既簡潔又含蓄。㉗是一個轉折關係的三重複句。這個句子包括三層意思：第一，滿月應能朗照，淡淡的雲遮住了滿月，不能朗照。第二，不能朗照，朦朦朧朧恰到好處。第三，睡眠不能少酣暢呼呼大睡，迷糊小睡一下有它特殊的味道；滿月如酣眠，不能朗照的朦朧的月色像迷糊的小睡(作者不明示此種關係，用的是暗喻引喻)。這麼複雜的意思和關係，作者用一個轉折三重複句表達得如此有條理有層次，關係十分清楚，真是簡潔又含蓄。複句表達功能的奧妙，作者運用語法提高表達效果的神巧，令人讚嘆！㉘也是一個複句，包含的意思和關係也很複雜。月光隔了樹照過來，經樹篩了一次，照到灌木上又篩一次，層層篩，影重影，落下的只有黑影了；月光被樹篩過一次，又被稀疏的楊柳篩過一次，照下的影子明暗如畫。作者用複句表達，關係層次清楚，省去許多說明性的言語，讀者完全可以體驗出來，簡潔而且含蓄。如果不用複句，關係層次也可說清楚，但言語囉嗦，毫無情趣。兩個分句各用一個比喻，格式也不一樣，各有所宜。㉙是總結全段，塘中月色不均勻，接着一轉，用比擬把光影比作旋律，進而再比喻為提琴奏的名曲。從視覺變為聽覺，意境昇華了。前一段由兩個並列句群組合成段，到「又如剛出浴的美人」止，是靜態的葉與花；從「微風過處」起是動態描寫。本段也是兩個句群的組合，前面是兩個小句群(光與影)組成一個大句群，與㉙一個複句所充當的句群構成解說關係，先分後總。

[30]荷塘的四面，遠遠近近，高高低低都是樹，而楊柳最多。[31]這些樹將一片荷塘重重圍住；只在小路一旁，漏着幾段空隙，像是特為月光留下的。[32]樹色一例是陰陰的，乍看像一團煙霧；但楊柳的豐姿，便在煙霧裏也辨得出。[33]樹梢上隱隱約約的是一帶遠山，只有些大意罷了。[34]樹縫裏也漏着一兩點路燈光，沒精打彩的，是渴睡人的眼。[35]這時候最熱鬧的，要數樹上的蟬聲與水裏的蛙聲；但熱鬧是牠們的，我甚麼都沒有。

㉚是個複句，前一分句是單句，用逗號斷開，使句子成為鬆句，短句。整段以樹為陳述對像，作為主謂句的主語，敍述角度一致，短句為多，流暢舒緩。「我甚麼也沒有。」求靜暫時得解脫。故而後三段語調氣氛稍稍輕鬆了一些。此段也用了比喻擬人手法，不再贅言。

[36]忽然想起采蓮的事情來了。[37]采蓮是江南的舊俗，似乎很早就有，而六朝時為盛；從詩歌裏可以約略知道。[38]采蓮的是少年的女子，她們是蕩着小船，唱着豔歌去的。[39]采蓮人不用說很多，還有看采蓮的人。[40]那是一個熱鬧的季節，也是一個風流的季節。[41]梁元帝《采蓮賦》裏說得好：

……(引文從略)

[42]可見當時嬉游的光景了。[43]這真是有趣的事，可惜我們現在早已無福消受了。

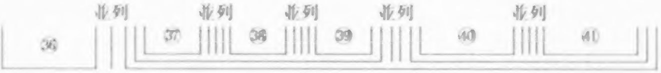
㊹於是又記起《西洲曲》裏的句子：

采蓮南塘秋，蓮花過人頭；低頭弄蓮子，蓮子清如水。

㊺今晚若有采蓮人，這兒的蓮花也算得「過人頭」了；只不見一些流水的影子，是不行的。㊻這令我到底惦着江南了。——㊼這樣想着，猛一擡頭，不覺已是自己的門前；輕輕地推門進去，甚麼聲息也沒有，妻已睡熟好久了。

末尾這三段引用了賦和詩，借懷古以舒情，更增強了全文的抒情氣氛，也反襯現實的黑暗。結尾一句，「輕輕地推門進去，甚麼聲息也沒有，妻已睡熟好久了」，與第一段妻哼着眠歌，我「帶上門出去」，首尾照應，結構完美。

㊱句一段，由一個先分說後總說的句群組成，關係層次如圖所示：



㊷一個句群，兩句話，獨立成段。這段話本可以連接在上段之末。獨立成段的目的是強調，強調懷古的感情，反襯出對現實的不滿。㊼句前有一個破折號，從想江南一下回到家門的現實，使行文跳躍不顯突然。想江南，想什麼？用破折號代替，很含蓄。

整篇文章，句式的選用，複句的使用，句群的組合，修辭格式的變化，都有特點，都服從主題意境的需要，為主題意境服務。這一方面配合其他特點（如用詞特點），形成獨特的言語風格，另有拙文論述，此不贅言。

以上分析，說明從運用的角度結合課文講語法，有利於閱讀理解，也有利於學習表達方法。

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詞滙是語言中最活躍的要素，社會的改革，經濟的發展，文化科技的進步，以至各種新的思潮、市民的心態等等，詞滙都像一面鏡子一樣迅速地把這些發展變化反映出來。近些年來，處於開放改革前沿的廣州，以及與它毗鄰的世界商業大都會香港，都湧現了不少新詞。這些新詞一產生就以強大的生命力迅速擴散到整個粵方言區，成為群眾喜聞樂用的詞語，有些新詞甚至被全國各地所選用。因此系統、深入地對穗港新詞進行研究，不僅有助於掌握作為粵方言中心地帶的穗港的詞滙特徵及其發展規律，對一九九七年香港回歸祖國後制訂有關的語言政策也將有着重大的現實意義和深遠的歷史意義。

所謂穗港新詞是指近十多年來，也就是開放改革以來，在穗港流行使用的新詞，包括新造詞，對舊詞賦予新義的詞，以及曾在其他地方出現，新近在穗港為群眾廣泛應用的詞。

穗港兩地由於政治、經濟、社會環境以及文化背景諸方面的差異，其詞滙是不盡相同的，而本文主要是就其相同方面來研究。因為近十多年實行開放改革政策以來，一個無可否認的事實就是廣州話從香港話中吸取了許多新詞，香港話也受廣州話的影響而發生了變化。密切的政治、經濟、文化的交流，使穗港詞滙日趨融合，這是近年來穗港詞滙發展的趨勢。①

穗港新詞數量多，內涵豐富，其中不少含有特殊的意味與色彩，值得研究的內容很多，由於篇幅所限，本文主要探討三個問題：一、穗港新詞的造詞方式；二、穗港新詞造詞方式的認識價值和應用價值；三、穗港新詞大量產生的意義。

一

穗港新詞色彩斑斕，表意形象，內涵豐富，這和它的造詞方式有着密切的聯繫。它的造詞方式靈活多樣，錯綜複雜，根據我們所搜集到的常用詞來看②，大致有以下幾種：

(一)形象比喻法

形象比喻法就是通過想象，用不同類而有相似點的喻體來造詞。其中主要是借喻，用喻體來代替本體。

形象比喻法可分為兩種。

第一種，整個詞是喻體。例如：

「痴綫」[tsʻi˥ sin˧]③ 借電話綫路錯亂喻指神經錯亂。如：「佢痴綫架。」

「爆棚」[pau˧ pʻaŋ˨˩] 借進棚者多而至於爆的形象喻人多、滿座或形容事物的程度達到極點。如：「嗰次演出真爆棚呀。」

「搶手」[tsʻœŋ˧˥ seu˧˥] 以「從別人手中搶過來」之狀喻貨物暢銷。如：「嗰種貨好搶手。」

「蛇頭」(穗)[sie˨˩ tʻeu˨˩] 喻指帶人偷渡出境的人。如：「人哋話交五萬元俾蛇頭就可以出國。」

「燉冬菇」(港)[ten˨ tuŋ˥ ku˥] 喻長時間不能升職。如：「你真冇用，俾人燉冬菇。」

「南風窗」(穗)[nam˨˩ fuŋ˥ tsʻœŋ˥] 喻有來自海外的經濟收入。如：「你有南風窗梗係闊啦。」

「未水」(穗)[mei˨ sœy˧˥] 未水即「潛水」，喻曠工，曠課，廣州話又把這叫「偷雞」。如：「乜咁得閒呀，又未水呀？」

「消腫」(穗)[siu˥ tsuŋ˧˥] 借消除浮腫喻精簡機構。如：「我哋係消腫單位。」

「咬」[ŋau˩˧] 喻指要價太高。如：「飛起噉咬。」

「刷鞋」(港)[tsat˧ hai˨˩] 喻奉承討好別人。如：「佢最興刷鞋。」

「電人」[tin˨ jen˨˩] 喻勾引異性。如：「昨晚你又去電人啦？」

這一類的詞還有：「踢腳」[tʻek˧ kœk˧](難堪、不順利)，「炒更」[tsʻau˧˥ kaŋ˥](兼職)，「飛起」[fei˥ hei˧˥](厲害)，「掟煲」[teŋ˧ pou˥](夫妻或戀人分手)，「跳槽」[tʻiu˧ tsʻou˨˩](另謀職業)，「大陣仗」[tai˨ tsen˨ tsœŋ˨](虛張聲勢或過份張揚)，「大鑊飯」[tai˨ wɔk˨ fan˨] (喻平均主義的分配方法。)

第二種，詞中有一個語素是喻體的。例如：

「人渣」[jen˨˩ tsa˥] 渣是喻體，喻品質惡劣的人。如：「嗰班傢伙簡直係人渣。」

「走鬼」[tseu˧˥ kwei˧˥] 指無牌攤販。如：「嗰件衫响走鬼度買嘅，好平。」

「色魔」[sik˥ mɔ˨] 借魔鬼的兇殘喻獸性十足的好色之徒。又作「色狼」。 如：「嗰一帶有色魔，要小心。」

「發燒友」[fat˧ siu˥ jeu˧˥] 喻指狂熱者。如：「成班都係象棋發燒友。」

「電話粥」[tin˨ wa˧˥ tsuk˥] 喻指冗長而無意義的通話。如：「成日煲電話粥！」

此類詞還有：「天橋」[t́in˥ kiu˨˩]、「盲流」(穗)[maŋ˨˩ lɐu˨˩]，「皮包商」(穗)[ṕei˨˩ pau˥ saŋ˥]「太空人」[tai˧ huŋ˥ jɐn˨˩]、「垃圾虫」[lap˧ sap˧ tśuŋ˨˩]等。

(二)引申推延法

引申推延法就是通過詞義的引申或結構上的推延來造詞。下面分兩類說明。

第一類，詞義引申式這種造詞方式產詞最多，它又可分為三種：

(1) 把原有的詞義擴大、縮小或轉移而造成新詞。

「勁」[kiŋ˨] 原多指「力氣」等，現可指「威猛有力」，「好」「夠刺激」。如：「勁歌」「勁舞」「佢嘅表演夠勁。」

「掂」[tim˨] 原指「直」，現引申為「順利」「妥當」「完成」。如「喱件嘢搞掂嚹。」

「阿爺」(穗)[a˧ jɛ˨˩] 由祖父引申為祖宗，再引申為「公家」或指國家最高領導。如：「個個都想搵阿爺找數。」

「睇數」[t́ɐi˧˥ sou˧] 由結帳付錢引申為對事情的結果負責。如：「出咗問題搵佢睇數。」

「渣」[tśa˥] 由殘渣引申為質量低劣。如：「喱對鞋咁渣嘅。」

「七彩」[tsát˥ tśɔi˧˥] 由色彩之多引申為亂七八糟，一塌糊塗。 如：「喱間店俾人搞到七彩咁。」

「強人」[kʹœŋ˨˩ jɐn˨˩] 原指強盜，現由貶義引申為褒義，指能力強，有作為的人。 如：「佢喺金融界的強人。」

這類詞還有：「及住」[kɐp˨ tsy˨] (緊緊盯住)，「識做」[sik˥ tsou˨](指用物質籠絡別人或指懂人情，順人意。)，「玩完」[wan˧˥ yn˨˩](表絶望)，「堅嘢」[kin˥ jɛ˧˥](名牌、新潮的東西)，「流嘢」[lɐu˨˩ jɛ˧˥](冒牌貨)，「和味」[wɔ˨˩ mei˨](從味道好引申為慳意)，「料」[liu˧˥](由材料引申為情況)等。

(2) 把原有詞義具體化或抽象化而造成新詞。例如：

「濕濕碎」[sɐp˥ sɐp˥ sœy˧]原指「零碎」「零星」，現引申為「小得不放在眼內」。 如：請飲茶就濕濕碎啦！

「那利」[la˧˥ lei˨] 原指刺激舌頭的一種感覺，現引申為「難以承受」。如：「哇，喱個數都幾那利架！」

「大件事」[tai˨ kin˨ si˨] 指後果或影響嚴重。如：嗰次你大件事嘞，重唔死！」

「痹」[pei˧] 由肢體麻痹引申為「極點」之意。如：「嗰次旅遊好玩到痹。」

(3) 指特定的人或事物。 例如：

「第三者」本義指第三個人，現特指插入一對夫婦或戀人之間奪人之愛的人。

「離休」(穗)：字面義是離職休息，現特指解放前參加革命工作的幹部的退休。

又如下面的詞都是特指一種美容法：「磨砂」、「除皺」、「拉皮」、「去黑頭」、「增白」……

第二類，結構推延式。

所謂結構推延式，就是用同一個語素或舊詞中的某個詞根組合成一系列結構同類的新詞。

例如：

「熱」[jit˨]——熱綫、熱點、熱門貨、西裝熱(穗)、出國熱(穗)、文憑熱(穗)、移民熱(港)、減肥熱、旅遊熱等等。

「熱」，原指溫度高，現引申為「令人關注、受人歡迎，於是爭相參予或急切得到」的意思。

「黃色」——掃黃、制黃(穗)、傳黃(穗)、販黃(穗)、銷黃(穗)、黃毒(穗)、黃販子(穗)等等。

「黃色」原指色情，現「黃」字引申為泛指一切內容庸俗猥褻，淫穢色情，腐化墮落的東西。

又例如：「明星」——影星、歌星、巨星、新星
「嚮導」——導購、導遊、導銷、導嚮
「卡片」——生日卡、謝卡、情侶卡
「大戶」——拆遷戶(穗)、關係戶(穗)、萬圓戶(穗)、一孩戶(穗)
「市容」——校容、廠容、店容
「屋」——精品屋、髮型屋、屋邨

(三)幽默借代法

所謂幽默借代法，就是借用與本體事物相關的另一個人或事物來代替本體事物。例如：

「紗紙」[sa˥ tsi˧˥] 過去文憑、契約之類均用紗紙製作，這裏是借材料代本體，指學歷文憑。如：「讀得咁辛苦都係想搵番張紗紙乍！」

「鐵飯碗」(穗)：借工具代一種有保障的職業。如：捧住鐵飯碗就可以舒舒服服過一世。

「大哥大」[tai˩ gɔ˥ tai˩] 黑社會或娛樂界稱資格老、勢力大的頭頭為「大哥大」。他們經常以手握手提式無綫電話機的形象出現，因而人們便把這種手提式電話機叫「大哥大」。這是借所屬的人的名稱代伴隨物。如「佢成日大哥大不離身。」

這類詞還有：

「大團結」(穗)（指十圓面額的人民幣）
「表叔」(港)（香港人稱大陸的幹部）
「發財」（指代工作）
「大鑊」[tai˩ wɔk˩]（指把事情鬧大）
「國腳」（指國家足球隊員）
「指揮棒」(穗)（指具有權威的指導）

(四)美好音譯法

在穗港新詞中，外來詞所佔的比例不少，分為音譯詞和意譯詞兩類。音譯詞如：「貼士」(tips)、「畸士」(case)、「波士」(boss)、「迪士高」(disco)、「啫喱」(jelly)、「士多」(store)等。意譯詞如：「電腦」(computer)、「雪櫃」(refrigerator)、「錄影機」(recorder)、「信用卡」(credit card)、「代溝」(generation gap)等。值得注意的是穗港新詞音譯外來詞多用美好音譯法。所謂美好音譯法，就是用帶有美好義的詞來音譯，譯詞者在音近的前提下，選擇了一些預示幸福、推崇讚美的字眼來譯音，以滿足使用者美好的願望。在商品經濟迅速發展的社會中，這種音譯詞有着特殊的社會功能。例如：

「迷你」(mini)：本是微小的意思。譯作「迷你」，人們往往會從字面理解為「使你迷戀」的意思，因而「迷你裙」「迷你手錶」「迷你電池」等等有「迷你」修飾語的商品就很受一些人的青睞。

「托福」(TOEFL)原是台灣的翻譯，指出國留學生的外語水平考試。在出國熱中，有些人把留學看作造福前程的手段，「托福」正符合了這些人的心態。

這類音譯詞用於商品名稱的特別多。例如：

「樂百氏」(Robusf) 一種滋補口服液。
「美登高」(Meadowgold) 一種冰淇淋的牌子。
「聲寶」(夏普)(SHARP) 一種彩電的牌子。
「美能達」(萬能達)(MINOLTA) 一種照相機的牌子。

「萬寶路」(Marlboro)　一種香煙的牌子。
「萬利」(Monterey)　一種香煙的牌子。
「奔馳」(Benz)　一種汽車的牌子。

(五)中西結合法

對外來詞的吸收，除了音譯、意譯之外，還有一種很有特色的中西結合的形式。它的格式有兩類：

(1) 音譯語素＋漢語語素　例如：
「保齡球」(bowling)　「桑拿浴」(sauna)
「爵士樂」(jazz)　嬉皮士(hippy)
苛機(call)　愛滋病(AIDS)

(2) 漢語語素＋音譯語素或英文字母
例如：
「打的」(Taxi)（乘坐出租車）
「咩[me]飛」(fare)（由負担費用，引申為對事情的後果負責。）
「阿Sir」（指警察，廣州人阿sir與民警並稱）
「T恤」(shirt)（「T」是無領、無袖衣服的象形符號）
「卡啦OK」(Karaoke)（無樂隊伴奏的演唱，卡啦是音譯語素。）

(六)直描修飾法

直描修飾法就是通過一個修飾性的語素來直接描寫中心語素。修飾性的語素有的表示性質，有的表示狀態，有的表示類屬，有的表示特點。例如：

(1) 食街　屋邨(港)　機器人　新秀　開放型(穗)　外向型(穗)　事業型　機械手　電傳　遙控　人造革　人造毛　後進生　合同制　傻瓜機　尋芳客　冷燙　飛仔、飛女[fei˥ tsɐi˧˥ fei˥ nøy˧˥](男女小流氓)

(2) 碰碰車　圍觀　大賽　大牌檔　動感　立體感　展銷　流綫型

(3) 公仔面(港)　精品屋　髮型屋　暑期工　速食麵(穗)　寫字樓　保鮮紙　專業戶(穗)　個體戶(穗)　合同工　世界波　渡假村　立交橋　下午茶　桌球　髮廊　綠肥(穗)　刊授(穗)

(4) 自助餐　快餐　飯盒　貨櫃車(港)　集裝箱(穗)　超薄型

(七)簡練縮寫法

簡練縮寫法是指把詞組縮寫成詞。這些詞開始時是事物的簡稱，後經長期使用，形式和內容都相對固定下來，從而轉化為詞。例如：

「涉外」(穗)：涉及外事(的)
「公關」公共關係
「房改」(穗)：住房改革
「人際」：人與人之間
「家教」家庭教師
「折現」(港)：把禮物折換成現錢送人
「影視」：電影、電視。

(八)反覆強調法

反覆強調法就是以兩個或兩個以上意義相同或相近的語素聯合組成一個新詞，或在一個語素前加前綴「老」，或在語素後加後綴「記」以強調某一種意思。例如：

(1) 自我　精英　回歸　緊俏　網絡　老大難　引進　拼搏
(2) 老土(叔記)　老朋(哥記)[lou˧˥ pɐŋ˧˥]　老細[lou˧˥ zɐi˧](即老板)

(九)委婉表述法

委婉表述法就是不直白本意，而用委婉含蓄的語素來烘托或暗示。例如：

「弱智」　「後進」　「待業」(穗)　「調價」(穗)　「議價」(穗)
「殘疾」「洗手間」　富餘(人員)(穗)

(十)其他(未成類者)

例如：

「無厘頭」[mou˨˩ lei˨˩ tɐu˨˩](指一些攪笑的言論)
「招積」[jiu˥ tsik˥](驕傲，自恃，了不起的樣子)
「橋」[kiu˧˥](指辦法、計策)
「晒」(人)[sai˧](諷刺之意)

以上是穗港新詞的主要造詞法。由於它靈活多樣，錯综復雜，所以有些詞的造詞法難免有交叉現象。我們對它的歸類，既抓住其主要特點，使各大類之間的界綫清楚，同時又承認有兼類的現象。例如「發燒友」和「國腳」從兩個語素的關係看，可以歸入直描修飾法，但「發燒友」整個詞以比喻為主，強調「發燒」以喻「狂熱」，故歸入比喻法；「國腳」則以「腳」為主，代國家足球隊員，故歸入借代法。

二

過去研究現代漢語詞滙的構詞方式，一般只從語素之間的結構關係去看，分為復合式、附加式、重疊式，其中復合式又分聯合、偏正、補充、動賓、主謂五種類型，用這種方法分析漢語詞的構成，雖然能比較清楚地反映詞的內部結構關係，但是它一般不能反映詞的詞義因素，未能讓人直接了解詞的內容。本文所歸納的穗港新詞的造詞方式，卻可以幫助人們直接掌握詞義，有着重要的認識價值和應用價值。

第一、它能以鮮明具體的形象，引人聯想，讓人直接了解詞義。例如形象比喻法的「爆棚」，「棚」而至於「爆」，一看就知道是指人多或達到極點之意。「踢腳」，腳之受踢，「難堪」「不順利」之意不言而喻。「掟煲」瓦煲之被掟，必然是「吭狼」作響，四分五裂，所比喻的夫妻或戀人感情破裂而至於分手的形象歷歷在目。用幽默借代法造詞的「大哥大」，一說就會令人想起那個手提式無縫電話機。用引申推延法造詞的「那利」只要一說，人們馬上就會想起強烈刺激舌頭的滋味，「難以承受」的意思悠然而生。

第二、它能在人們原有認識的基礎上，迅速創造新詞，迅速反映新事物。引申推延法利用人們已經認識的詞或語素組合成一系列結構同類的新詞，如從舊詞「明星」的「星」，推延出「歌星」「影星」「巨星」「新星」；從「嚮導」的「導」推延出「導遊」「導銷」「導購」「導嚮」等等。這種造詞法可以通過詞義的引申和結構的推延兩方面來造詞，適應的範圍很廣，產詞的能力特別強。直描修飾法，用反映新事物的不同語素作修飾語素來造詞，靈活自由，能迅速反映出時代的特點。例如要反映人或事物的類型，從性質、類屬上說的有「外向型」「開放型」「事業型」等；從狀態、特點上說的有「微型」「超薄型」「放射型」等等。

第三，能適應商品經濟迅速發展的社會需要，有着廣泛的應用價值。首先，經濟的發展，使整個社會的生活節奏不斷增快。「時間就是金錢」，人們辦事講究效率，作為交際工具的語言就非簡練不可，「簡練縮寫」的造詞法就是適應了這個社會要求。例如「涉外」(穗)「公關」「人際」等詞內涵豐富，節約了不少言詞。還有，隨着商品經濟的發展，盼望發財，喜歡好兆頭已成為廣大市民的心態。商品交易，宣傳廣告等等都需要大量推崇、讚美，預示幸運的新詞；在經濟貿易之中，要研究公共關係，說話講究幽默、含蓄，應運而生的美好音譯法，委婉表述法所造出來的大量新詞(見上文)正符合社會潮流的需要，有着重要的應用價值，因而使這些造詞法有着廣闊的發展前途。

總之，穗港新詞的造詞法，可以幫助我們更廣泛地、更迅速地認識客觀世界和反映客觀世界，大大豐富了漢語的構詞法，特別是它那讓人直接

了解詞義和適應商品經濟發展要求的長處，可以說是對漢語構詞的貢獻，有着廣闊的發展前途。可以預想，它們將會成為今後粵方言以至漢民族共同語創造新詞的重要方式。

三

穗港新詞的大量產生，無論對社會或語言本身都有着積極的意義。

（一）多角度地反映了時代的風貌和社會的心態，滿足了社會發展的需要。

穗港新詞的大量產生是源於廣州的開放改革，物質文明和精神文明的發展；源於香港經濟的發達以及它與世界各國經濟交往的密切；更源於穗港經濟文化交流的日益頻繁。而穗港新詞的大量產生又滿足了這種社會交際和經濟文化交流的需要。

首先，穗港新詞多角度地反映了時代的特點，社會的變化，滿足了社會物質生產發展的需要。高科技是當今世界社會進步與發展的標誌。「電傳」「電腦」「遙控」「遙感」「傳真」等新詞應運而生並進入人們口語之中。最近香港出現「移民熱」，「太空人」一詞就迅速反映了這種社會狀態。所謂「太空人」並非實指宇航員，而是指移居外國的香港人經常坐飛機往返於香港和移居地，由於經常飛翔在空中而得名；也有人認為，因為家裏太太不在，故名「太空」。

近些年來，城市建設日新月異。人們把高樓大廈林立的城區叫「石屎森林」（港），把公屋區叫「屋邨」「新邨」，把一些旅遊點稱為「渡假村」；在現代化的交通方面，有所謂「高架路」、「慢車道」「立交橋」「天橋」等新詞。在商業方面，商店一詞已反映不了新出現的多種經營方式，於是「商場」「超級市場」「大牌檔」「快餐店」「精品屋」等詞語相繼出現。

其次，穗港新詞迅速反映了社會的風貌、人們的心態以及思想觀念的變化，滿足了精神文化生活的需要。

新時代的人們不再提倡「溫、良、恭、儉、讓」而主張要表現人的價值，要充分發揮人的潛能，於是相應的新詞不斷出現，例如：自我、精英、（志在）參予、搏、大賽、炒更等等。舊觀念認為掙外快不光彩，新詞中的「炒更」，（兼職）毫無貶義。又如「識做」一詞，反映了當前社會上的一種不正之風，「你要識做」即暗示需要請客送禮。

隨着經濟的發達，人們的生活內容不斷豐富，特別是文化生活更是多姿多采，於是就有「卡拉OK」「保齡球」「桌球」「下午茶」「燒烤」「音響」「（中華）學習機」「（電子）遊戲機」等新詞出現。

(二)豐富了粵方言的詞滙，為民族共同語的豐富與發展提供了積極的因素。

穗港方言是粵方言的一個重要部份。粵方言是漢民族的重要方言。穗港新詞的大量產生不但大大增加了粵方言的詞滙量，豐富了粵方言的詞滙，而且它必將以自己鮮明的特性對民族共同語發生積極的影響。

穗港新詞最鮮明的特點就是生動多姿，色彩斑斕，它除了概念文、語法義之外，還有着豐富的附加色彩，特具表現力。這種表現力可分述如下：

第一、內涵豐富，表意生動形象，能激發人們產生多方面的聯想。例如：「人渣」，人而至於成為渣，「污垢」「廢物」「渣滓」等的形象立即浮現於人們的腦海中，品質惡劣的意義不言而喻。「(銀紙)縮水」借布的縮水比喻貨幣貶值，把抽象概念說得形象具體。穗港新詞這種形象性特強的特點，跟它運用各種修辭法來造詞分不開。所造的新詞由於表現力強，不少已被全國各地採用。

第二、委婉、含蓄、耐人尋味。例如，為了照顧人們心理上的需要，把智力差稱為「弱智」，而不說「笨」、「蠢」「傻」或「白痴」；把生理上有缺陷的人稱為「殘疾」人，而不說「殘廢」，以免刺傷他們的心靈而致悲觀失望；把「失足(少年)」稱為「問題(少年)」(港)，這有利於鼓勵他們積極向上改邪歸正。又諸如說「待業」不說「失業」；說「富餘(人員)」(穗)不說「過剩勞力」等等都帶有委婉含蓄意味，它反映了新社會對人的尊重和愛護，是精神文明的一種體現。

近年來，穗港口語中產生了不少吉語，這些詞的產生反映了人們喜歡好兆頭，注重口彩的心理。例如說：「請問先生在哪裏發財？」以「發財」指稱「工作」。人們在用詞時往往喜歡「發」「九」(與「久」同音)、「三」(與「生猛」的生音近)以及採用美好音譯法翻譯外來詞等等都是為了取個好兆頭。

(三)豐富了漢語詞滙的構詞方式

穗港新詞的造詞法，大體上是一種借助修辭術重於直接表義的造詞法。它向人們展示一個事實：一種民族語言的構詞方式，能從多角度去觀察分析。穗港新詞的造詞法無疑就是對漢語構詞法的一個很好的補充。這裏所列的九種造詞法中，不少是從無到有，從不成熟到成熟並在漢語造詞法中獨樹一幟的。這裏值得再談談的是引進外來詞的美好音譯法和中西結合法。

我們認為引進外來詞必須詞義明確並盡量照顧漢語的特點。穗港新詞的美好音譯法就是在音譯的基礎上，巧妙地根據同音賦予美好義的一種別出心裁的構詞法，是過去的漢語構詞法極少使用的。例如：「mini」純音

譯可寫作「咪尼」，但這就既不表意，又不能體現漢語的特點，現譯作「迷你」，既音近又利用同音賦予美好義，而且這美好義恰恰又正是該詞實際意義向美好方面的引申：「微小」→「小巧玲瓏」→「迷你」。詞兒本身完全符合漢語的構詞規律。又如Coca Cala譯作「可口可樂」既是譯音，又是根據飲料的實際賦予「美好義」。這種造詞法在中外貿易頻繁，商品經濟迅速發展的當今時代，無疑有着特殊的社會功能，是一種很有生命力和發展前途的造詞法。

在「中西結合法」中有一種格式是「漢語語素＋音譯語素或英文字母」。如「打的」(Taxi)、「T恤」、「卡拉OK」之類。這種造詞法乍一看，似不符合漢語的特點，但實際不然。我們認為，漢語特點從廣義看應包括在風土人情、社會風尚、以至於經濟發展水平等等基礎上所形成的語言習慣。有時吸收外來詞，保留一點外來的味兒，使「洋貨」有別於「國貨」，這正是穗港新詞的一大特色。例如穗港對乘坐出租小汽車統稱「打的」(Taxi)，若說「乘(或僱)出租汽車」就非穗港人士；至於「T恤」其實只是一種形象的說法，即象「T」字那樣的無領短袖的衣服，但它又是特指某種質地的短衣，而非一般的無領無袖衣服所能代替。這種格式的造詞法，它的特點是簡便、快捷，為穗港人喜聞樂用。在當今對外開放的地區裏也不失為一種靈活簡便的造詞方法。

附註：

① 這裏正如斯大林在《馬克思主義與語言學問題》(一九五二年，北京，人民出版社28頁)中所指出的一種，「俄羅斯語言的詞彙由於從其他語言中取得了許多詞而充實起來了，但是這不僅沒有使俄羅斯語言削弱，相反地使它豐富和加強起來了」。

② 本文選用的新詞大部份選自穗港兩地活的口語(筆者是廣州人並曾到香港作調查)，有些則來源於穗港的電視或報刊。新詞中穗與港使用頻率有差別的，則在各詞之後用括號注明。

③ 有些新詞讀音與普通話差異較大者，則用國際音標注音。

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談對外漢語教學中的成語教學

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成語是語言的精華，是具有特殊表現力的固定詞組，各種不同的民族語言中都有一定數量的成語。漢語是一種非常發達的語言。漢語中的成語是極其豐富的，無論是書面語還是口語，都有大量的成語為我們使用着。因此，外國人學習漢語的時候，面對漢語這個富饒的語言礦藏，成語就如同一顆顆晶瑩閃光的寶石吸引着他們的注意。他們往往對漢語有着濃厚的興趣，希望多學，多掌握一些成語。於是，這就給我們提出了一個課題，即在對外漢語教學中應該如何進行成語的教學。本文擬就這一問題，結合教學實踐談談自己的看法。

一、緊緊抓住民族性特點進行成語教學

學習一種語言，總是要盡可能多地掌握這種語言的詞滙，外國人學漢語自然也不例外。當他們有了一點漢語基礎，帶着進一步提高漢語水平的目的學習漢語的時候，他們總要千方百計地擴大自己的詞滙量。而在這個不斷豐富詞滙的過程中，他們往往對漢語的成語有一種明顯的新鮮感，並由此而產生出一種特殊的興趣。不少學生希望老師多教他們一些成語，也有的學生經常拿一些成語讓老師解釋。之所以如此，我覺得這首先要從成語本身去尋找原因。我們知道，外國人來中國大都喜歡游覽中國的名勝古迹，對中國的工藝品也愛不釋手。原因何在？這主要是由於這些事物能充分反映出中華民族的風格的特點。正是這樣，他們對漢語中有着鮮明的民族特點的成語才會產生那樣的興趣。基於這一認識，我覺得在對外漢語教學中，必須緊緊抓住民族性這一特點，有目的、有計劃地進行成語教學，才會收到良好的效果。

成語的民族性特點無論在內容上還是在形式上都表現得非常充分。在內容上，很多成語直接淵源於漢民族源遠流長的古典文化，反映了我們漢民族的歷史事件，寓言故事，體現了漢民族的文化傳統。這些成語中不少是現在常用的，如：「自相矛盾」、「畫蛇添足」、「濫竽充數」、「毛遂自薦」、「紙上談兵」、「完璧歸趙」等；還有些成語，如「半斤八兩」、「得寸進尺」、「無名小卒」、「千鈞一發」、「名落孫山」等，反映了我們漢民族的特有事物，在對外漢語教材裏，在日常生活交際中也經常出現。對這樣的成語，結合其出處和它們所表現的民族特點加以講

解。使學生既學到新詞語，又了解了中國的文化知識，學生是非常歡迎的。有的學生學了「涇渭分明」這一成語。在旅游時特意到涇河、渭河會合處去觀察；也有的學生在游覽泰山時，聯想起「穩如泰山」、「重於泰山、輕於鴻毛」、「泰山壓頂」等成語，反複體味這些成語的含義，可見他們在這方面是非常用心的。

各民族都有自己的文化傳統和心理習慣，在此基礎上產生的成語也帶有不同的民族特點。因此，在教學這些成語的時候，還可以引導學生聯繫母語中的相關成語進行比較對照。正如「雨後春筍」這一成語，比喻新事物蓬勃湧現，是褒義詞語。英語中表示這一意義的成語則是to spring up like mushrooms after rain（像雨後的蘑菇生長起來）。兩個成語意義相同卻分別使用雨後迅速生長的兩種不同的植物，這主要是由於中國盛產竹，而英國不產竹（英語中「竹」一詞bamboo是外來詞），因而也就不會產生與「竹」相關的成語。又由於漢族人民歷來喜愛「竹」，稱其為「歲寒三友」之一。至於蘑菇，雖然和竹筍一樣，也是宴席上的美味，但因生於陰暗潮濕之處，同「霉」關聯，取義有所忌諱。所以，在表示同一意義時，由於受到不同的自然、社會等條件的影響。在不同的民族語言中就形成了不同的成語。通過這樣的對比，不僅增強了學生的學習興趣，也幫助學生更好地理解和掌握了所學成語的意義，不失為一種切實可行的好方法。

日語是受漢語影響最深的語言之一，在日語中大量的成語是從漢語中吸收的，同時也有一定數量的成語是日語中固有的。因此，在對日本學生進行成語教學時，進行漢日對比的材料顯得極為豐富。比如，日語來源於漢語的成語中，有不少屬於有「典故」的，像「四面楚歌」、「臥薪嘗胆」、「天衣無縫」、「畫龍點睛」、「溫故知新」、「朝三暮四」等這些成語，或出自於中國的歷史故事，或出自於中國古代文化典籍。對這類成語，日本學生大多掌握了它們在日語中的意義和用法，那麼在教學這些成語時，就應讓學生進一步學會用漢語表述它們的意義和用法，有的則可以根據需要介紹成語的出處和來源，並讓學生用漢語練習講述。這樣，學生在學習成語的同時，既能了解到中日兩國文化的歷史淵源，又鍛煉了成段表達的能力。此外，一些日語中固有的成語，在漢語中一般可找到與之相對應的成語，如：

日　語	漢　語
山紫水明	山清水秀
八方美人	八面玲瓏
興味津津	津津有味
心機一轉	靈機一動
奇想天外	異想天開

在學習這類成語時，就可以啟發學生把它們放在一起進行對照比較，以幫助他們更好地理解和掌握這些成語。

另一方面，成語在形式上所表現出的民族性特點在成語教學中也是不可忽視的。首先，漢語成語所特有的這種高度概括和凝煉的四字格結構，就使不少外國學生有一種新鮮感。有的學生提出，為甚麼漢語的成語大多是這種形式。對這一問題最好能做簡要的講解和說明。另外，漢語成語中用某些數詞虛指多數的情況大量存在。如「三心二意」、「三番五次」、「五花八門」、「七嘴八舌」、「九死一生」、「百折不撓」、「萬水千山」等；還有的成語帶重疊成分，如「形形色色」、「小心翼翼」、「頭頭是道」、「滔滔不絕」、「興致勃勃」等。對這些類型的常用成語，可在分散學習的基礎上進行歸納，這樣則能使學生根據結構形式上的某一特點掌握一批成語。

總之，外國人學漢語是有一定的自身規律的，我們的教學只有符合這種規律才會取得成功。在對外漢語教學中進行成語教學，緊緊抓住成語的民族特點，正是充分注意和考慮到外國人學漢語的特定情況，因此必然會是行之有效的。

二、成語教學要體現綜合性

和學習一般詞語一樣，學生學習成語的目的是掌握其意義和用法。而要達到這一目的，僅僅把辭典上的注釋教給學生，有時往往是不夠的。在通常情況下，成語教學完全可以與語音、語法、修辭以及古漢語等方面的學習有機地結合起來，使學生在學習成語的同時，又學到一些有關的漢語知識，從而收到一舉多得的效果。

與語音知識相結合：

成語採用四字格形式不僅在詞義上概括、凝煉，同時在語音上也顯得整齊、諧調，富於音樂美。但是這一點外國人開始卻難以體會。恰恰相反，他們初讀成語的時候，往往對四個相連音節聲調的錯綜變化掌握不好，讀起來感到比較吃力。這就需要在教學成語時幫助學生分析各成語在音節配合上的不同特點，在掌握發音規律的情況下加強指導性練習。經過一段時間，學生就會逐漸讀得準確。自然，也會慢慢體味出其中高低起伏、錯落有致的節奏感和音樂美。同時還應看到，經過成語讀音的不斷練習以後，學生再讀那些語音結構比較簡單的一般詞語往往會覺得更加容易。

與語法知識相結合：

成語的四個音節一段就是四個意義單位，這四個單位可以按照不同的語法關係組合起來，表示各種複雜的意義。這些結構關係是與漢語的語法規律相一致的。因此，教學成語時根據一定的需要，結合一些語法知識從結構上對成語加以分析。這樣可以幫助學生更好地理解成語所表示的意

義，如「莫名其妙」、「自不量力」、「掉以輕心」等成語，就有必要在了解其構成成分意義的同時，再將它們內部的結構關係分析清楚：

莫（狀）——名（謂）——其（定）——妙（賓）
自（主）——不（狀）——量（謂）——力（賓）
掉（謂）——以輕心（補）

這樣學生對整個成語意義的理解就會不成問題了。

與修辭知識相結合：

漢語中有許多修辭方式是通過成語表現的，成語與修辭之間有着非常密切的聯繫。因此，把成語教學與修辭知識學習結合起來是非常自然的。比如「一盤散沙」、「錦上添花」、「垂涎三尺」、「千鈞一髮」等成語。要了解它們的意義和用法，必然要知道這其中使用了比喻，誇張等修辭方法，也只有對這些修辭方法的特點有所認識，才能更好地理解和掌握這些成語，可見二者的關係是相輔相成的。

與古漢語知識相結合：

成語是在長期歷史發展過程中形成的。因此具有鮮明的歷史性特點。這一特點反映在內容上就是不少成語取材於歷史上的寓言、神話故事和歷史事件，也有些出自古代文化典籍。而在形式上，不少成語保留了古語詞和古漢語的語法特徵。由於與現代漢語有較大差別，因而構成了外國人學習掌握成語的障碍。基於這種情況，教學這些成語時適當結合一些有關的古漢語知識，並加以講解是很有必要的。如「載歌載舞」、「赴湯蹈火」、「爾虞我詐」、「下車伊始」等成語中的古語詞，「何去何從」、「夜以繼日」、「豐衣足食」、「聲東擊西」等成語中的古漢語語法現象就是教學這些成語時應該為學生排除的障碍，是不應也不能回避的。

以上情況充分說明，成語教學決不單純是詞語教學，它與其它有關的語言知識有機地聯繫着。因此成語教學應該體現一定的綜合性，在對外漢語教學中的成語教學尤其應該如此。

三、成語教學的形式

對外漢語教學中的成語教學可以採取多種形式進行。在條件允許的情況下開設專題課進行集中系統的教學固然是可行的。但是我覺得把成語教學融合於各門課程的教學之中不失為更好的做法。我們使用的各類教材，都收入了一定數量的成語，有的一篇課文達七八個之多。如果在一般詞語教學的同時，把這些成語有計劃、有重點地教給學生，將會收到比較理想的效果。比如在《第二次考試》這篇課文裏，出現了「亭亭玉立」、「眾目睽睽」、「寥寥無幾」、「面面相覷」、「判若兩人」、「自暴自棄」、「流離失所」、「若無其事」等八個成語，這些成語都是比較常用的。

在學習這篇課文時，對這些成語從內容到形式上的不同特點進行逐一的分析講解，把它們的意義和用法教給學生，就能使學生通過一篇課文學到好幾個成語。

此外，成語教學還可採用其他一些靈活方式，比如在教學中穿插進行「每日一成語」活動，即每天抽一點時間給學生講一個成語故事，有時還可以讓學生聯繫自己的母語講意義相關的成語。這樣既學習了成語，又鍛煉了聽說能力，很受學生歡迎。除此之外，有關成語的圖片、圖書、錄像材料都比較豐富，只要充分利用，則可把成語教學搞得生動活潑，大大激發起學生的學習興趣。

學生學習的最終目的還在於應用。為了讓學生在理解成語意義的基礎上真正做到會用，就要有意識地多加引導，千方百計地為學生創造使用成語的條件。比如，在學習生活方面，就可以啟發學生使用「聚精會神」、「專心致志」、「心不在焉」、「自告奮勇」、「胸有成竹」、「學以致用」等成語。此外，在日常生活、文體活動、外出旅遊、人際關係等各個方面，也都有大量的、有豐富表現力的成語可供選用。只要不失時機地、恰到好處地進行啟發誘導，就會逐漸培養起學生使用成語的習慣，把他們學到的成語準確、自然地用到該用的地方。當學生具備了這樣的能力之後，他們將會對成語學習產生越來越高的積極性。

漢語外來成分譯借方式之我見

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漢語是世界上歷史最為悠久的語言之一。漢語在有史可查的幾千年的發展史中，陸續從其他語言中借進了許多外來成分，以不斷地豐富發展自身，外來詞也成了現代漢語詞彙的重要組成部分，是現代漢語豐富多彩、饒有表現力的原因之一。據劉正埮、高名凱、麥永乾、史有為合編的《漢語外來詞詞典》（以下簡稱《詞典》）統計，目前保留在現代漢語詞彙系統中的外來詞即有「一萬餘則」。①這些外來詞是根據哪些原則被漢語從他種語言中吸取進來的，這一點，高名凱、劉正埮二位先生在三十多年前已有詳論，②最近李樂毅先生又在補充說明的同時重新提出，③問題已基本辨明。本文主要想從形式和內容兩個方面對現代漢語外來成分的譯借方式談一點個人的心得，看一看外語成分是如何融入現代漢語詞彙系統之中，成為漢語外來成分的。

（一）

《詞典》收詞一萬餘條，其中除語音形式完全借自外語的全外來詞外，尚有為數不算很少的半外來詞。所謂半外來詞，就是詞的一半是音譯的，一半是意譯的，這意譯的材料是漢語本有的，並非外來的成分，如「啤酒」「芭蕾舞」「伊斯蘭教」「馬賽爾．考比倫盃」中的「酒」「舞」「教」「盃」；所謂全外來詞，就是完全以漢語的字音對譯外語詞的語音形式，沒有漢語語素參預其間，整個兒的字音組合體才與漢語的一個語素或詞相當，如「邏輯」「派力司」「奧林匹克」「德謨克拉西」。外來詞中還有一些是所謂音譯兼意譯的，其中既有詞的部分音譯兼意譯的，也有全詞音譯兼意譯的，如「引得」「烏托邦」「可口可樂」「愛斯不難讀」。這些詞中「意譯」的部分其實並非真正的意譯，而祇是在照顧到語音形式相近似的前提下把稍稍能夠表示出外語詞的某一點意義的漢字牽彊附會地用於外來詞中。「這些所謂『音義兼顧』的外來詞創造法，因為需要『兼顧』，兩者都顧不全……所謂『顧義』，也祇是用一種拐彎抹角的方法或祇涉及原詞意義的一部分，甚至於祇是引申的意義，而不能把原詞的中心意義完全表達出來。所謂『顧音』，也祇是拿相近的語音，甚至

於祇在某種發音部位或發音方法上有點類似的語音，來代替原詞的發音法，而不能按照嚴格的對應規律來發音。顧到音，就顧不到義，顧到義，就顧不到音，結果，音義兼顧就祇能在兩方面顧其一鱗片爪。」④由於以上的原因，沒有理由把這類詞算作半外來詞，而把它們視為全外來詞似更為適切。

據我們統計，《詞典》中收全外來詞共有6 213個，佔《詞典》收詞的半數以上，這反映了漢語外來詞以音譯為主的概貌。全外來詞音節長短不一，長可達八個音節，短祇有一個音節。在全部全外來詞中，雙音節的為數最多，所佔比例也最大，有2 530個詞，佔總數的40.72%，如「撲克」「派司」「羅漢」「玻璃」；三音節外來詞次之，有1 977個，佔31.82%，如「海洛因」「凡士林」「葛郎瑪」「熱瓦甫」；四音節外來詞又次之，有913個，佔14.69%，如「費厄潑賴」「阿斯匹林」「格林斯本」「習明納爾」；五音節外來詞和單音節外來詞的數量，比例接近，前者有362個，佔5.83%，如「煙士披利純」「國論勃極烈」「布爾什維克」「第亞納蒂克」，後者有313個，佔5.04%，如「克」「鎊」「站」「歹」；再其次就是六音節外來詞和七音節外來詞，它們分別有97個和18個，各佔1.56%和0.29%，六音節的如「得諾靡納第勿」「英特納雄耐爾」「毗囉拏羯車婆」「賒乃以室折囉」，七音節的如「海闥魯代訥密斯」「多阿摩羅跋陀羅」「至那羅闍弗怛羅」「兀速都兒剌不定」；八音節外來詞最少，祇有3個，僅佔0.05%，它們是「克拉維辰巴達牟爾」「紥魯火赤也可那演」「阿爾多克拉里涅特」。

從上面的分析中不難看出，單音節外來詞的數量是比較小的；而就是這為數不多的單音節外來詞，其中也還有相當比例的成員並非由單音節外語詞迻譯過來。在313個單音節外來詞裏，有127個是以簡縮的方式譯借有機元素、無機元素、氣體元素、金屬元素等專門術語的，佔40.58%，如「鍆」「鐦」「氪」「鈧」。餘下的186個單音節外來詞，也未必都是單音節對單音節的轉譯，多數情況是漢語以單音節詞譯借外語多音節單純詞或合成詞，如「塔」源於梵語stūpa 2，「米」源於法語mètre，「孛」源於蒙古語böke，「嫫」源於滿語meme eniye。這樣一看，由單音節外語詞迻譯進漢語的單音節外來詞就所剩無多了。這說明外語詞多是複音節的，儘管有些外語詞在被借進漢語時採取了節略的形式，成為了單音節外來詞，但是，能夠借進漢語並成為漢語外來詞的仍主要是複音節詞。

漢語外來詞中有複音詞5 900個，佔外來詞總數的94.96%。在複音詞中雙音節詞數量又居首位，其中既有漢語以雙音節詞對譯外語雙音節詞的，又有外語非雙音節詞借進漢語後成為雙音節詞的。這後一種情況尤其符合現代漢語的詞以雙音節為主的總的趨向。⑤

現代漢語中何以會有如此眾多的雙音節外來詞，這是一個值得探討的問題。從外來詞的音節構成、外語詞與外來詞的音節對應上看，漢語雙音節外來詞的構成方式大抵有如下幾種情形：

A　外語詞是雙音節的，借進漢語仍為雙音節外來詞。例如：

咖啡 ←— 英語 coffee
吠陀 ←— 梵語 veda
衚衕 ←— 蒙古語 gudum
檳榔 ←— 馬來語或印尼語 pinang

在這一類中，漢語從日語借進的日形詞和漢形詞佔有一定的比例。《詞典》共收入日語借詞791個，其中雙音節詞614個，佔全部日借詞的77.62%，佔雙音節外來詞總數的24.27%。例如：

悲觀 ←— 悲観 hikan
反對 ←— 反對 hantai
審美 ←— 審美 shinbi
記錄 ←— 記錄 kiroku

B　外語詞本是超過兩個音節的，但漢語外來詞卻可以表現為或直接表現為雙音節。這又分三種不同的情況：

a　外語詞是超過兩個音節的，漢語在把它們譯借進來時作了節略，祇譯兩個音節，其他音節不譯，遂成為雙音節外來詞。例如：

和南 ←— 梵語 vandana
悉曇 ←— 梵語 siddham
涅槃 ←— 梵語 nirvāṇa
蒈烯 ←— 英語 carene

b　漢語先依照外語詞的音節數量譯借成超過雙音節的多音節詞，然後，再根據這先借進的外來詞縮略成一個新的雙音節外來詞。這一小類可稱為縮略式雙音節外來詞，例如：

羅漢 ←— 阿羅漢 ←— 梵語 arhat
那含 ←— 阿那含 ←— 梵語 anāgāmin
三昧 ←— 三昧地 ←— 梵語 samādhi
單于 ←— 撐犁孤塗單于 ←— 匈奴語 tängri tor sanok

c　外語詞既有縮略詞又有縮略詞所由構成的原式，漢語祇借進縮略詞，或兩者都借而較廣泛地使用縮略詞。這類外語縮略詞多是雙音節的，借進漢語後也就成了雙音節外來詞。例如：

雪茄 ←— 英語 cigar (cigarette)
包衣 ←— 滿語 booi (booi aha)
克魯 ←— 英語 cru (collective reserve unit)
列夫 ←— 俄語 πеФ(πеВЫЙ Фронт Иокусства)

C　外語詞本是單音節的，漢語把它們借作外來詞時使之成為雙音節詞。例如：

費爾 ←— 英語 fils
奴斯 ←— 英語 nous
瑣服 ←— 阿拉伯語 sūf
伯克 ←— 維吾爾語 bəg

從以上分析中，可見雙音節外來詞構成方式之一斑，也多少能夠明瞭漢語外來詞中何以會有如此眾多的雙音節詞的原因。

（二）

外語成分譯借進漢語後，在漢語詞彙系統中充當什麼成分，也是需要理清析明的一個問題。有些學者認為，從別種語言借進本語言中的外來成分祇是詞，而且祇是單純詞。如黃伯榮、廖序東二位先生在他們所主編的《現代漢語》中即把「音譯詞」祇列在單純詞名下，而在語素、合成詞、熟語的構成上均未涉及外來成分的問題。⑥但是，據我們研究，情況遠不是那麼簡單。外語中的成分借進本語言後，除可成為單純詞外，也可構成合成詞和某種固定詞組，有的甚至能夠僅僅作為語素用於構詞。下面分別來看：

首先，外語中的一些詞借進漢語後，祇是充當一個構詞成分，不能獨立自由地運用。它們不是詞，祇是語素，而且是黏著語素。這分兩種情況：一種情況是外語中的某個詞本就指某種事物對象，漢語把該外語詞譯借進來時另加漢語語素複指該事物對象。如「塔拿格拉」源於新拉丁語Tanagra，本就指產於拉丁美洲的一種羽毛艷麗的小鳴鳥。漢語將「塔拿格拉」借進時另加「雀」指明，構成了「塔拿格拉雀」這樣一個半外來詞。「塔拿格拉」不能單說和單用，而且祇能和漢語語素「雀」組合，在這種情況下意義才明確下來，因此，它不是詞，是語素，並且祇是黏著語素。相同的例子如：

啤(啤酒) ←— 英語 beer
卡(卡車) ←— 英語 car
吧(酒吧) ←— 英語 bar
沙(沙皇) ←— 俄語 Царь

另一種情況是借進的外語成分並不指明所要表示的事物對象，外語成分借進而成外來成分時再加漢語本有的語素指明所要說明的事物對象。如「特洛伊木馬」本自英語Trojan horse，但是漢語祇將Trojan借作「特洛伊」，「木馬」並非借自horse，而是漢語本有的。「特洛伊木馬」是一個詞，「特洛伊」僅為語素而已。相同的例子如：

麥地那(蟲) ←— 英語 Medina (worm)
羅塞達(石) ←— 英語 Rosetta (stone)
翠爾茜(瓷) ←— 英語 Chelsea (china)
賽特利芝(粉) ←— 英語 Seidlitz (powders)

其次，外語中的詞借進漢語後，有些不能獨立自由地運用，有些能夠獨立自由地運用，也就是説，它們有的黏著，有的自由。但是，它們不論是黏著的還是自由的，都有相當於漢語語素的意義和功能。這些語素一旦屬於漢語，即要受漢語系統的支配和制約，它們中的一些成員便有可能被人們用作構詞材料。如果有兩個或兩個以上這樣的成分被用在一個詞中，那麼，這所構成的詞就是一種特殊的合成詞——由外來語素構成的合成詞。如「英吉利豁恩」這個詞，「英吉利」源於英語 English，「豁恩」來自英語 horn，「英吉利」既可與「豁恩」組合，也可與「文字」「民族」等組合在一起，構成「英吉利文字」「英吉利民族」等，「豁恩」也不但能與「英吉利」發生構詞關係，還能和不少語素一起構成別的一些詞，如「布格爾豁恩」(bugle horn)「阿爾多豁恩」(alto horn)「巴賽特豁恩」(basset horn)。可見，「英吉利」和「豁恩」都不僅有與漢語語素相當的意義，也有與漢語語素相當的構詞功能，因此，由它們組合起來構成的詞應該算作合成詞。相同的例子如：

英鎊 ←— 英語 English + 英語 pound
白脱曲奇 ←— 英語 butter + 英語 cookie
契里亞加葡萄 ←— 俄語 ЧИЛЯГа+ 大宛語 bādagā
克拉克電池 ←— 英語 clark + 日語「電池」denchi

再次，外語中由兩個或兩個以上的詞構成的一種固定詞組——專名語，漢語把它們譯借進來時用的也不止一個詞，這就構成了外來專名語。外來專名語中的每一個詞都可獨立自由地運用，當詞與詞組合在一起時才成為這種固定詞組。如「阿歷克賽·康斯坦丁諾維奇·托爾斯泰」源於俄語 АЛексей КСНСТЭН ТИНОВИЧ ТОЛСТСЙ。「阿歷克賽」「康斯坦丁諾維奇」「托爾斯泰」都可單獨使用，三個詞組合在一起才構成這個固定的專名語。相同的例子如：

卡爾·馬克思 ←— 德語 karl Marx
羅曼·羅蘭 ←— 法語 Romain Rolland
托馬斯·哈代 ←— 英語 Thomas Hardy
查理·狄更斯 ←— 英語 Charles Dickens

當然，外語中的成分借進漢語後，更多的不是成為語素、合成詞、專名語，而是成為單純詞。

（三）

漢語在把外語成分借作外來成分時通常要考慮三個因素：語音形式上是否相似，構詞法上是不是符合漢語的構詞規律，語義上有無可理解性、可接受性。外來成分和外語成分在語音形式上絕少可能完全相同，因為外語成分所用的音素未必在漢語中也同樣存在；即使漢語中也有外語成分中所用的元音、輔音，其結構關係是否全然一致也很難說；再加上漢語還有聲調的作用，這些就決定了外來成分和外語成分在語音形式上至多祇能是相似的。在構詞上，漢語從其他語言中借進的成分多是體詞性的，體詞性成分和體詞性成分相組合，最容易使人們理解作修飾、限定與被修飾、被限定的關係，而符合漢語定——中偏正式的構詞格式。由外來語素和漢語語素構成的合成詞，符合漢語的構詞方式，由外來語素和外來語素構成的合成詞，在結構關係上也沒有「出格」的現象，由外來詞和外來詞構成的專名語，更與漢語本有的專名語的結構方式別無二致。在語義上，外來成分對於借進並使用它們的漢族人來說有無可接受性，能否有最大限度的可理解性，卻是常被人們著重考慮的一個問題。

漢字一般都是有意義的，因此，借漢字字音來標記外語成分的語音形式，就有一個字義和外語成分的意義能否接近的問題。如果漢字字義和外語成分的意義能在某一點上接近，那麼，這所造出的成分就成了「音譯兼意譯」的外來成分，如「繃帶」借自英語bandage，由於這個外語詞的意義是「包紮在傷口或患處的紗布帶」，因此，漢字「繃」「帶」就在大致對應出bandage的語音形式的前提下基本反映出這個詞的意義。相同的例子如：

苦力 <— 英語coolie
圖騰 <— 英語totem
利血平 <— 英語reserpine
聲納 <— 英語sonar

有時，有些字的音接近於外語成分的語音形式，義卻無法表達外語成分的意義內容，便乾脆利用漢字組成一個與所譯借的外語成分的意義風馬牛不相及的詞或詞組，目的在於使人們通過這個詞或詞組對外來成分間接地加深記憶。如「黑漆板櫈」借自英語husband，而husband意為「丈夫」，與「黑漆板櫈」毫不相干。相同的例子如：

尖頭鰻 <— 英語gentleman（紳士）
撒老夫 <— 英語shroff（收賬員）
太妃 <— 英語toffee（乳脂糖）
沒爹蝦羅 <— 馬來語mutihara（真珠）

這種利用漢字字義組成一個與原外語成分的意義毫不沾邊的詞或詞組以加強記憶的方法未必十分可取，因為它們不大能使一些人意識到這個詞或詞組原是譯借外語成分的舶來品，而且這用漢字組成的有另外意義的詞或詞組，其意義有些又是使人很難接受的。有鑒於此，一些外語成分便被人們改用無意義的漢字組合體譯借成外來成分，即排除漢字字義的干擾，純粹利用漢字字音。如滿語sacima，先譯作「殺其馬」，後改譯為「薩其馬」。「殺其馬」有與sacima絕不近同的意義，而且意思也不大好。「薩其馬」卻絕無意義被誤解的可能，而純粹是聲音形式的組合體。相同的例子如：

沙龍 <—— 紗籠 <—— 法語salon
沙門 <—— 喪門 <—— 梵語śramaṇa
涅槃 <—— 泥丸 <—— 梵語nirvāṇa
容克 <—— 肉哥兒 <—— 德語junker

「黑漆板櫈」等也好，「薩其馬」等也好，都不如「繃帶」這樣的詞能夠使人從漢字上體味出外語詞的意義。漢人利用漢字以喚起對外語成分的意義的聯想，這是使用非表意文字的其他民族的人們在譯借外來成分時所無法做到的，是漢民族的文化心理的一種表現。有些外語成分借進漢語而沒有與外語成分意義近同的漢字來標記，漢民族甚至可以不惜另造新的形聲字，以滿足人們從漢字字形上索知外語成分的某種意義的願望。如「玻璃」源自梵語sphaṭika，原也譯作「波梨」「頗黎」「頗梨」「頗胝」等，最後所以造出「玻」「璃」二字以指稱這種物質，是由於它和玉有某種相似之處。《玉篇》：玻瓈，玉也。相同的例子如：

琴祾 <—— 突厥語gobuz
[illegible] <—— 英語opossum
嗩吶 <—— 波斯語surnā
琉璃 <—— 梵語veḷūriya

主要參考文獻

劉正埮、高名凱、麥永乾、史有為編《漢語外來詞詞典》，上海辭書出版社1984年版。

高名凱、劉正埮著《現代漢語外來詞研究》，文字改革出版社（北京）1958年版。

附註：

① 見《漢語外來詞詞典》劉正埮所撰「序言」，上海辭書出版社1984年版。
② 請看高名凱、劉正埮著《現代漢語外來詞研究》第141—170頁，文字改革出版社（北京）1958年版。

③ 李樂毅：《現代漢語外來詞的統一問題》，《語文建設》(北京)1990年第2期。

④ 高名凱、劉正埮：《現代漢語外來詞研究》第164頁。

⑤ 中國社會科學院語言研究所詞典編輯室編的《現代漢語詞典》(商務印書館，1985，北京)收條目56 000餘，據本人統計，其中僅雙音節複合詞即有32 346個，約佔57.76%，如果再加上派生詞和兩個音節的單純詞，雙音節詞所佔比例就會更大。請參看拙文《複合詞詞素間的意義結構關係》，收入《語言研究論叢》第六輯，天津教育出版社1990年版。

⑥ 參看黃伯榮、廖序東主編的《現代漢語》第三章"詞彙"，甘肅人民出版社1983年版。

普通話、粵語語法比較的問題

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就兩種古代同源的語言進行比較，了解它們的共同點和各自的特性，從而探索語言發展的規律和正確估量兩種語言之間的關係，這是很有意義的工作，無論是純學術上的求知和語言教學的需要，都令我們不能忽視這問題。

一向以來，學者都認為粵語是漢語方言之一，筆者手邊最早的資料是Eitel氏所著的《Chinese-English Dictionary in the Cantonese Dialect》(第一版序言為1877年)，書名中用dialect一詞，可以見到作者的看法，其後黃錫凌《粵音韻彙》的英文序言，袁家驊等的《漢語方言概要》，高華年的《廣州方言研究》等等，都無不秉承這種觀點。但隨著漢語研究日漸深化，學者開始對這種說法提出質疑。1990年3月李敬宗在《語文建設通訊》第27期發表《粵語是漢語族羣中的獨立語言》一文，更加以明確的否定。

由於時間、篇幅所限，筆者無意就這項爭議提出論斷。只希望通過本文討論對粵語和普通話進行分析比較時應該採用的方法和態度，其中雖然多就李氏文中觀點加以辨析，但主要的還在於藉此闡明原則性的問題。下文分為兩部分，第一部分討論量化統計的基本要求，第二部分就語法分析的方法來說。而全文以第二部分為主。

I. 量化統計的基本要求

Hartman氏等著的《語言與語言學詞典》中對方言一詞有以下的界說：

> 「一種語言的地區、時間或社會的變體，這些變體無論在發音，語法和詞彙上與標準語(Standard Language)都有不同。……如果變體語言僅僅在發音上不同，則往往叫作口音(Accent)不同的方言」①

根據這個定義，兩種同源語言在語音、語法和詞彙上有所差異只表示兩者已經具有成為不同方言的必要條件；如果要論証兩者已經是各自獨立的語言，就必須要顯示兩者的差程度已經超出方言的界限。這裏不能不運用量化統計的方法。李氏在這方面作了很有意義的探索，他將兩者在語音和詞彙上的差距作了統計(語法方面的量化是很困難的，我們不能過於苛求)。可惜的是，李氏所用的方法卻有不少頗堪商榷的地方：

1. 在語音方面

李氏云：

「用《現代漢語常用字表》進行聲韻相同率統計，結果全書5 632個常用字中聲、韻相同的只有1 046字，佔總數21.5%」。②

眾所週知，漢語的語音結構包括聲、韻、調三部分，任一部分內的對比都是音位性的(phonemic)，具有辨義作用。「ma^1」(媽)與「ma^2」(馬)之間的不同，絕對不次於「ma^1」(媽)與「ta^1」(他)，或「ma^1」(媽)與「mo^1」(魔)之間的差異。因此要比較語音的話，絕對不能只比較聲與韻而抽出聲調不理。李文中得出21.5%這數據，其準確性是大成疑問的。

2. 詞彙方面

李文引用《廣州話方言詞典》和《廣東話、普通話口語詞對譯手冊》進行相同率的統計。③根據後者得出粵語與普通話中詞條相同者僅有1.78%的驚人結論。李樂毅在《「白粵」辨》——與李敬宗先生商榷》一文中已經指出該書收詞的標準是「專門收集那些不能逐字翻譯為普通話的廣州話口語詞(有一部分是香港粵語的口語詞)」。④專以粵語與普通話不同的語詞作資料去統計兩者的差異，所造成的偏差是不言而喻的。

即使以李氏根據《廣州話方言詞典》所作的統計而言，可靠性亦是甚有問題的。該書凡例第一條說：「本詞典主要收集廣州話中跟普通話不同的詞語」。⑤用帶有高度選擇性的材料去作為統計的依據，其結論只會誤導讀者作出不確的論斷。

統計是繁碎而耗時的工作，為免浪費精力，應該嚴格選取有代表的資料，否則不特勞而無功，而且更會掩蓋了語言的事實。

II. 語法分析的方法

1. 承認每種語言的自身體系，避免隨便套用李氏云：

「例如有些應該被看成『偏正式』的詞語內部結構關係，修飾與被修飾的詞素順序正好與普通話相反。

如：

人客　菜乾　雞公　晨早　布碎　數尾

詞組結構方面，普通話裏的「主謂結構」、「雙賓結構」、「狀謂結構」、「把＋賓＋動＋補」結構等等，在粵語裏，詞序都相反，如：

粵語	普通話
多人／少人／無所謂	人多／人少／無所謂(主謂結構)
攞得最多金牌	金牌拿得最多(主謂結構)

粵語	普通話
俾件衫我	給我一件衣服(雙賓結構)
食多碗添	再多吃／一碗(狀謂結構)
撞爛咗部車	把車撞壞了，車被撞壞了(把+賓+動+補)。⑥

李氏的語法比較，似乎根據一個潛在的原則：先將粵語某一語詞、結構譯成等義(或近義)的普通話，然後根據譯出的普通話進行分析而確定每一成分在該語詞、結構中的語法類別(如修飾語、主語等等)，再將這語詞、結構還原為粵語，其中各成分的語法類別仍按普通話的進行劃分，最後以此來決定粵語中該語詞／結構的語法關係。舉個例說：先把粵語的「雞公」譯成普通話的「公雞」，按普通話中這種語詞的語法結構而得出「修飾語(公)+被修飾語(雞)」的分析，再按普通話中「公」為修飾語、「雞」為被修飾語的分類而達致粵語中「雞公」為「被修飾語+修飾語」這結論。李氏所謂「應該被看成『偏正式』的詞語」云云，大概就是以此為立足點的。

這種做法不禁令人想起黎錦熙在《國語文法》中對「有」字的語法分析。在「『有一個馳名世界的科學家』句中的『有』」，黎氏視為述語：

> 「他可相當於英文的Being；而副位居首的造句法，也巧同於英文的there is . . . 」

但在「有一個馳名世界的科學家到中國『來』了」句中的「有」，黎氏卻視之為「冠詞(Article)性的形容詞」：

> 「他乃是『領起主語』的一種『冠詞(Article)性的形容詞』：恰相當於英文的A或Some，Any；」⑦

同一個「有」字，純粹根據英語譯文而忽為「述語」、忽為「冠詞性的形容詞」，可說完全無視每種語言的特質，而將一個語言系統硬套在另一個語言系統上面，其不合理之處是語言學界早有定論的。黎氏自己後來亦承認這是濫套英文法的典型例子。

分析漢語固然不能以英語為根據，其實分析粵語亦不可以一成不變照搬普通話的體系。無論粵語與普通話的關係是方言或是兩種獨立語言，粵語本身都是一個完整的語言系統，有其內部規律，進行分析的時候應該從本身的結構和法則去考慮，這是語言研究的基本原則。普通話中的語言現象，只可以用作比較說明的資料，絕不可作為判定粵語語法結構的根據。

以粵語中「雞公」等詞為例，如果用普通話的「公雞」作為分析的根據，那無疑是「被修飾語+修飾語」的結構，袁家驊等在《漢語方言概要》中已經指出過壯語構詞法中有把修飾性詞素放在被修飾詞素後面的特點，暗示粵語這類語詞是受壯語的影響而產生的。⑧

但與「雞公」類似的「魚生」(未煮的魚肉片)、「菜乾」(曬乾的菜)等語詞，張洪年主張其中的「生」、「乾」可以看作是名詞，引張日昇《香港粵語陰平調及變調問題》一文的發現為証，指出「生」、「乾」都是高平調，這正是粵語裏陰平調名詞的特徵。而「雞公」等應該分析為「修飾語(雞)+端語(公)」。[9]

袁、張兩種說法各有根據，表面上似乎互相矛盾，但如果我們將時間因素帶入，並顧及語言交互影響的通例，那兩者之間的矛盾是可以很容易消除的。

在粵語和壯語接觸交流的過程中，不能否認粵語會受到壯語的影響而出現一些與漢語其他方言不同的結構，這是兩種語言交接時最自然不過的現象，李文中舉出了不少很有信服力的例子。但只要我們隨便翻開一本粵語詞典，都會發現絕大多數帶修飾語的名詞性結構都是採用「修飾語+被修飾語」(即張氏所稱的「端語」)這順序的，如「植物」、「大話」(謊話)、「衰仔」(壞東西)等等，例子不勝枚舉。可見這一種漢語各方言所共有的結構方式在粵語中仍然是佔絕對優勢的。由於這種優勢結構的潛在作用，使「菜乾」這類結構中原屬修飾性的成分「乾」經「錯誤類推」(false analogy)而取得了名詞性中心詞(即「被修飾語」)的性質。[10]「菜乾」中「乾」字的名詞性，除了張氏所引聲調上的証據外，更可以從下面一類的語句中得到証明：

「呢di^{1}係乜嘢乾嚟㗎？係豬肉乾抑或係牛肉乾呀？」

(這是什麼乾肉脯？是豬肉的乾肉脯還是牛肉的乾肉脯呀？)

英語中的「egg-white」(蛋白)在這方面頗為類似。「egg-white」指雞蛋的白色部分，屬於「定語+中心詞」的結構，並非修飾性成分後置[11]。

至於「雞公」和同類的「雞乸」(母雞)、「雞仔」(小雞)中的「公」、「乸」、「仔」本身已經是名詞，而且都可以獨立使用，例如：「一隻公、一隻乸、一隻仔、總共三隻」(一隻公的、一隻母的、一隻小的，合共三隻)，所以「雞公」等等可能本來就是以「定語+名詞性中心詞」的結構出現，意義上是「屬雞的雄性動物」，無須分析為「雞(中心語)+雄性(定語)」。

無論是本來就以「定語+名詞性中心詞」出現(如「雞公」)或經錯誤類推才使到後一成分具有名詞性中心詞的性質(如「菜乾」)，到了現在，這類結構中後一成分的名詞性中心詞特性一般上都已經非常明顯，「布碎」(碎布)、「肉碎」(碎肉)、「米碎」(碎米)中「碎」字的語法類別，可以從「雞碎」(餵養雞隻的碎糧)、「什碎」(混合的碎肉碎菜)中「碎」字的語法類別中看出來。其中的「碎」字肯定是名詞性中心語，循「雞碎」、「什碎」之例，「布碎」可以順理成章分析為「布之散碎者」。而

「數尾」亦自然可以分析為「帳款(未清繳)的零碎部分」，(一如「龍尾」(輪候隊伍的尾部)。

以普通話中與粵語同義／近義語句的結構為根據而套入粵語分析中的做法在李文中還有好幾處，例如：

根據普通話「人多／人少／無所謂」與粵語「多人／少人／無所謂」的比對而說粵語主謂結構與普通話的詞序(當稱為「語序」)相反，即粵語中的主語(人)置於謂語(多／少)之後。⑪

漢語由於不是黏著、屈折的語言，所以語序在決定語法關係、詞句意義方面有極重要的作用，這是漢語研究者所熟知的，「紅花」與「花紅」、「死狗」與「狗死」之意義迥異，完全是語序所決定的。由於主語與謂語是句中最重要的構成部分。如果說粵語中謂語可以置於主語之前，又可以置於主語之後(後一點是本文作者依常識增加上去的，因為相信沒有人，包括李氏在內，會反對粵語中「我游泳」等盈千累萬的語句中謂語是置於主語之後的)，無形中就動搖了粵語語法的基礎。這一種說法要是可以成立的話，那粵語語法的體系可能要重新建構。可惜李氏在這方面只有寥寥數語，並未慮及這種說法的深廣涵義(implication)。

事實上就粵語自身的語法系統進行分析，我們看不出有什麼理由、事實、証據非要提出這種驚人的說法不可。「多人／少人」可以按照粵語本身的語法體系分析為「及物動詞＋賓語」。這種詞性及結構分析不僅適用於粵語，而且亦適用於普通話，例如：「多／少了一個人」。⑫在「多人／少人／無所謂」中「多人／少人」屬動賓結構的主語。

同樣的，當李氏根據普通話「金牌拿／得最多」一句而提出粵語「攞得最多金牌」中的「金牌」是主語後置於謂語的時候⑬，亦犯了硬將一種語言的語法系統強套在另一種語言上的毛病。正確的說法應該是：在這兩句中，普通話以「金牌」作主語，而粵語以「金牌」作賓語。就一種語言的自身體系分析才可以恰當的揭示這種語言的結構關係，以下再用「先」字為例。「先」字的結構表示粵語中的狀語可以後置，這是不少學者的看法：

「你行先」(你先走)⑭

「俾兩個添」(再給(我)兩個)⑮

如果用普通話中表示同樣意義的語句去作為比較分析的依據，那無可否認普通話中置於動詞之前的狀語在粵語中是後置的。

但如果換一個角度看，「先」是一個修飾動詞的成分，而漢語/普通話中修飾成分有些可以出現於動詞之前，有些可以出現於動詞之後，有些是可以通過一定的結構改變而或前或後的。例如：

「他好幾次上你家都找不著你」

「他上你家好幾次都找不著你」

「他很高興」—「他高興得很」

前置的稱為狀語，後置的稱為補語。所以粵語中的「先」、「添」亦可以視為補語，補語後置於動詞，那亦是符合漢語的語法規律的。其中和普通話不同的只是：普通話用狀語去表示這類意思，而粵語則用補語而已。

如此立論並不是要否定「先」、「添」等出現位置是受壯語影響的說法，李氏所引的例証，充分說明了兩者的關係，這是很有啟發性的[17]。不過，從不同語言交互影響的一般情況看，一種語言承受外來影響時，很少一成不變的收納過來，往往會將別種語言的成分加以改變使之符合本身的語法規律。粵語中英語借詞的讀者就是良好的例子。英語「stick」中的「k」是爆發塞音(explosive stop)，但粵語聲韻系統中這種語音是不會在韻尾出現的，於是改成了縮氣塞音(implosive stop)。粵語中的「s」不能單獨出現，於是加上元音「i」，「stick」成了「si^{4}dik^7」。這樣的例子多得不勝枚舉。當然有時候亦會引入原語言中所無的成分，例如香港近年來流行「fɛn^1」一詞來自英語的「friend」，其中「ɛn」是粵語原來所無的韻母。「fɛn^1」雖然為對譯英語而利用原有的「ɛ」和「n」合成一個新韻母，但對於完全為粵語所無的「fr」複輔音的後一音素「r」，及出現在「n」之後的濁塞「d」，仍然摒諸門外，於是「friend」成了「fɛn^1」。

由此可見，接受外語的影響一方面是有限度的，而另一方面會儘量使外來因素與原有體系相容。除非有不得不然的理由，否則說粵語因受壯語影響的時候而出現了狀語後置的結構，不如說粵語因為壯語影響，因此在狀語前置和補語後置的兩個粵語固有的結構中選擇了後者。而且這種做法亦只是限於特定的少數語詞。

2.　強制性(obligatory)與非強制性(optional)的區別

在比較兩種語言/方言的時候，我們要區分強制性和非強制性的差別。如果甲語言表達某一類的意念、某一類的語法意義或語法範疇時一定要用A方式，而乙語言則一定要用B方式，這種差別就是強制性的，粵語形容詞的比較式是「x＋形容詞＋過＋Y」(如「我高過你」)，而普通話則用「x＋比＋Y＋形容詞」(如「我比你高」)，這是強制性區別的例子。

但如果甲語言只可以用A或B式，而乙語言卻能用A及B式的話，那其中的區別就不是強制性的，例如：普通話的名詞如果帶量詞的話，一定要連有指代詞或數詞，如「這只雞」(A式)，而粵語則可以省去指代詞而單用「只雞」(B式)。這是兩者的區別，但這種區別不是強制的，因為粵語亦可以說加上指代詞作「呢只雞」(A式)。

李氏並沒有留意到這種區別，他用粵語「撞爛咗部車」與普通話「把車撞壞了，車被撞壞了」對舉而說普通話中「把＋賓＋動＋補」的結構在粵語裏詞序(當為語序)相反。⑱但實際上粵語除「撞爛咗部車」之外，亦可以說「將車撞爛咗」，與普通話的「把字式」相同；反之普通話的「把車撞壞了」亦可以改作「撞壞了這/那部車」。兩種語言雖然可能各對其中一種結構有所偏好，但其中的分別並不是強制性的。至於普通話的「車被撞壞了」卻不同，因為粵語中「俾(被)字後不能省去施事者，不可以說「部車俾撞壞咗」，一定要帶出施事者作「部車俾人撞壞咗」。這才是強制性的差別。

區分這兩種差別有助於更清楚的了解普通話和粵語的差距。每確定一種強制性的差別，我們就可以在兩者殊異的項下加添一類。但如果差別是非強制性的，那只可以說甲語言比乙語言在這方面有更靈活，更豐富的表現方式，儘管這仍是一種差別，但在性質和程度上已經不同了。

3. 系統性(systematic)及個別性(idiosyncratic)的區別

在比較兩種語言/方言的差異的時候，還要留意這些差異是系統性或是個別性的。所謂系統性的差異，是指兩者在表達某一類意念，某一種語法意義或語法範疇時所使用的方式，結構上的差異；而個別性的差異，則指在表達某個特定意念或在使用某些特定的少數語詞時才出現的差異。就以雙賓語的語序為例，不少人喜歡說普通話的雙賓語採取「動詞＋間接賓語＋直接賓語」的方式⑲，例如：「我給你一本書」；而粵語則是「動詞＋直接賓語＋間接賓語」，例如：「我俾本書你」。

但這種說法其實有很大的局限性，沒有考慮到雙賓語結構作為一種語法類別的整個系統。普通話和粵語中可以帶雙賓語的動詞大略可分為三類：

a. 一般內向(introvert)動詞

內向動詞代表事物由外向內從賓語及於主語的動詞，如「收、買、贏」等等，這些動詞所帶雙賓語的語序在普通話和粵語中相同，例如：

	粵語	普通話
i.	我收咗佢一份大禮	我收了他一份大禮
ii.	黃醫生買咗佢很多貨	黃大夫買了他很多貨
iii.	老陳贏咗你咁多錢	老陳贏了你那麼多錢

b. 一般外向(extrovert)動詞

外向動詞表示事物由主語向外及於賓語，如「送、賣、輸」等等，這些動詞所帶雙賓語的語序在普通話和粵語中可同可異(即有非強制性的差別)。例如：

粵語	普通話
i. 我送兩本書俾你	我送兩本書給你
	我送你兩本書
	我送給你兩本書
ii. 我賣架車俾你	我賣給你那部車
	我把那部車賣給你
iii. 佢輸幾多錢俾你呀	他輸多少錢給你呢？
	他輸給你多少錢呢？

c. 「問、教」等特別動詞

這類動詞中，粵語和普通話的雙賓語語序亦相同。例如：

粵語	普通話
i. 我問你一個問題	我問你一個問題
ii. 佢教我數學	他教我數學
iii. 當佢好人	當他好人
iv. 叫佢啊姨	叫她啊姨

至於所謂粵語與普通話雙賓語語序不同，基本上只限於「俾」為主要動詞的粵語語句與普通話同義語句的比較。例如：

粵語	普通話
i. 我俾隻狗你	我給你一隻狗
ii. 你俾件衫佢做乜	你給他那件衣服幹什麼

「俾」按意義類別而言，應屬外向動詞，但正如前文所引的例子顯示，粵語其他外向動詞所帶雙賓語的語序和普通話相同。「俾」只是一個特例。張洪年曾經舉出以下幾個例子，表示其他的粵語動詞亦可以具有「俾」一樣的語法特性：

擇杯茶我	（拿一杯茶給我）
	（給我一杯茶）
送枝筆佢	（送一枝筆給他）
	（送他一枝筆）
擺對鞋我[20]	（拿一雙鞋子給我）
	（給我一雙鞋子）

但筆者曾就這些例子在所教的32個年齡為19–23歲的香港大專一年級學生中作過調查，其中表示自己會這樣說的只佔7.2%；自己不會這樣說，但聽來不覺得突兀的佔36.4%；自己不會這樣說而且聽來覺得突兀的佔56.2%。而94.7%的表示自己會這樣說：

擇杯茶俾我
送枝筆俾佢
擺對鞋俾我[21]

很容易可以看出，在香港年青一輩中，用「動詞(『俾』除外)+直接賓語+間接賓語」這結構的已經極少，而用「動詞+直接賓語+俾+間接賓語」的則佔了絕大多數。

結論

就粵語和普通話分析比較，以揭示兩者的親緣關係及各自的發展特性是一項有意義的工作。但進行研究應該首先注意研究方法的正確性、要重視資料的代表性，還要了解兩者都是一個完整的系統，有自身的規律，不可以強行套入。同時兩者之間的差異是有不同的性質和程度的，有些屬強制性，有些是個別性的。不清楚確定差別的性質，只會使人對兩者的真正關係和殊異程度產生錯誤的論斷。

註釋

① R. R. K. Hartman等著　黃長著等譯《語言與語言學辭典》　上海　上海辭書出版社　1981年　第99頁

② 李敬宗　《粵語是漢語族羣中的獨立語言》　見《語文建設通訊》　第27期　1990年3月第42頁

③ 同上

④ 李樂毅　《「白粵」辨——與李敬宗先生商榷》　見《語文建設通訊》　第28期　1990年5月
第28頁

⑤ 饒秉才等著　《廣州話方言詞典》　香港　商務　1985年(據1981年版)

⑥ 同註2　第36頁

⑦ 黎錦熙(或作黎熙)　《國語文法》　台北　台灣商務　1974年翻印　第51頁

⑧ 袁家驊等著　《漢語方言概要》　北京　文字改革出版社　1983年第二版　第179頁

⑨ 張洪年　《香港粵語語法的研究》　香港　中文大學　1972年　第92頁

⑩ 錯誤類推是語言中的常見現象，例如「慷慨」本來是雙聲連綿詞，但由於漢語中有大量的動賓結構，於是經錯誤類推而出現「慷(動)+他人之慨(賓)」的說法。

⑪ 同註2　第36頁

⑫ 朱德熙　《語法講義》　北京　商務　第76頁

⑬ 同註2　第36頁

⑭ 同註2　第38頁

⑮ 同註2　第36頁

⑯ 所謂漢語中狀語要置於動詞之前，補語要置於動詞之後的說法有時會陷於循環論証，因為一般上前置的我們才稱之為狀語，後置的才稱之為補語。

⑰ 同註2　第38頁

⑱ 同註2　第36頁

⑲ 「直接賓語」、「間接賓語」譯自英語的direct object、indirect object。英語中由于某些賓語在某種結構中可以帶有介詞，如I give a book to him中的to him，所以能夠用介詞之出現與否來界定某賓語是否間接賓語。但普通話由於兩個賓語之前往往無須介詞，因此國內學者不用直接、間接之名，改稱遠賓語、近賓語，遠、近以該賓語與動詞的距離決定，如「我給你

「一本書」中的「你」是近賓語，「一本書」是遠賓語。本文之所以不用遠、近之名，是因為粵語中某些動詞後的雙賓語次序與普通話不同，如「我俾一本書你」(我給你一本書)之中的「你」成了近賓語，「一本書」成了遠賓語。如果用近賓語、遠賓語之名，則會得出粵語的「我俾一本書你」和普通話的「我給你一本書」都是採用動詞＋近賓語＋遠賓語」這結構的結論，掩蓋了兩者的實際分別。因此本文中仍然借用直接、間接之名，前者表示動作所及的事物，即語意學上的patient後者代表承受或失去事物的人物，即語意學上的beneficiary。

⑳ 同註9　第83頁

㉑ 這幾個例子亦是張洪年所舉出的，張氏了解這是另一種可能的結構。同註9　第84頁

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譯者在翻譯過程中佔了甚麼地位？

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譯者在整個翻譯過程中擔任了什麼角色？很多論者都強調，譯者所擔任的，是「信息傳遞人」的角色，負責把「原文的信息」、「原作者的意圖」傳遞給不懂原文的譯文讀者；而譯者必須負責的對象，就是原文和原作者。中國近代自從嚴復提出了「信、達、雅」的準則之後，就有更多譯者以「忠於原文」為翻譯的大前提。

蔡思果先生在他的《翻譯研究》(台北：大地出版社，年份不詳)一書裏說：「高手的譯文，與原文對看，如影隨形。」(頁18)蔡先生又對「信、達、雅」作了新的詮釋，他認為「信、達、雅」應該改為「信、達、貼」，而「信」的意思就是「譯者對原作者負責，把他的原意用中文表出，不要表錯。」(頁19)

金隄教授和奈達教授合著的On Translation(《論翻譯》，北京：中國對外翻譯出版公司，1984年6月)也提到類似的意見：

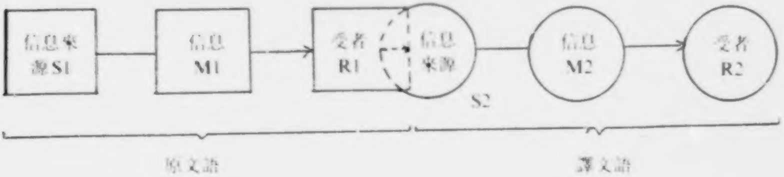
> "……One must be willing to reflect honestly the intent of the original author. An author must be permitted to speak for himself. To put words into his mouth or to alter an intent, based on a translator's own values or ideas, is simply cheating." (P.30)
>
> (……譯者必須樂於誠實地反映原作者的意圖，同時須讓原作者說出自己的話。譯者按自己的準則或意見強代原作者發言，或者改換原作者的意圖，簡直就是作弊。)
>
> (以上為本文作者譯文)

上述的說法，代表了普遍論者，以及普遍譯者的意見。古往今來有不少人都認為譯者只是原作者必恭必敬的從屬，他的工作就是努力向譯文讀者說明一些並不屬於自己的話。

這個看法是怎樣形成的？大概是從前譯者翻譯的文字，一般不是經典名著就是政治、宗教文獻，例如西方的譯者多翻譯《聖經》，以及柏拉圖、荷馬的作品，而中國早期的翻譯活動，就集中在佛經翻譯。柏拉圖、荷馬對西方文化有一定的影響，在譯者心目中自然有一定的地位；至於《聖經》和佛經，更代表了神、佛的意旨，譯者在翻譯時，當然就覺得不容有絲毫差誤，免得負上了「褻瀆神靈」之罪。有了這些原因，譯者便形成了對原文和原作者必恭必敬的心理。

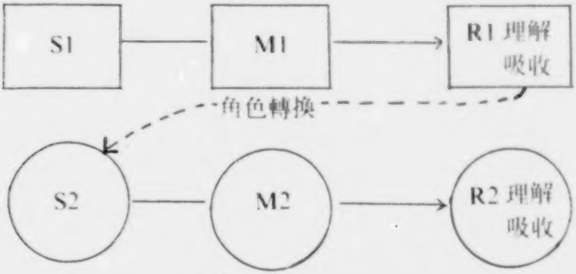
時代不斷發展，不同文化互相交流的機會也漸漸多起來，翻譯的類型和要求也不像從前那樣單純。那麼現代的譯者在實際的翻譯過程中擔當了甚麼角色？以下我會以金隄和奈達的理論為基礎，探討這個問題。

金隄和奈達對譯者角色的看法是這樣的：


信息來源S1
信息 M1
受者 R1
信息來源
S2
信息 M2
受者 R2
原文語
譯文語

(Jin Di & Nida : 1984, P.52)

根據金隄和奈達的看法，譯者既是原文的受者R1，同時也是譯文的信息來源S2。整個信息傳遞過程由譯者居中貫串起來，一氣呵成。但這個看法，似乎過於簡單，而且有點忽略了譯者在整個過程中的重要性和影響力。整個過程其實應該是這樣是：


S1
M1
R1 理解
吸收
角色轉換
S2
M2
R2 理解
吸收

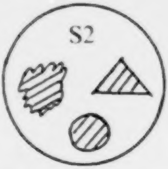
受者R1如果要接收M1這個信息，就要經過理解和吸收的過程；如果R1要把信息再發給R2，他就要把心目中的M1轉譯成另一種文字。這個轉譯的過程如何複雜，相信也不用多作解釋，而在這個轉譯的過程中，S1基本上已經沒有任何任務，位置大概相等於退居二線的「元老顧問」，一切的主動，現在均可以由S2掌握。S2跟著發出給R2的信息M2，其實已經不是原來的M1，因為經過了R1的理解和S2的文字轉譯，M1已經起了本質上的變化，理由有二：

1. 譯者不可能完全理解原作者的意圖和信息，特別是譯者往往不是原作者預先選定的傳意對象，理解上的偏差就可能更大。
2. M1和M2的語言屬於兩個不同的系統。

因此我們可以說，原文的傳意過程，到R1處已經完結，而S2至R2則是另一個過程，這個過程的開創者就是S 2，也就是譯者。這個譯者並不是R1和S2的混合體，而是吸收了M1的S2：

譯者 $\neq$ R1 + S2.

譯者 =



▨：經R1吸收了的M1

從傳意的角度來看，可以說S1至R1和S2至R2是兩個獨立的過程，而S1和R2，M1和M2更沒有直接而且必然的關係。打個比喻說，如果我們買了一瓶水質有問題的蒸餾水，我們不會罵雨神降下了不清潔的雨水，也不會罵水務署管理水塘不善，以致水質受損，我們只會找蒸餾水的製造商來負責。

現在先來看看下面這首詩：

「《春之女神着素裝》
春之女神着素裝，
山楂花冠乳白光；
天上分明一群羊，
白雲朵朵自來往；

粉蝶空中時蹁躚；
延命菊花飾郊原；
櫻桃梨樹共爭妍，
四處飛花如雪片。」

這是一首很齊整的方塊七言詩，節奏和押韻都很工整。如果不加以說明的話，又有誰可以肯定指出這是從英文翻譯過來的？這首詩的原作者是羅伯特·布里季(Robert Bridges)，詩的原名是Spring Goeth All in White（見郭沫若：《英詩譯稿》頁3。上海：上海譯文出版社，1984年2月。）

其實有很多作品，如果不說明是譯文的話，讀者也不能肯定是翻譯過來的。由此可以看到，譯文可以是一個獨立的文本，譯文讀者和原文的關係是十分薄弱的。

再看一首北朝的樂府詩：

「敕勒川，陰山下。天似穹廬，籠蓋四野。天蒼蒼，野茫茫，風吹草低見牛羊。」

這首詩歌很多人也讀過，但相信很少人會注意到這首詩歌是從突厥文翻譯過來的(1)。

錢鍾書跟林紓譯作的一段因緣，我看是很有啟發性的：

「……商務印書館發行的那兩小箱《林譯小說叢書》是我十一、二歲時的大發現，帶領我進了一個新天地，一個在《水滸》、《西遊記》、《聊齋誌異》以外另闢的世界。我事先也看過梁啟超譯的《十五小豪傑》、周桂笙譯的偵探小說等等，都覺得沉悶乏味。接觸了林譯，我才知道西洋小說會那麼迷人。我把林譯里哈葛德、歐文、司各特、迭更司的作品津津不厭地閱覽。……」(錢鍾書：《舊文四篇．林紓的翻譯》頁66，上海：上海古籍出版社，1979年9月。)

吸引少年錢鍾書的，是林紓筆下的小說，這些小說，和《水滸》、《西遊記》、《聊齋誌異》等等具有同樣的地位，同樣可以獨立存在，以自身的魅力吸引讀者。

錢鍾書認為翻譯有「媒人」的作用，「介紹大家去認識外國作品，引誘大家去愛好外國作品」，甚至「導誘一些人去學外文、讀原作」(2)。這個看法當然是很片面的。假如錢鍾書根本不懂英文，或者根本沒有機會唸英文，他和里哈葛德、歐文等人的接觸，就只會限在林紓的譯本裏；如果可以的話，他有什麼地方看不明白，就會找林紓來弄清楚，而絕不會——也沒有可能——找里哈葛德他們來解釋。在翻譯的過程裏，除非譯者有作冰人的意圖，否則他絕對沒有義務和責任把原作者跟譯文讀者撮合起來；就算譯者有意這樣做，有時限於譯者的才情和其他種種限制與不足，原作者和譯文讀者也可能始終都是緣慳一面。這時除了歎一句「天意如此，造物弄人」，還有什麼好說？

明白了這一個現實，就可以理解到霍克斯(David Hawkes)翻譯《紅樓夢》時，是絕對有權力控制譯文的表現形式的，他把書中的紅色都換掉，變成金色、綠色等等，是有他的自由的。除了曹雪芹之外，似乎沒有任何人更有資格批評他的做法，因為任何一位論者，都不過和霍克斯一樣，是眾多受者之一，地位不會比霍克斯更超然。至於曹雪芹是否喜歡霍克斯的做法，現在當然是無從稽考的了。

那麼譯者對原作者有沒有任何責任？有的，不過只是道德上的責任(也許還有法律責任，例如版權問題)。例如譯者對原文有任何改動，都應該加以說明，以免讀者把譯者的意思誤認為原作者的意思。譯者把自己的想法和處理方法說清楚，是對原作表示尊重；說明自己從原文和原作者身

上取了些什麼，是道德上的責任，有道德的文字工作者，是一定會這樣做的。這些做法，其實同時也可以使譯者的意圖更清晰顯現出來，提高了傳意的效率。

譯者就是譯文的創造者，譯文的生命——無論是璀璨生輝抑或是黯然無光——都是由譯者賦予的，所以譯者必須有面對譯文，面對譯文讀者的胆量。譯文受到讀者讚許，譯者可以受之無愧；如果譯者是夠大方的話，也可以和原作者分享。譯文受到批評，譯者也必須自己面對，加以檢討，而絕不應隨意拿原作者出來頂罪，自己就躲在原作者背後。

註譯：

(1) 這個例子取自馬祖毅：《中國翻譯簡史》，北京：中國對外翻譯出版公司，1984年10月。詳細的分析見該書第96-98頁。

(2) 這點錢鍾書在《林紓的翻譯》一文裏說得很清楚。見《舊文四篇》頁62-64。

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漢語特殊句子的教學

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現代漢語中有許多特殊的句子，教學中應當注意這些特殊句子的結構和表達上的特點，提高理解和運用現代漢語的水平。現代漢語的特殊句子的類型較多，這裏重點談一下緊縮句、簡略句、超句的有關問題。

一、緊縮句

緊縮句一般是指用單句的形式表達複句的內容的句子。這類句子可以採用變換成複句的方式，幫助理解其所表達的意思。有的是表達因果關係。如：

(1) 老李不小心碰了頭。
(2) 小王腰疼蹲不下去。
(3) 老趙肺癌死了。

例如(1)(2)變換成複句如下：

(1)′ 因為老李不小心，所以他碰了頭。
(2)′ 因為小王腰疼，所以他蹲不下去。

例(3)變換成複句，前分句要補上省略的謂語動詞「患」等。如：

(3)′ 因為老趙患肺癌，所以他死了。

有的緊縮句是轉折關係。如：

(4) 他想哭又哭不出來。
(5) 他愛不敢愛，恨不敢恨。

例(4)變換成複句如下：

(4)′ 他想哭，但是又哭不出來。

這類轉折關係的緊縮句，可以概括成下面的格式：

名(動物)＋想(要)＋動$_x$＋又＋動$_x$＋不＋動(趨)

如：

他想說又說不出來。
他想看又看不下去。
他要站又站不起來。
小貓要吃又吃不進去。

例(5)每個分句是緊縮句式，每個分句變換成複句形式如下：

(5)′ 他愛，但不敢愛；他恨，但不敢恨。

這類轉折關係的緊縮句，可以概括成下面的格式：

$\text{名(動物)}+\text{動}_x+\text{不}+\text{動(能)}+\text{動}_x$，$\text{動}_y+\text{不}+\text{動(能)}+\text{動}_y$

而且動_x和動_y意義上相反、相對或相關。如：

小狗吃不願吃，動不願動。

小李站不能站，坐不能坐。

老孫說不能說，道不能道。

有時可以連說幾項相關的內容。如：

(6) 他愛不敢愛，恨不敢恨，哭不敢哭，笑不敢笑。

有的緊縮句是假設關係。如：

(7) 他這種人有錢就不知道姓甚麼。

(8) 這個人不見棺材不流淚。

變換成複句如下：

(7)′ 他這種人如果有錢，他就不知道姓甚麼。

(8)′ 這個人如果不見棺材，他就不流淚。

例(8)可以概括成「$\text{名}+\text{不}+\text{動}_x+\text{不}+\text{動}_y$」的格式。如：

他不見媳婦不生氣。

這種鳥兒不放風不叫。

這個人不說不痛快。

有的假設關係緊縮句有省略謂語動詞的情況。如：

(9) （不能和人家比呀，）人家，十兒八弟不用當兵；咱呀，一個兒子也得當兵。

兩個分句都是緊縮句式，分別變換成複句形式並補上有關詞語如下：

(9)′ 人家，即使有十兒八弟，也不用當兵；咱呀，即使只有一個兒子，也得當兵。

有些緊縮句比較複雜，要變換成多重的複句，才能把意思表達清楚。如：

(10) 家鷄打死團團轉，野鷄不打不靠邊。

(11) 你愛去不去。

例(10)兩個分句都是緊縮句式，都有省略成分，分別補上省略成分，變換成複句形式如下：

(10)′ 如果是家鷄，即使打死它（指打得厲害），它也圍着你團團轉；如果是野鷄，即使不打它，它也不靠邊。

這個是諺語，用「家鷄」、「野鷄」分別比喻親生子女和非親生子女。例(11)也有省略成分，變換成複句如下：

(11)′ 你如果愛去，你就去；你如果不愛去，你就不去。

這類緊縮句省略的成分較多。4個分句中只保留了第一分句的「你愛去」和第四分句的「不去」。其餘成分全省略了。這類緊縮句可以概括成下列

格式：

名(動物)＋愛＋動$_x$＋不＋動$_x$

如：

他愛要不要。
你愛信不信。
我愛聽不聽。

緊縮句還有別有的類型，這裏不再詳述。

二、簡略句

簡略句一般是指句中省略了有關成分的句子。這類句子，可以採用補上省略的成分的方式，幫助理解句子的意思。漢語中句子成分的省略是比較多的。在一定的語境中，只要表達得式，幫助理解句子的意思。漢語中句子放分的省略是比較多的。在一定的語境中，只要表達得清楚，一些成分就可以省略，下面是主語省略的例子：

(1) 它剛剛坐穩準備喘一口氣，人們又追來了，(　　)只得又跑，(　　)跑得撒了一路的尿。(莫應豐《小兵闖大山》)

(2) 隨即有一支响箭射出，(　　)直到寨門樓的前邊落下。(姚雪垠《李自成》)

(3) 我其實還有一個弟弟，(　　)早死了。(魯迅《咬文嚼字未始乏味》)

(4) 他的臉色有些悲哀，(　　)似乎想說話，但(　　)竟沒有說。(魯迅《藤野先生》)

(5) 能夠依人情，對不起得很，就不免要攪亂你們的文苑，至少，是將不是東西之流的唾向雜文的許多唾沫，一腳就踏得無踪無影了，(　　)只剩下一張滿是油汗兼雪花膏的臉。(魯迅《徐懋庸作〈打雜集〉序》)

漢語中主語除承前或蒙後主語省略外，還可以有其他省略的情況。如，例(1)承前隔分句的主語而省略，例(2)承前分句的兼語而省略，例(3)承前分句的賓語而省略，例(4)承前分句的主語的定語而省略，例(5)承前分句作狀語的介賓結構中名詞的定語而省略。

在書面語中，為了表達得簡練，可以有較多的省略。如：

(6) 你可以使那洞庭湖，使那長江，使那東海，為你翻波洶浪，和你一同地大聲咆哮。

(7) 這正是英雄的華北人民，也是億萬中國人民的聲音。

(8) 作為教師的王力在講台上，作為語言學家的王力在研究問題時，作為詩人的王力在寫作時，都是嚴肅認真的。

例(6)的結構是：主＋動＋兼＋(　　)，(　　)＋動＋兼＋(　　)，(　　)＋動＋兼＋動。如果補上省略的部份，如下句：

(6)′ 你可以使那洞庭湖為你翻波湧浪，和你一同地大聲咆哮；你可以使那長江為你翻波湧浪，和你一同地大聲咆哮；你可以使那東海為你翻波湧浪，和你一同地大聲咆哮。

例(6)′比原句反複出現重複的詞語，顯得有些囉嗦，但有強調每分句後面的內容的作用。例(6)還可以簡略如下：

(6)″ 你可以使那洞庭湖、長江、東海為你翻波湧浪，和你一同的大聲咆哮。

例(6)″把兼語變成了聯合結構，比原句簡練了，但不像原句那樣分別強調每個兼語的內容。

例(7)的結構是：主＋動＋定＋(　　)，(　　)＋動＋定＋賓語中心。這個句子有兩種變換句：

(7)′ 這正是英雄的華北人民和億萬中國人民的聲音。

(7)″ 這正是英雄的華北人民的聲音，也是億萬中國人民的聲音。

例(7)不如例(7)′簡練，但有強調「英雄的華北人民」和「億萬中國人民」的作用。例(7)″是一般的並列複句，不如例(7)簡練。例(8)的結構是：主＋狀＋(　　)，主＋狀＋(　　)，主＋狀＋動。前兩個狀語後面，都蒙後省略了充當謂語中心的動詞結構。這個句子可以有兩種變換句：

(8)′ 作為教師、語言學家、詩人的王力在講台上、在研究問題和寫作時，都是嚴肅認真的。

(8)″ 作為教師的王力在講台上是嚴肅認真的，作為語言學家的王力在研究問題時是嚴肅認真的，作為詩人的王力在寫作時也是嚴肅認真的。

例(8)比例(8)′特別強調王力不同方面情況，比例(8)″簡練，三者在表達上各有特色，對於這類書面語中的較複雜的簡略句，應分析清楚它們的結構，了解它們在表達上的特點。

現代漢語是基本上沒有形態變化的語言。在表達上講究實際效果，不大講究形式。因此，利用語境(包括上下文)所提供的信息，經常省去表達非必要信息的詞語，只留下表達必要的信息的詞語，使語言簡練而又突出重點。書面語中如此，口語中更為突出。例如：

(9)（在菜市場上）
買者：(手指着賣者擺的黃瓜)幾斤了？
賣者：三斤。

(10)(街上的叫賣聲)：冰糕！冰糕！

(11)（旅客在通往火車站在公共汽車上，手拿着錢伸向售票員）：兩張火車站。

(12) 綠燈行，紅燈停，黃燈亮時等一等。（交通宣傳兒歌）

例(9)買者和賣者都共同了解黃瓜的大體價格，講價的方式是說「一元錢買幾斤」如果把話說完全，就這樣的：

(9)′ 買者：我用一元錢可以買幾斤這種黃瓜？

賣者：你用一元錢可以買三斤這種黃瓜。

在上面的語境中，表達非必要信息的詞語全省略了，只餘下了表達必要信息的詞語。例(10)的意思是「我賣冰糕！我賣冰糕！」而且還隱含着「請您來買」的急切願望。例(11)從句法上分析，似乎「兩張」和「火車站」不搭配。但實際上是通的。因為補上省略的成分，就是這樣的：

(11)′ 我買兩張到達火車站的車票！

例(12)補上省略的成分是這樣的：

(12)′ 大家見到綠燈就行，大家見到紅燈就停，大家見到黃燈時就等一等。

這類句子只作句法分析，不僅會遇到困難，而且不容易理解其表達的意思。必須聯繫語境，從語義和語用上進行分析，才能了解其含義。

三、超句

超句是指用句子、句組或段落充當單句或複句的構成成分的超級句子，承認並正確理解超句，對於現代漢語的教學有重要的意義。例如：

(1) 最奇怪的是(*a*)昨天街上的那個女人，打他兒子，(*b*)嘴裏說道：「老子呀！我要咬你幾口才出氣！」(*c*)他眼睛卻看着我。（魯迅《狂人日記》）

(2) 我們的辦法是：書刊裏的例句一般加括號作附帶說明，有的就略過不提，我們相信讀者是會發現並改正的。至於文稿和習作的例句就把無關緊要的錯誤改正，留主要的一個討論。（呂叔湘、朱德熙《語法修辭講話》）

例(1)是個超單句。「最奇怪的是」甚麼？是後面整個敘述的內容，就是說，後面的整體是「是」的賓語。賓語部分有三層意思：(*a*)和(*b*)敘述一件事情，並列關係；(*a*)(*b*)和(*c*)是轉折關係，用「卻」關聯，闡明了「狂人」認為「最奇怪的」原因。這樣理解，可以符合表達的原意。要注意的是，「說道」的賓語也是個句組。如果把這個語言片段不看作一個超句，而看作幾個句子，那麼，就會割裂它所表達的意思，不能很好地理解原意。例(2)也是個超單句。「我們的辦法」就是後面敘述的內容：先說「書

刊裏的例句」處理的方法，後說「文稿和習作的例句」的處理方法。由於「書刊裏的例句」又分「一般」和「有的」兩種處理方法，而且「有的」部分已加了語言片段就成了超句，如果把這個語言片段看作各自獨立的兩個句子，那麼，就不符合表達的原意，不利於對於意思的理解，下面舉兩個超複句的例子：

(3) (*a*) 那些口講大眾化而實是小眾化的人，就很要當心，(解說) (*b*) 如果大眾中間有一個什麼人在路上碰到他，(順承) (*c*) 對他說：「先生，請你化一下給我看。」(假設) (*d*) 就會將起軍來。

(4) (*a*) 如果你在天盡頭看到那一望無際、浩瀚壯麗的大海，(假設) (*b*)難道你就不產生一種無限美妙的遐想？(並列) (*c*) 難道你又不聯想到，在那碧綠碧綠的海洋裏該有多少不知名的動植物在蓬勃生長。

例 (3)(*b*)(*c*) 結合起來，同 (*d*) 是假設關係，但其中的 (*c*) 分句的賓語是個句子，所以整個句子是個超複句。如果把例 (3) 看作兩個句子組成的，就會把意思歪曲了。例 (4) 整體是個假設關係的超複句，用「如果……就」關聯。(*a*) 是假設一種情況，(*b*)(*c*) 是在假設條件下所可能出現的想法。(*c*) 雖然單獨看是一個句子，但在這個語言環境中，實質上是起一個分句的作用，在教學中，這種情況必須讓學生弄清楚。

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語文教師新的培訓策畫

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九十年代，語文教學面臨新挑戰，對語文教師應有新的培訓策畫。

二十世紀最後十年的開端，許多國家和民族已處於第二次工業革命之中。發展高科技已成為許多國家的基本國策。高科技已成為推動經濟和社會發展的革命性力量，誰佔有高技術，誰就將掌握經濟發展的主動權。科學技術的發展水平已成為衡量一個國家發達與否的重要標誌，是一個國家綜合國力的主要因素。科學技術的飛速發展，使今天的世界變得越來越小。科學成了人類共同的財富。面對世界新技術革命的挑戰，具有現代化思想和精湛技術才能素質的宏偉勞動大軍，亟需達到新的教育水平。但是，現在大多數國家的教育和訓練體制很難適應本世紀最後十年的需要，差勁的教育在拖現代化的後腿。語文教學和師資培訓受到了不同程度的制約。

九十年代，是中華民族建設和發展最難得的一個機遇，是中國實現現代化建設新的戰略目標(工農業總產值要翻一番)的關鍵時期。這是為實現第三個戰略目標(在下個世紀中葉趕上中等發達國家)打好基礎的關鍵階段。我國教育制度規定，教育要面向現代化，面向世界，面向未來。實現現代化，一靠科學，二靠教育，科學的基礎是教育。整個教育得以語文教學打基礎，堅持正確的方向。語文教學要有現代化的教育思想、教育內容和教學手段。教育要依靠教師。語文教師是教師隊伍的主要成員。語文教師這支勞動大軍素質能否達到新的教育水平，關係到綜合國力的強弱和現代化建設的興衰成敗。

為了適應社會發展和實現現代化建設的迫切需要，我國大力發展師範教育和在職教師培訓事業，十分重視教師素質的培養和提高。一九八八年我國高等師範院校達到二百六十二所，中等師範學校達到一千零六十五所。教育學院和教師進修學院達到二百六十五所，進修學校二千一百一十七所。十年來，通過多種形式、多種層次、多種途徑，已培養出了二百八十萬名中小學教師，充實和加強了教師隊伍，在一定程度上緩和了中小學合格師資不足的矛盾。與此同期，全國有二百四十萬名在職教師參加了進修學習，促進了教師業務水平的提高。初中和小學教師勝任教學工作的比例逐年上升。廣東全省十三所教育學院十年來開辦師範專科函授教育，有八萬名教師參加培訓，已畢業的近四萬名，使初中教師大專畢業合格學歷

達標準從一九七九年的百分之十一提高到現在的百分之六十左右。這對改變初中教師隊伍的學歷結構，提高整個師資隊伍的素質，推動教育事業的發展，起了很大的作用，受到社會的歡迎。廣大語文教師熱愛人民教育事業，加強學生思想政治教育，在教學中不斷更新教學思想，改革教學內容，改革教學方法，探索語文教學科學的新途徑，使語文教學有了新的發展，教學質量有了明顯的提高。據調查，受過學歷達標培訓的初中語文教師，成為教育教學骨幹的約佔百分之三十，基本勝任教學工作的佔百分之六十。經過職稱評定，大部分被評為二、三級教師，一部分被評為一級教師，少數被評為高級教師。這樣，教師隊伍就有了很大的變化。

但是，當前我國教師隊伍的現狀同進行現代化建設、改革開放和教育發展的總要求還很不適應。在辦學的指導思想上，思想政治教育較為薄弱，輕視德育的傾向比較突出，教育思想、教育內容和教育方法程度不同地脫離實際，教育質量不高。初中教師包括語文教師數量不足，質量不高的問題相當突出，而且，教師隊伍青黃不接，在老年教師與青年教師之間出現了明顯的年齡「斷層」。在新的年代裏，為了造就一代新的勞動大軍——語文教師隊伍，語文教學要圍繞解決教育和訓練體制與現代化需要不相適應的新問題，制訂出新的培訓策劃。

一、　語文教學要有新追求

在九十年代裏，語文教學要以國家確定的教育方針作指導，加強思想政治教育，明確前進奮鬥目標，努力做到為現代化建設服務，與生產勞動相結合，培養德、智、體、美、勞諸方面都得到發展的可靠的建設者和接班人。方針既然已確定，初中語文教師職後繼續教育的培訓路向應為加強師德修養，更新知識，擴展知識，提高能力，進一步提高思想、文化和業務能力素質，以適應現代化和教育事業不斷發展的需要。

(一)在培訓內容上，要突出重點。重點分三種類型：一是思想型——在思想教育與師德修養規範的追求上要加強；二是知識型——在語文素質和教材教學研究的追求上要加強；三是能力型——在教學能力和基本功訓練的追求上要加強。

(二)在培訓原則上，要強調講究實效，防止流於形式，避免「一刀切」。主要原則有三條：

一是針對性——從語文教師實際出發，方式靈活多樣。根據不同層次職務職稱提出不同的培訓內容與要求。對剛剛大專畢業的新教師，要進行專業培訓和實踐培訓，加快人才的成長。對同一職務職稱的也應因人施教，選擇一種培訓類型進修提高，或者以第一種類型(思想型)為共同必修要求，另選一種知識型或能力型。對語文學識基礎雄厚

而某些能力較弱的要選擇能力型進修提高；對教育教學能力較強而知識要更新充實的可選擇知識型課程進修提高。

二是實用性——重於實際應用，特別應培養動口動手能力，提高綜合技術能力和科學管理能力水平。要正確處理好長遠需要和當前應用的關係，以當前應用為主，加強實踐環節。

三是先進性——進行擴展知識、提高技能的教育，以保持知識結構的先進性。反映科技發展的新信息新知識，運用語文教學現代化手段，促進語文教學的改革與發展。

二、 層次管理要有新安排

九十年代，初中語文教師學歷培訓和職務培訓要相結合共管理，逐步轉向以職務培訓為重點上來。在職培訓以業餘為主，函授為主。初中語文教師的培訓，按五個層次安排：

(一) 新教師培訓班

① 新教師指剛從事初中語文教學工作尚未定職務級別的年輕教師，一般來源於高中或中等師範畢業生，應安排參加師範專科函授學習，進行合格學歷培訓。

② 對來源於師範專科畢業的新教師，着重於鞏固專業思想，熟悉和掌握新教材，訓練教學基本功。

③ 對來源於大專畢業但非師範畢業的新教師的培訓，應着重於學習教育理論，樹立當教師專業思想，掌握初中語文教材教法，進行教學基本功訓練。

(二) 初級輔導班

① 對學歷未達師範專科畢業的二、三級職務教師，應安排參加語文《專業合格證書》文化專業知識考試學習培訓，還要學習和掌握教材教法。

② 對已獲得二、三級職務、學歷也達標的中青年語文教師，培訓重點是更新知識，擴展知識，學習教育理論，鑽研教材教法，探索教學規律；同時，在普通話口語或板書的教學能力上能得到應有的訓練和提高。

(三) 中級提高班

對已獲得一級職務或二級職務挑重担的初中語文教師，培訓重點在於更新知識，擴展知識，學習新教育理論，就教材教法或教學內容方法改革的某些專題開展研討，掌握語文教學新信息新成果。

（四） 高級研討班

對已獲得高級職務或一級職務挑重担的初中語文教師，培訓重點在於舉辦專題講座，學習新理論新知識。以專題研究為主，總結教學經驗，研討語文教學改革新問題新途徑，撰寫論文或專著。

（五） 高層學歷班

對已專科畢業有培養發展前途的中青年語文教師，幫助他們報讀專科畢業起點中文本科函授或脫產進修，進行高一個層次的合格學歷培訓，為合格的高中語文教師培養後備人才。

三、 課程結構要有新系列

對不同結構層次的初中語文教師培訓班，應設置不同的課程。下面是各個層次培訓班的課程設置及其主要內容，課時。

（一） 在新教師培訓班開設如下課程：

① 《師德修養》：教師職業道德與修養。30課時。

② 《初中語文教材分析》：全套教材的編寫意圖，各冊的要求和重點難點，各種文體重點篇目分析，教學建議。50課時。

③ 《語文教學基本理論》：從理論和實踐的結合上，學習語文科的性質、教學目的、教學原則，提高教師的理論水平。20課時。

④ 《教學基本功訓練》：訓練自學能力和獨立思考能力，較強的聽、說、讀、寫、教能力，以及一般教育活動能力。50課時。

⑤ 《初中學生學習心理》：學生學習心理特點，以及改進語文教學的作用、意義。20課時。

⑥ 《備課、教案與板書》：學習備課、寫教案、組織教學以及板書藝術。40課時。

⑦ 《班主任工作管理》：班主任工作任務、原則和方法，班級集體的組織和培養途徑，個別教育的原則和方法。30課時。

（二） 在初級輔導班開設如下課程：

① 《初中語文各類文體的教學與研究》：各類文體的特點和教學規律，提高教師備課質量和教學效果。40課時。

② 《教學藝術》：備課的藝術，教課的藝術，開闢第二課堂的藝術。30課時。

③《師德修養》：教師的職業道德與修養，教書育人與為人師表。30課時。

④《說寫訓練研究》：改變說寫訓練脫節、重寫輕說的現象，強調說與寫並重，加強說寫能力的培養。20學時。

⑤《演講與口才》：口頭表達能力的要求，口才的培養和訓練，演講技巧，方音辨正與普通話口語訓練。20課時。

⑥《語文教學手段現代化研究》：現代化手段的發展史，現代化手段對提高語文教學效率的作用和規律。20課時。

⑦《新教學語法體系研究》：掌握新的教學語法體系，提高理解運用中學語文中語法知識的能力。20課時。

⑧《初中語文教改動態》：十年來語文教學改革的典型經驗及基本規律，對深化語文教學改革有重大意義。20課時。

⑨《影視藝術的鑒賞與評論》：電影特徵中視聽造型、時空運動、綜合性、蒙太奇等基本知識，鑒賞評論的原則、規律和方法，提高評論的理論認識和實際能力。20課時。

⑩《古詩文的誦讀及其鑒賞》：誦讀要求和特點，以詩歌流派為主講授，援引代表作品為例証，擴大知識面，增強判斷力。20課時。

（三）在中級提高班開設如下課程：

①《中學語文教材研究》：八十年來我國語文教材編寫情況及體系的形成；十年來幾種優秀教材的編寫特點，創造性地使用教材，提高教學效果。40課時。

②《閱讀教學研究》：閱讀教學的理論和經驗，改革「以講為主」的現象，培養閱讀能力，提高閱讀教學效率。20課時。

③《作文教學研究》：了解學生作文心理，探討提高作文能力的途徑；近年來作文教學序列的研究成果，引導研究、改革作文教學。20課時。

④《中學語文教改研究》：各種語文教改典型的經驗、方法、效果，分析其共同點及各自特色，探討教學規律和教改途徑。30課時。

⑤《聽說訓練研究》：加強聽說能力與培養現代化人才的關係；聽說訓練與思維能力訓練、讀寫訓練的關係；語文教學聽說訓練的目的任務、具體內容、計畫、形式、方法等，提高語文教學藝術和訓練藝術。30課時。

⑥《教學語法與語法教學》：介紹新語法體系內容，觀點、重點和難點，探討這些難點的教學方法。20課時。

⑦ 《中學語文教學中的審美教育》：審美教育的特點、具體內容、方法途徑，提高審美教育的自覺性，增強語文教學的美感和藝術感染力。20課時。

⑧ 《中學語文教學的語言教學》：語言表達和理解的各種語言因素，結合教材介紹書面的各種表達方式特點，與閱讀、理解、欣賞有關的諸語言因素，涉及口語的表達和理解。20課時。

⑨ 《語文教學現代化手段的運用》：現代化教學手段的運用的特殊作用，及培養現代化人才的現實意義，明確教學原則，解剖常用的幻燈、錄音、唱機、電影、電視、計算機、語言實驗室等現代化手段，研究運用具體方法與效果。20課時。

⑩ 《中學語文教學心理》：探索中學語文教學的特點與規律，運用教學內外部條件，促進學生心理活動和學習積極性的有效途徑，為提高教學效率提供理論依據和可借鑒的實踐經驗。20課時。

（四） 在高級研討班開設如下的課程：

① 《當代語文教學流派的比較與研究》：揭示中國古代文學與現代文學的內在淵源關係，以及外國文學對中國現代文學的具體影響，總結文學創作的某些異同規律。30課時。

② 《語文教學中的美育研究》：研究語文教材中的美學因素，審美的觀點和方法。20課時。

③ 《比較文學研究》：法國學派和影響研究，美國學派和平行研究，中國神話比較研究，中國詩歌比較研究，中國小說比較研究，中國戲劇比較研究，西方現代派文學與中國當代文學的新發展。30課時。

④ 《閱讀教學研究》：中學閱讀教學中的講讀課、自讀課及課外閱讀，分析其經驗，研究其教學規律性，有效性。20課時。

⑤ 《作文教學研究》：探討作文教學的癥結所在，總結有效經驗，研究基本矛盾和途徑，運用信息論、系統論、控制論的理論，以強化能動性觀念來研討作文教學的改革。20課時。

⑥ 《聽說教學研究》：探討加強聽說能力與培養現代化人才的關係，以及聽說訓練與思維能力訓練、讀寫訓練的關係；研討語文教學中聽說訓練的目的任務、具體內容、計畫、形式、方法等；研究如何提高教學藝術及訓練的效率。20課時。

⑦ 《語文教學中的語言教學研究》：語言表達和理解的各種語言因素；結合教材介紹書面的各種表達方式和特點，與閱讀、理解、欣賞有關的諸語言因素，涉及口語的表達和理解。20課時。

⑧ 《語文教學調查研究與經驗交流》：組織教師下基層學校或先進學校學習訪問，調查研究，交流語文教學改革經驗。100課時。

⑨ 《撰寫語文教學論文或專著》：指導如何撰寫論文，圍繞中學語文教學改革，選擇論題。100課時。

（五） 在高層學歷班課程設置及課時要重新安排

高層學歷班指專科畢業起點中文科函授班或脫產班。這種班在廣東教育學院已舉辦許多期，效果好，深受教師歡迎。開設課程如下：

①《美學概論》，50課時。②《中國現當代文學》，90課時。③《中國古代文學》，120課時。④《中國古代文論選讀》，50課時。⑤《古代漢語》，70課時。⑥《外國文學選讀》，60課時。⑦《現代漢語專題》，30課時。⑧《文藝理論專題》，30課時。⑨《中學語文教學專題》，40課時。

此外，師範專科函授(三年制)班開設課程如下：

①《中學教育學》，②《中學教育心理學》，③《中學語文教材教法》，④《現代漢語》，⑤《古代漢語》，⑥《寫作》，⑦《文學概論》，⑧《中國古代文學作品選讀》，⑨《中國現當代文學作品選讀》，⑩《外國文學作品選讀》，⑪《形式邏輯》，⑫地方規定的課程：《應用寫作》、《地方文化專題》、《影視藝術鑒賞》、《鄉土文學》、《書法知識與書法訓練》、《朗讀基礎》、《方音辨正與普通話口語訓練》、《文史工具書使用法》。

初中語文教師《專業合格証書》文化專業知識考試課程設置如下：

①《中國古代文學作品選讀》；②《中國現代文學作品選讀》；③《現代漢語》；④《寫作》。

四、 語文政策要有新規定

語文教師享有進修提高的權利。教師通過進修而獲得職務培訓專業証書，是學校對教師進行考核及晉升、聘用、續聘職務的依據之一。教師通過培訓，分別獲得不同的証書，包括師專畢業証書、職務專業學習証書、大專起點本科畢業証書，國家均予以承認。高級研討班和本科班由省級教育學院負責培訓；新教師培訓班、初級輔導班、中級提高班、師專函授班等由地市教育學院負責培訓。除學歷培訓(師專函授，專業合格証書，專科畢業起點本科)外，參加職務培訓的面授時間一般不少於二百四十個課時。各個層次培訓班(三年制師專函授、專業合格証書和本科班除外)課程一般要安排在一年半以內學完，以業餘為主，函授為主；有的也可採用寒暑假

脫產集中辦班形式完成。思想政治教育課是各種培訓班的公共課，必須堅持安排學習。根據成人，在職特點，考核採用開卷、寫心得體會、寫調查報告、撰寫論文等多種形式。高級研討班允許以「學術研討會」形式組織交流，提高學習質量。培訓經費一般由縣(市)、區(鎮)政府和教育部門負責，另爭取有關部門或人士贊助；課本、資料、文具則由個人負責。

以上這些關係到政策規定，只作為建議，供有關部門參攷。沒有一定的政策，包括靈活措施，教師培訓班就難以辦好。

五、　教師同仁要有新態勢

為適應經濟建設、改革開放和社會發展的需要，我們要以事業為重，進一步完善充實適合本國國情的語文教師培訓體系，運用教師資格制度、職別制度以及其他政策槓杆，促進教師通過多種途徑進修提高，使廣大語文教師沿着又紅又專的方向成長起來，做到教書育人，為人師表，完成新時代和祖國賦予的光榮的歷史使命。

1083

REPORTS AND SUMMARIES
滙 報

A PROGRESS REPORT ON HONGKONGBANK/ILE LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT FUND RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT PROJECT 5:

MINIMUM ENGLISH LANGUAGE REQUIREMENTS AND ENGLISH COURSES FOR COLLEGES OF EDUCATION STUDENT TEACHERS

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1. PREAMBLE

The Report of the Education Department's Working Group set up to review language improvement measures (1989) highlighted the need for student teachers at Colleges of Education to improve their language skills. It stated that the language proficiency of college entrants "is not always as high as it ought to be" (1989:61) and considered it important to ensure that entrants have an opportunity to improve their English before starting out on their course. In addition, it was felt that language skills courses in English within the Colleges should be given a higher profile.

The Report also recommended that all teachers intending to teach English or to use it as the medium of instruction should be required to meet certain minimum levels of language proficiency before certification.

It is in the light of these recommendations that Research Project 5 has been undertaken. The aims are to research and develop:

(1) Minimum English language requirements at Colleges of Education for student teachers about to use English as a medium of instruction at junior secondary level and for those intending to teach English as a subject at both primary and secondary levels
(2) An intensive course within the Colleges of Education to bring such students to the specified minimum language standard before being permitted to start their courses
(3) An improved English Language Skills Course within the Colleges of Education

The products will be:

(1) A profile of the language requirements at the end of College of Education courses for certification for:
    (*a*) teachers teaching English as a subject at Primary and Secondary levels

(*b*) teachers using English as a medium of instruction at junior Secondary level

(2) A profile of minimum language requirements at the end of an intensive course for student teachers training to teach subjects through the medium of English

(3) Criterion-referenced tests to assess the above

(4) An intensive course incorporating instructional materials and pedagogic strategies in Colleges of Education

(5) An improved language skills course in English within the Colleges of Education for student teachers intending to use English as a medium of instruction

In the sections that follow, a summary of selected research in the areas of needs analysis and classroom observation will be given, the process of designing and piloting the research instrument will be described and some comments made on activities yet to be undertaken.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Needs Analysis

Although, to our knowledge, no research has been done where needs analysis procedures have been applied to a homogeneous group of student teachers with the purpose of setting standards for certification, it is important to understand the trends in research so as to place the project in context. The origins, definitions and procedures of needs analysis will therefore be discussed here.

The concept of 'needs analysis', especially in adult education, has received an increasing amount of exposure in applied linguistics and education literature over the past thirty years, and there have been a number of important studies which have used needs analysis procedures in order to establish curriculum objectives. Many articles have reviewed the historical development of the concept, while some have focused on the limitations of one or other procedure.

2.1.1 Origins and Development

According to Berwick (1989:51), needs-based language planning became the focus of attention in the 1960s in America, and he gives two reasons for this: at that time, the system of financing for US public aided education demanded that learner needs be identified so that the best possible use could be made of resources; also, the concept of 'language for specific purposes' enhanced the popularity of needs analysis, since both put faith in a set of specifications "to help people develop specific language competencies" (1989:52).

White (1988:84) mentions a related factor which also popularised needs analysis for programme design at that time, the "recognition of the link between language code and language use as manifest in the notional-functional approach". Before this approach, the 'needs' of learners were seen, very narrowly, in terms of language forms to be acquired, such as tenses; because of the approach, needs are now considered with reference to how the language will be used in the real world. Richards (1984:4) makes a very sharp distinction between the two attitudes, reserving 'needs analysis' for the latter approach and terming the former 'language analysis'.

2.1.2 Definitions of 'Needs'

There has been much discussion in the literature of how precisely to define language needs (Berwick 1989; Brindley 1989; Chambers 1980; Richterich 1983).

Chambers (1980) points out the confusion caused by the term *needs* analysis, which may cover such possibly contradictory factors as demands, requirements and expectations. This confusion, caused by the plethora of terms, prompts Chambers to give his own view of needs as specifications "resulting from an analysis of the communication in the target situation" (1980:29). Anything which does not fit into this definition is termed a 'constraint' and should be ignored, he says.

Richterich (1983) discusses the difficulties inherent in two common approaches to needs analysis, the 'language skills' approach, focusing on situations, and a learner-focused one, which encompasses so much (expectations, motivations, interests etc.) as to be unworkable. Richterich does not see the need for a rigid definition, however, interested as he is in "ideological, political effects, scope and impact in the actual process of teaching and learning" (1983:3).

Brindley (1989:65) says that there has never been an adequate definition of needs and labels the 'conventional definition', "Something like 'the gap between what is and what should be' ", inadequate. He points out that the concept of needs analysis is value-laden and "open to contextual interpretation", concluding that 'need' is a compromise between the opinions of various concerned parties.

Brindley refers to the disagreement about what 'needs' are and what analysis entails, and classifies the two most popular and conflicting approaches to data gathering as 'product-oriented' and 'process-oriented'. "In the 'product' approach, the learners' needs are seen solely in terms of the language they will have to use in a particular communication situation" and analysis entails "finding out as much as possible before learning begins about the learners' current and future language use" (1989:63).

The 'process-oriented' approach views needs "primarily in terms of the needs of the learner as an individual in the learning situation," and analysis has to take account of the "affective and cognitive variables which affect learning" (1989:63), such as motivation and personality (cf Richterich 1983:3; Richards 1984:8).

Brindley's aim is to suggest a way of balancing these two approaches. He follows Richterich (1980) in calling for two types of needs analysis, "one aimed at collecting factual information for the purposes of setting broad goals related to language content, the other aimed at gathering information about learners which can be used as guide to the learning process once it is underway" (Brindley 1989:64). He adopts Richterich's terms for these, calling them 'objective' and 'subjective' needs respectively (1989:65).

Two other common terms, roughly corresponding to subjective and objective needs, are 'felt' and 'perceived' needs. As characterised by Berwick (1989:55), "Felt needs are those which learners have", while perceived needs "represent the other side of the coin – judgements of certified experts about the gaps in other people's experience". Felt needs have occasionally been called 'wants' (cf Clark 1979), often in a pejorative sense, and have received a variety of responses from educational planners, from ignoring them, through interpreting them, to adopting them wholesale. Again, "perception of needs can be expressed as a range from sensitive consideration . . . to largely insensitive prescriptions about learners . . .", so that the definition here, as elsewhere, is open to considerable interpretation according to circumstances.

Most writers now accept that rigid definitions of needs are untenable in the light of such conflicting opinions as those described above. Current writing emphasizes the multiplicity of needs which a student can have at the same time and thus stresses diversity and flexibility of scope in their identification.

2.1.3 Needs Analysis Procedures

One's view of how needs should be analysed or assessed is dependent on one's view of what needs are, on the purpose of undertaking the analysis and on the roles of those involved. Thus, broadly speaking, as needs are now defined in a less rigid, more ad hoc way, so are the procedures for assessing them more eclectic and widely-focused, and more likely to be used together (Pratt 1980:79, cited by Richards 1984:5).

Two contrasting, but not necessarily mutually exclusive, approaches to needs analysis are summarised by Bloor (1984:16–17):

> *A needs analysis may be target-centred, which is to say that it looks at the learners' future role(s) and attempts to specify what language skills or linguistic knowledge the learner needs in order to perform the role(s) adequately.*
>
> *Alternatively, it may be learner-centred, which is to say that it examines what the learner can do at the commencement of the course, what problems he or she may have or what skills he may possess that will enable him to learn well in certain directions. In order to specify an adequate teaching syllabus, it is almost certainly desirable to operate both target-centred and learner-centred needs analysis.*

Berwick (1989:56–58) outlines several methodologies which have been used to assess language needs. *Deductive* needs assessment methods include *discrepancy analysis* (to find lacks, often using tests), and *democratic analysis* (asking a reference group, usually prospective learners, for its views). There are also several *inductive* methods: Stevick's *Socio-topical matrix* (1971) matches potential interaction topics with potential interlocutors; Freire's *dialogue* (1970) uses in-depth observation of people and classifications of recurrent themes; and *Critical Incident Technique* (Flanagan 1954; Cohen and Smith 1976) analyses breakdowns in communication when people try to carry out designated language functions.

Probably the most famous needs analysis method is Munby's (1978), which has been the basis for many studies. This is grounded upon the assumption that needs are readily identifiable at a given time and that the application of a detailed framework of specifications is all that is required to identify them. His instrument is the 'Communication Needs Processor' ('CNP'). The analysis "starts with the person (a language participant or category of participant) and investigates his particular communication needs according to the sociocultural and stylistic variables which interact to determine a profile of such needs. This profile is eventually translated into the ESP specification that indicates the target communicative competence of the participant" (1978:32).

Munby includes the following parameters which affect communication needs: purposive domain, setting, interaction, instrumentality, dialect, target level, communicative event and communicative key, and, in designing syllabus specifications, each is given a linguistic realisation. The end product is a very detailed breakdown of the target situation into linguistic functions and attitudinal markers.

Partly as a reaction against Munby, needs analysis is increasingly viewed as an ongoing process. According to White (1988:91), at the beginning of a course, pre-course information about the learners' objective needs, such as their goals, social roles, interaction patterns and language proficiency, can be used to plan preliminary learning activities. After learning has begun, methods such as survey, group discussion and interview can be used to assess needs as they arise and "Objectives can thus be modified in the light of feedback from learners".

The identification of needs can also be a way of making the learner more independent of the situation in which he is learning the language. Richterich (1983) argues for *negotiation* of learning strategies within institutions, by giving the learners a chance to express their opinions on all matters related to teaching methodology and curricula.

Thus, Richterich's approach charts the transformation of need from a determiner of curriculum objectives to the "educational practices, activities and means which learners and teachers use throughout their learning/teaching" (1983:7).

As curricula become more learner-centred, it is becoming common practice to ask learners for their opinions about their needs, but this method is by no means universally accepted. Brindley (1989) refers to two commonly perceived problems with asking learners about their own needs, namely vagueness and misinformed ideas about what constitutes language learning (cf Berwick 1989, Richards 1984). These limitations were again revealed in an attempt to design an intensive course for college and university teachers of ESP, held at Jiaotong University, China in 1980-81 (Allison 1984).

Allison comments that "Participants . . . typically did not relate their own needs for English to their uses of the language in teaching, or elsewhere outside our course" (1984:46). When participants were asked to assess the relative value of actual or possible activities on the course, they tended to answer that all of these were very important. Thus, the nature of participant responses in this needs analysis actually served to broaden the range of the courses rather than narrow them and, while such findings were not very helpful in setting priorities, "an intense demand for 'English' emerged clearly from all enquiries" (1984:46). Allison also points out that this 'across the board' approach to improvement was partly necessitated by the unpredictability of participants' future language needs.

Boswood (1990:58-59) succinctly describes the difference between needs analysis of the 1970s and of the present day:

> *True to its skills-based origins, the terms originally focused on analysis of the target situation, the situation of use of the target situation, and the definition of the 'training gap', but in recent years it has widened its coverage considerably. Apart from objective information, it now includes analysis of students' subjective views about their learning and life goals, their preferences for methodology and learning styles, and the opinions of any other stakeholders in the course.*

In short, a common contemporary view, with the emphasis on designing learner-centred curricula, is that the process of 'validating' a need through consensus is "the crux of needs analysis" (Berwick 1989:73).

2.2 Classroom Observation

Excellent historical overviews of classroom observation can be found in volumes by Allwright (1988) and Chaudron (1988). They are invaluable for anyone interested in the development of observation instruments, methods, and foci of observation, and both suggest directions for future research.[1]

Although there have been many classroom observation studies, the majority have focused on native speaker teachers in content subject classrooms (Fröhlich et al 1985). Several classroom studies which seem to be of particular relevance to our concerns will be discussed in the following sections, though none is sufficiently similar to constitute a model.

2.2.1 Classroom Observation and Teaching Skills

Research undertaken in the 1920s, 1930s and 1940s was underwritten by the notion of a global measure of teacher effectiveness. Gage and colleagues at Stanford University rejected this holistic approach and attempted to apply to research on teaching the rigorous identification of variables exhibited in the social and pure sciences. Gage cites his own 1962 coinage, 'micro-criteria' of effectiveness, when naming such variables.

The Stanford programme for training secondary school teachers adopted the 'technical skills' approach, these skills being defined as "instructional techniques and procedures that a teacher may use in the classroom" (1972:48). The approach attempted to analyse teaching "into limited, well-defined, components that can be taught, practiced, evaluated, predicted, controlled and understood in a way that has proven to be altogether impossible for teaching viewed in the larger chunks that occur over a period of an hour, a day, a week, or a year" (1972:48).

Gage's list of technical skills includes:

- establishing cognitive rapport between pupils and teacher
- establishing appropriate frames of reference
- achieving closure
- using questions
- recognizing and obtaining attending behavior
- controlling participation
- providing feedback
- employing rewards and punishments
- setting a model

These form the basis of the micro-teaching sessions which were used at Stanford to train and assess teachers.

In 1965, Gage, Fortune and Shutes focused on one of these technical skills, *explaining*, in order to determine the degree to which the ability to explain one topic was correlated with the ability to explain another: they felt that this would be a useful undertaking since "explaining comes very close to being the inner essence of instruction" (1972:51).

At the end of a complex validation procedure, two variables were identified as being crucial to *explaining*: "the degree to which the teacher describes the how, why or effect of something, and the 'rule-example-rule' pattern, or the degree to which the teacher states a generalization, gives examples of it, and then summarizes a series of illustrations at a higher level of generality than the illustrations themselves" (1972:54). It is obvious that recent work of a similar nature would reject these 'micro' skills as being far too 'macro': however, this study was a useful first attempt at defining teacher effectiveness.

2.2.2 Classroom Observation Tools and Teaching

The 'Communicative Orientation of Language Classrooms' ('COLT') scheme, developed at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education is an observation instrument designed to record teaching approaches and learning activities across a broad range of second language classrooms (Ullmann and Geva 1984; Frohlich et al 1985). COLT was used for a project concerned with communicative competence, and its precise function was to "relate what happens in the classroom to learning outcomes" (1985:28). It was intended to reflect different approaches to teaching, characterising them as more or less communicative.

The instrument has two parts, covering:

(A) classroom events

(B) verbal interaction and these are sub-divided into parameters

Part A was "designed to measure the extent to which the instructional treatment may be characterised as communicatively oriented" (1985:29), while Part B was intended to provide data on teacher-student interaction patterns, turn-taking and the scope of student responses. The items were drawn from literature on communicative language teaching and language acquisition research and are thus firmly grounded in a theory of what communicative competence is. A simplified version of COLT is given below:

Part A

(1) Activity Type (eg drill)[2]

(2) Participant Organisation (eg in groups)

(3) Content (eg language item)

(4) Student Modality (eg listening)

(5) Materials Used (eg textbook)

Part B

(1) Use of Target Language (Is the TL used for most communication?)

(2) Information Gap (To what extent is the information known in advance?)

(3) Sustained Speech (Are the students' utterances sustained?)

(4) Reaction to Message/Code (Emphasis on accuracy or meaning?)

(5) Incorporation of Preceding Utterances (Is there a natural flow of utterances?)

(6) Discourse Initiation (Do students initiate?)

(7) Relative Restriction of Linguistic Form (Do the students have freedom to choose their responses?)

COLT was piloted in classrooms from four different language programmes in Canadian secondary schools:

— Core French

— ESL

— Extended French

— French Immersion

The intention was to establish the validity of the instrument rather than to compare the programmes at this stage, however.

Information from a number of sources, including teachers and school board officials, led the researchers to hypothesise that the programmes would be different in terms of their communicative orientation. These preconceptions were borne out by the data gathered using COLT and the instrument was therefore judged to be valid (Frohlich at al, 1985).

The researchers hoped that COLT could be used at a later date to judge what kinds of communicative orientation are the best for developing different aspects of language proficiency.

2.2.3 Classroom Observation and Teacher Effectiveness

Observation instruments are still being developed and used for teacher training purposes. It is not now accepted that there is such a uniform entity as 'good teaching'; in fact it is felt that skills are only one aspect of teaching (Richards 1987).

Cloud-Silva and Denton (1989) report on the development and validation of a 57 item, low-inference observation instrument to assess the minimal instructional competencies required of trainee teachers ('Classroom observation and Assessment Scale for Teaching Candidates', 'COAST').

The research to develop COAST grew out of the need at national and state levels in the USA to make teacher evaluation more 'objective' by adapting empirically established criteria which could be used at all levels and across all subjects. The authors point out the assumption underlying this desire, namely that evaluation systems should be closely linked to the literature on teacher effectiveness.

Six domains of teacher behaviour were identified by looking at relevant research and appraisal schemes for teachers:

(1) Instructional planning
(2) Classroom management and organisation
(3) Instructional techniques and materials
(4) Communication and presentation techniques
(5) Motivation of students
(6) Assessment of students

Within these domains, representative teaching behaviours were identified. The first draft of COAST contained 60 'indicators', with accompanying behaviourial descriptions and specific teaching examples, but the list was eventually reduced to 57 items by asking selected 'judges' which items should be included. The instrument was then field tested to see how often the behaviours occurred in the classroom and to check its applicability to different contexts.

The researchers conclude that COAST is valid and useful and they outline a possible way that it could be employed for teacher training: "Teaching candidates could first be pretested over the behaviors incorporated in COAST, then provided in-depth instruction on each of the instrument indicators, then assessed in classrooms with COAST to determine if teaching performance improved as a result of the training" (1989:14).

2.2.4 Classroom Observation and Teacher Education

A recent example of a category system being used to contribute to knowledge of second language acquisition and to increase teachers' awareness of their own teaching is that of Tsui (1985, 1987, 1990). Specifically, it explores the relationship between comprehensible input, modified interaction (Krashen 1980, 1982) and student output, focusing on the classroom because it is the place where appropriate input and interaction are displayed. Tsui's reason for choosing an objective descriptive tool for her analysis is to prevent the observation from becoming "impressionistic or arbitrary" (1985:9) and she draws upon the work of Flanders (1970), Barnes (1969) and Sinclair and Coulthard (1975).

Tsui used her category system to record patterns of interaction in reading lessons in an English-medium (Sample A – native-speaker teacher) and a Chinese-medium school (Sample B non-native speaker teacher), both at grade eight. There appear to have been "striking similarities between these classrooms" with respect to interaction and input (1985:16). In both classes, teacher talk dominated (over 80% in both cases), roughly two-thirds of teacher talk was 'teacher initiate' and there was no occasion on which a pupil initiated. Again, 'Elicits' by the teacher were dominant, followed by 'Nominate', 'Reply' and 'Accept', pointing up a common pattern of classroom interaction, where the teacher asks questions, mostly 'Display' and then accepts a response, occasionally commenting on it. Pupil contributions were usually single words or short phrases.

The native speaker teacher of Sample A used a number of simplification strategies, such as decomposition (Long 1981) and lexical substitution, and Tsui illustrates how these are more fruitful in eliciting desired responses than simple repetition (Gaies 1977; Long 1981), the predominant strategy of the Chinese-medium school teacher. "From the way the interactions were modified, we can say that because of the constant simplifications made, Teacher A was providing more comprehensible input which facilitated better L2 acquisition" (1985:24).

Tsui follows Long (1983) and Krashen (1981) in viewing the classroom as "an excellent place for L2 acquisition" (1985:26), but only if the teacher is aware of the issues raised as they affect his/her own teaching. It is for this reason that Tsui has promoted her system recently in Hong Kong as a tool for increasing teacher awareness and effectiveness, both on initial teacher education courses at Hong Kong University and on in-service courses at the Institute of Language in Education.

3. TEACHER EDUCATION STUDIES AND COURSES

3.1 Research Studies

The only major studies we are aware of into teacher effectiveness are based on data gathered in Singapore, a particularly useful source of relevant research and course materials: teacher education in the Republic has undergone significant changes over the past twenty-five years and English is now widely used as the medium of instruction in schools. Singapore's circumstances are also relevant because of the large number of non-native English speaker teachers there.

The two research studies discussed below are the survey of "Teacher Education Objectives" conducted by the Institute of Education, Singapore, and a study by O'Brien which focused on teacher development and profiles of the "good language teacher".[3]

3.1.1 The Singapore Institute of Education "Teacher Education Objectives" Survey (Mosbergen et al 1982)

This survey attempted to identify the "repertoire of knowledge, skills and personal qualities needed by new graduate teachers" (1982:v) to aid in the modification of teacher education programmes at the Institute of Education.

A seven section questionnaire, adapted from an earlier study involving IE lecturers, junior college and secondary school principals, was distributed to students on the IE's one-year full-time Diploma in Education course (1980–1981): both Chinese and English streams were sampled. Two hundred and twenty-nine pre-service students responded, 77.6% of the population, supplying information on themselves, teacher education objectives, professional knowledge and skills, and personal qualities which might be required of new graduate teachers.

Three broad sets of "objectives" for future training were identified by the research, corresponding to high, medium and low priority in the view of the students:

(1) Core objectives: "the students accorded high priority to knowledge and skills that would be of immediate relevance to them in the day-to-day functions of a classroom teacher" (1982:26)[4]; knowledge of syllabi, assessment procedures, educational policy and goals; skills in motivating pupils, subject teaching, class control and communication; personal qualities such as confidence, good human relationships, good judgement, integrity.

(2) Supportive objectives: "of secondary priority to the students were those knowledge and skills and personal qualities that could be considered as having supportive effects to the main task of a classroom teacher", which would "improve teaching and . . . dealing with pupils" (1982:26).

(3) Peripheral objectives: "The students considered as of low priority knowledge and skills that would have only an indirect effect on classroom teaching" (1982:26).

A subset of section E on the questionnaire (Professional Skills), covered specific spoken language skills. A table of the priority rankings of these skills by students is given below: the results of an earlier study involving IE lecturers and secondary school principals are also given as a comparison.[5]

		RANKING		
Priority Category	Skills	Students	IE Lecturers	Secondary School Principals
High (skills ranked 1–10)	13. Explaining and demonstrating	4	8	5.5
	14. Questioning	7	4	10
	24. Clear Speech	10	12.5	13
Medium (skills ranked 11–19)	26. Suitable vocabulary	11	5.5	11.5
	27. Suitable sentence structures	13.5	11	11.5
	28. Re-coding message	13.5	15	18
	23. Correct Speech	15	7	8.5
Low (skills ranked 20–29)	25. Modulating Speech	21	18.5	21.5

It can be seen that these skills include WHAT the teacher will have to do with language in a classroom (eg 13 and 14), and HOW this should be done (eg 23, 24); other skills relate to a teacher's ability to modify his language according to circumstances.

3.1.2 "Teacher Development, Evaluation and Teacher Profiles for Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages" (MA Thesis, University of London Institute of Education, 1986)

O'Brien makes the point that several studies have been conducted of foreign language teacher effectiveness, but there have been none with a specific ESOL orientation (1986:89), except for the two Singapore IE studies previously mentioned. O'Brien uses the findings of these studies, the syllabus specifications for the RSA's Diploma for Overseas Teachers of English (1985) and findings from Moskowitz (1976) to provide a context for his own "Good Language Teacher (GLT) Study".

The study attempted to identify the attitudes and behaviours of good language teachers, using qualitative methods. It asked for the opinion of former students of the Singapore British Council's RSA Certificate in Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language plus Singapore schools inspectors on the qualities of a good language teacher. O'Brien is careful to point out that the focus is on the teacher not teaching so as to take account of personality factors. The subjects were asked to describe, in writing, the best secondary teachers they knew of, pinpointing what made them so good.

O'Brien approached the task of analysing the essay-type responses by reading through them and noting various characteristics. He grouped features and put them in a rough order of priority, then counted the number of times each had been mentioned. He adopted a typographical system of data reporting whereby good teacher characteristics mentioned by 30–50+% of teachers were capitalised and those mentioned by approximately 20% or more were underlined. Items mentioned by more than half were distinguished from those mentioned by one third of the inspectors in the same way. These conventions have been adopted in the summary which follows.

The results from the former students revealed that a number of personality factors affecting classroom climate were regarded as most important. Top priorities were good *RAPPORT* with pupils, *APPROACHABILITY*, *SENSE OF HUMOUR* and *SENSITIVITY*. Only after all of these characteristics are there any with a "professional" orientation – keen on *PROFESSIONAL UPDATING and training, willing to try out new ideas* and *reads widely*. There were some methodologically-conditioned characteristics too, such as variety of teaching methods, but on the whole these were not as important as the personal qualities mentioned previously.

As for language ability, good teachers *speak and use English well*, though not necessarily to native-like proficiency as it is sufficient that they provide a good model. The skill of explaining was mentioned, but only with respect to increasing learner involvement in lessons or parental understanding of teaching approaches. There was no suggestion that explaining defined in a very precise way was a micro-skill needed by good language teachers, but this should not be too surprising since vagueness is a feature of free response answers.

The results from the inspectors revealed a slightly different set of priorities. Most important was that "Good language teachers constantly seek *PROFESSIONAL UPGRADING* and improvement of skills by attending courses, workshops, seminars and talks. They are *AWARE OF CURRENT TRENDS and DEVELOPMENTS* in ELT" (106). At first glance, then, it seems that knowledge and ambition rather than personality factors were emphasized, but in fact factors like *FRIENDLINESS* and *SYMPATHY* did figure prominently, as did methodological ones such as adopting a *STUDENT-CENTRED APPROACH* "by adapting materials and activities to meet the needs, interests and capabilities of their individual pupils" (106). Also prominent was English language ability, although this was seen in global terms as *GOOD COMMAND OF ENGLISH*. Further down the list came *good communication skills*, with the emphasis on clarity of expression.

O'Brien compared his results with those from the Singapore Institute of Education's studies in order to ascertain similarities and differences in the areas of personal qualities, skills, professional knowledge and teacher education objectives. His conclusion is that

> In general . . . there does not seem to [be] a great deal of difference between the descriptions provided by the teachers and inspectors,

1097

> and the objectives specified in the IE questionnaire. There are some differences of emphasis, although perhaps no more than might be expected given the addition of two new groups of respondents with different experience, positions and views from those of the IE students, IE lecturers and principals (1986:111)

He comments that differences in terminology and grouping of categories may reflect the different educational concerns of different groups, and the fact that the GLT and IE studies actually focused on two slightly different concepts, teacher 'development' and teacher 'education' respectively. Teacher 'development', in O'Brien's view, is more likely to encompass personal and interpersonal qualities, and this survey seems to confirm his belief.

3.2 Relevant Courses for Singapore Teachers

Courses with English for teaching elements are offered by both the Institute of Education and the Language Proficiency Centre of the Ministry of Education. These courses place great emphasis on the teacher as communicator and language model. Selected pre- and in-service courses are outlined below.

3.2.1 Institute of Education Courses

3.2.1.1 The 1982–83 and 1983–84 "Oral Communication" Course

The 1982–83 IE Diploma in Education 'Oral Communication' course derived its Language in the Classroom syllabus directly from Flanders' eight teacher talk categories, but the influence of this system seems to be less strong in the 1983–84 programme. According to the latter syllabus, the objectives of the course were to allow the participants to:

(*a*) achieve clarity of articulation and improvement in stress patterns and intonation so that they will be able to speak and read with good rhythm and expression

(*b*) have good pronunciation, speak a standard of English that is near enough to standard English to cause neither ambiguity nor embarrassment

(*c*) improve the range, colour and tone of their voices

(*d*) develop self-confidence and fluency in public speaking

(*e*) use the IPA script for reference purposes

The course comprised two parts, the first concerned with voice production and quality of pronunciation and the second with classroom language use. A variety of micro-teaching and role-play activities were used to increase teachers' confidence in their ability to interact with pupils.

3.2.1.2 The Certificate in Education "English as a First Language" (EL1) Course

Skuja and Wong (1986) outline the development of the EL1 course intended for prospective primary school teachers using English as the medium of instruction. The aim of this course was to make sure that student teachers could cope with language used in teaching "aside from the classroom context" (1986:162). The language in classroom component was transferred to the micro-teaching unit of the Practicum Curriculum.

The course designers attempted to use a consensus approach to needs analysis in which a variety of methods were used to arrive at a syllabus. These methods included gathering lecturers' opinions, surveying IE students and practising teachers on their views of language needs, and drawing up a profile of the typical language proficiency of IE students. However, the authors say that "since it was impossible to spell out the exact needs of all students accurately," they "felt justified in the end, in drawing up the syllabus based on [their] experience supplemented by the two needs analyses and [their] research into the students' language background" (1986:164-65). The course was divided into three sections:

(1) Language for Information (20 hours) – concerned the trainee teacher's personal and professional development and sought to enhance language processing skills under three subheadings: locating, understanding and using information
(2) Language in Teaching (40 hours) – stressed the teacher's role as (*a*) speech model and (*b*) effective communicator in speech and writing in schools, except in the classroom itself
(3) Language Appreciation (30 hours) – sought to develop an understanding of literature in general and children's literature in particular

Although the major focus of the current research is the teacher's use of language in the classroom itself, which was not the concern of the EL1 course, Skuja and Wong's report on the approach to redesign an English language course for student teachers is of particular interest to the research team. The target group were primary school teachers using English to teach; the course was pre-service; the design procedure employed needs analysis methods in order to arrive at a consensus; and the focus was on the teacher as user of language for teaching and professional development.

3.2.1.3 "Use of English in Teaching" Courses (1990)

Full-time one- and two-year diploma in education courses for both primary and secondary teachers contain a 'Use of English in Teaching' (UET) component.

The UET courses for one-year postgraduate programmes offered to primary and secondary teachers cover two basic areas:

(1) speech production and articulation, including phonetics
(2) use of English in the classroom, covering skills such as instructing, questioning, explaining and reading aloud

The UET for the two-year full-time diploma in education for primary teachers also covers 'basic speech skills' and 'classroom communication', but includes, in addition, 'written-' and 'professional communication'. These elements are designed to equip teachers for the various professional roles they will assume in schools.

3.2.2 Ministry of Education Language Proficiency Centre Course

3.2.2.1 The "Certificate of English in Teaching" Course (1991)

This is an in-service course intended for non-graduate teachers in secondary schools who use English as the teaching medium. It has three sections:

(1) Reading and Writing – Language in Content Materials
(2) Oral Presentation I – Intonation and Meaning
(3) Oral Presentation II – Classroom Interaction

Section three presents a framework for describing and analysing classroom exchanges and the teacher's verbal strategies, fostering in teachers an awareness of their own grammatical and pronunciation errors and an ability to correct them.

4. RESEARCH DESIGN

The research team was set up in October 1990 and drafted a research timetable in the form of a flow-chart (Appendix 1). This has three stages, *planning, research* and *development,* although these are by no means discrete and certain features of *planning* may be addressed throughout the duration of the project. Approximate timings are given to the left of the diagram and reference is made to the 'goals' and 'activities' which were listed in the initial research proposal.

Given that College of Education graduates will teach in predictable school environments, it was considered viable to attempt a target situation analysis in order to determine their language needs. It has been thought necessary, however, to combine information from the target situation with the views of teacher educators, student teachers themselves and others in order to give a more complete picture. Thus, the research team's approach to needs assessment has been eclectic and has aimed at gaining a consensus among parties concerned.

In order to establish a list of prioritised needs to generate a profile of minimum language requirements, a piloted questionnaire was distributed to College of Education lecturers and students, Education Department inspectors, and a random sample of practising teachers who had graduated from the Colleges of Education (see section 4.2.5). The items on the questionnaire were drawn from related literature and studies, the opinions of teachers, lecturers and other experts, and from classroom data.

Data from classrooms were supplemented with expert opinion because it could have been misleading to assume that the absence of particular language functions from certain lessons signified linguistic incapability. Instead, this lack may have been methodologically determined and so it was necessary to find out the common pedagogical practice for each subject under discussion.

The following sections chart the progress of the research from the initial gathering of opinions, through drafting and piloting a questionnaire, to a preliminary analysis of results.

4.1 Category System

4.1.1 Focus Groups

After reviewing literature and research on classroom observation, the research team attempted to draft its own category system in order to help identify teacher language functions and develop profiles of language needs. It was believed that small groups of experts would be able to contribute significantly to the completion of such a system. Therefore, 'focus groups' were formed and it was anticipated that meetings of these groups would be held on an ad hoc basis throughout the duration of the project.

Four focus groups were formed, one at the Institute of Language in Education (ILE) and three at the Colleges of Education. One of these groups was composed of lecturers of different subjects (History, EPA, Science and Education) while the others comprised lecturers in English.

Discussion revolved around English language needs and observed deficiencies of student teachers, particularly in relation to the micro-skills of teaching. It was widely felt that individual micro-skill areas were subordinate to general proficiency, which was thought to determine one's ability to manipulate the specific skills. However, many participants did identify some macro-skill areas, namely eliciting, presenting, instructing and handling pupils' responses, with some component (micro-) skills being simplification, development of ideas, clarification and prompting.

It was agreed that student teachers who were insufficiently proficient displayed certain language problems. They were considered unable to adapt their language to cope with the unexpected in the classroom, particularly when called upon to respond to student silence, misunderstanding or an inappropriate answer. The student teachers' inability to express themselves clearly and accurately were also identified as problem areas, and it was felt that improvements in accuracy would probably lead to improvements in clarity.

The views expressed by these focus groups were useful in confirming the preliminary hypotheses of the research team, and it was felt that the aims of instigating the focus groups, identifying necessary skills and problem areas and involving interested parties within the college, had been achieved. The value of such meetings cannot be overemphasized, particularly since it is obviously necessary to involve those who may be called upon to work with the findings of the research and to implement policies possibly derived from it.

4.1.2 Observation Checklist

The first draft of the teacher language function category system* was used as an instrument for the observation of two English Lessons-for-Analysis at Sir Robert Black College of Education, one a Form 1 grammar class, the other a Form 2 dictation. The use of this category system as an observation checklist was to confirm or refute initial thoughts on the kinds of functions in evidence.

Since the purpose of these lessons was to allow peer observation among student teachers, they were planned and rehearsed by students with help from lecturers when necessary. The pupils in both cases were brought in from local secondary schools and they had met the student teachers briefly in their own schools beforehand.

Despite the fact that the lessons were not taught under typical classroom conditions, it was felt that observing them would at least provide some idea of what might be expected of student teachers from the Colleges of Education. The coding took the form of putting a mark when a particular function was identified and was done in real time. The lessons were later transcribed to provide examples for each of the categories.

The use of this list in the two Lessons-for-Analysis revealed that:

(1) Definitions for each of the categories needed to be more explicit, so that possible confusion between items, for example 'organising activities' and 'directing actions' could be avoided.
(2) A separate category for questioning, which was used very frequently in the lessons, was needed.
(3) A more careful handling of categories and sub-categories was required to avoid overlap or confusion in meaning.

In the light of insights gained from the Lessons-for-Analysis, the first draft of the category system* was amended to take account of emerging findings, to accommodate new ideas and vocabulary from the research and literature, and to make the phrasing of each function more consistent. An annotated version* which included sources, details and definitions was also drawn up at this stage. The new category system differs from the first draft in the following ways:

(1) The adoption of the term Eliciting and the detailed breakdown of questions from Tsui (1985)
(2) The elision of periods of lessons (e.g. set up) in favour of linguistically-determined categories
(3) The breakdown of the Instructing category into five subsections
(4) The breakdown of Lecturing into four subsections
(5) The addition of a major *enactive* category. This displays a new orientation in the way the researchers looked at classrooms, more in line with Sinclair and Coulthard's 'ACTS' and 'MOVES', because the teacher is often REACTIVE as well as ACTIVE
(6) The addition of a major category from Willis (1981), 'Outer-layer language'. This shows a widening of focus to include personal interaction and teachers' non-teaching duties
(7) The addition of 'Nominating and Regulating Pupils' Participation' from Malcolm (1986)

(8) The elision of Yes-No questions, on the grounds that this was a formal distinction in contrast to other functional ones

Work is still being done on the annotated category system to include examples from Lessons-for-Analysis and videotaped lessons of student teachers on Practical Teaching in schools.

4.2 Questionnaire

4.2.1 First Draft

In order to gauge the views of interested parties on the English required by the target group, a questionnaire was designed, based on the descriptive category system previously discussed.

An initial step towards transforming the category system into the questionnaire was to simplify the items so that they became self-explanatory to non-language specialists. The annotated category system's hierarchical division into categories and subcategories was removed in case it biased any responses. In addition, the number of categories was reduced by combining several functions from the final list into one. Several items were rewritten to make them all of a similar level of generality.

Finally, the list of functions was divided into three sections corresponding to the domains in which student teachers might be expected to use English, namely the staffroom, the classroom, and the College of Education. These domains were headed:

A. English for Professional Purposes
B. English for Classroom Purposes
C. English for Academic Purposes

To decide whether an identified skill would be required, respondents were asked to choose between:

— Yes (required)
— No (not required) and
— ? (not sure)

They were encouraged to asterisk any functions they considered to be particularly important.

4.2.2 Piloting

4.2.2.1 ILE Conference Extra

The questionnaire was piloted at a workshop session at the 1990 ILE conference, with a group of teachers, College of Education lecturers, publishers, inspectors and professionals in tertiary education (n=31). The questionnaire was distributed after an initial presentation detailing the rationale for the project. After participants had filled in the questionnaire they were asked to make comments to the floor regarding its design and content, and these views, plus written comments on the questionnaires themselves, prompted further amendments to it (see section 4.2.4).

4.2.2.2 SRBCE Staff Seminar

The initial questionnaire was also piloted at a Sir Robert Black College of Education staff seminar. The research team was invited to present details of the project and to distribute the questionnaire to members of staff (n=97)[6].

The participants were divided into four subject-based groups because it was felt that this grouping might reveal some subject specific patterns and that participants would feel more confident about expressing their opinions if they were with their departmental colleagues. Respondents were invited to fill in the questionnaire and to offer comments on it according to their subject specialism at the college or in the secondary school curriculum.

4.2.2.3 SRBCE Students

The pilot questionnaire was also distributed to second year and final year English elective students on the three-year full-time initial teacher education course at SRBCE (n=50).

4.2.3 Findings

4.2.3.1 Priority Rankings of Skills

Data from the pilot questionnaires distributed to the ILE workshop participants, the SRBCE lecturers and English elective students (n=178) were analysed in order to obtain an overall frequency count/rank order which would be used to decide on items to be deleted from the questionnaire.

The percentages of the four categories (*Y, Y, N, ?) were worked out for each item. Based on the frequency count, items were ranked to show their relative importance[7].

It was found that items in Section A (English for Academic Purposes) received widespread support, with four out of seven appearing in the top ten. They are:

Position	*Item Number*	*Item content*
2	6	—access and use reference materials and other learning resources
3	1	—produce speech with a pronunciation which is intelligible, especially for the vocabulary of one's specialized area of study
3	4	—read, understand and react to instructional materials used on College courses
10	7	—write accurately and coherently in order to discuss the issues and complete the tasks arising from College courses

Popular choices in Section B (English for Classroom Purposes) reflected methodological preconceptions about the nature of teaching as well as current practice, taking up thirteen positions in the top twenty list. The seven items in the top ten are:

1	20	—ask questions (including, what, why and how questions) which require students to express their understanding of subject content
5	10	—adapt a text for classroom use by simplifying or summarizing it to suit students' level
5	16	—present subject content, including facts, examples and reasons
5	22	—use repair strategies required during communication breakdown, eg. simplify a question, break a question down into easier sub-questions, or repeat a question with variations that are not simplifications
9	34	—give oral instructions about how to do 22 exercises, activities or play games
10	42	—give written comments on students' work
10	43	—write questions and rubrics for worksheets, exercises and tests

Section C (English for Professional Purposes) was least popular, and only one item from this section, write assessments of students (Item 44) achieved more than 75% support.

All but two questionnaire items received over 50% support, so it was considered necessary to use the comments as well as the percentage of support in order to decide on a cut-off point at which items would be accepted for inclusion in the final questionnaire.

4.2.3.2 Comments

Both verbal and written comments made by the respondents were recorded and regarded as valuable feedback on the research instrument. In general, respondents considered the importance of Section B to be dependent entirely on individual school circumstances. Speaking was agreed to be the single most important skill to be mastered by teachers.

There were some useful suggestions regarding research design : it was felt that classroom observation would be a fruitful exercise, particularly if the criteria of teacher effectiveness were to be established beforehand by experts; some believed that the research should look at current college entrance tests in order to see whether they screen for proficiency in EAP; a textbook analysis was suggested, as was asking students what they expected of their teachers. It was also felt that the design of the questionnaire could be improved.

4.2.4 Final Version

Given the above findings, it was decided to revise the questionnaire. The following decisions were made:

(1) All of the items which received less than 75% support in the piloting were dropped from the questionnaire. This cut-off point was chosen because these items had been consistently rejected in comments made by the respondents, and/or were suspect on pedagogical grounds (eg. punishing)
(2) Some relatively unpopular items were retained, however, if they were considered more relevant to one subject than others (eg. 'tell a story' seemed to be more relevant to language and social science subjects)
(3) A search of relevant textbooks was undertaken in order to establish the language functions required in them: this was particularly useful in tightening up functions from science subjects (eg. 'present theories and hypotheses')
(4) Work was done on the EAP section at this stage to find a balance between a long list of micro study skills and a short list of task types

The new questionnaire* contained fifty items in three sections. Although the names of the divisions were retained, the order was changed to allow Section C, English for Academic Purposes, to be given only to those educationalists and student teachers with experience of the nature of tasks required in Colleges of Education.

Also, the rubrics for each section were amended to be more specific and to make clear the distinction between preparation for teaching and teaching itself. For the sake of simplicity, a new scale for rating the items was used:

1. not normally required
2. useful but not important
3. important
4. very important

4.2.5 Distribution

This final version of the questionnaire has been distributed to the following groups:

(1) Primary school teachers of English in 42 schools, 4 per school, including Principals (random sample, n=168)
(2) Primary school teachers of English on the ILE refresher course (code EP 911) (n=44)
(3) Secondary school teachers who have graduated from the Colleges of Education and Principals in 38 schools, 13 to each school (random sample, n=494)
(4) ILE lecturers whose specialism is English (n=23)
(5) ED inspectors (non-Chinese subjects) (n=46)
(6) All College of Education lecturers (excluding those in Chinese, Chinese History, Educational Technology, Kindergarten and Special Education Departments) (n=278)
(7) College of Education 3Y3 and 2Y2 students enroled on the English course (90-91), excluding those not taking English as an elective

subject at HKTTC and those taking Chinese and/or Chinese History as elective subjects on the English course in the other three Colleges of Education[7]

(8) All College of Education 3Y1, 3Y2 and 2Y1 English elective students

At the time of writing, approximately 65% of the questionnaires distributed to Groups 1 to 5 have been returned. Questionnaires given to the other groups are expected to be returned by mid June 1991.

4.3 Videotaping of Lessons

It was considered necessary to go into classes taught by College of Education student teachers on their Practical Teaching in schools so that various language skills could be identified and video recordings could be taken for future use in determining standards.

Thirty-eight student teachers drawn from three Colleges of Education were videoed in seventeen secondary schools and eight primary schools. The choice of students and lessons to be observed and recorded could not be made randomly because only those students who would be teaching in English could be chosen. Despite a limited pool of student teachers, a broad range of lessons was observed. The breakdown is as follows:

	No. of lessons
English	13
Mathematics and Science	8
Social Science	11
Cultural Subjects	6
Total	38

5. CONCLUSION

5.1 Achievements to Date

The Project is making satisfactory progress and has encountered no major problems thus far. The following Products named in the Research Process Flowchart (Appendix 1) have been developed:

(1) Product 1 – Teacher Talk Category List
(2) Product 2 – Questionnaire (Pilot)
(3) Product 3 – Questionnaire (Final): research instrument

The following Activities have been completed:

(1) Activity 3 – Classroom observation
(2) Activity 4 – Rephrasing, selecting, rationalisation of the Teacher Talk Category System
(3) Activity 5 – Data collection (Pilot questionnaire)
(4) Activity 6 – Data analysis (Pilot questionnaire)
(5) Activity 12 – Videoing

In addition to consultation and literature search, which are expected to continue throughout the Project, the following Activities are currently in progress:

(1) Activity 7 – Data collection (Final questionnaire)
(2) Activity 8 – Data analysis (Final questionnaire)
(3) Activity 12 – Selection and analysis of video clips

At the end of this process it is hoped that a tentative list of prioritised language skills required by student teachers of different subjects will have been generated.

5.2 Future Directions

It is anticipated that the development phase of the research will focus on four areas: validating the draft list of language needs; adapting this list into a manageable evaluation instrument with which to establish minimum proficiency standards; designing tests, both entry-point and exit-point (target-related); and developing syllabi and course materials.

The following Activities therefore remain to be undertaken:
(1) Activity 9 – Validating profiles of language needs
(2) Activity 10 – Rationalising, further analysing comments, editing, rephrasing
(3) Activity 11 – Designing evaluation instrument
(4) Activity 13 – Deciding on criteria of proficiency
(5) Activity 14 – Constructing tests
(6) Activity 15 – Piloting tests
(7) Activity 16 – Designing courses

The Products which have yet to be developed are:
(1) Product 4 – List of teacher language needs for different subjects and levels
(2) Product 5 – Prioritised teacher language needs
(3) Product 6 – Prioritised list of teacher language needs – profiles for different subjects
(4) Product 7 – Evaluation instrument
(5) Product 8 – Representative video clips
(6) Product 9 – Statement of standards
(7) Product 10 – Target-related tests at exit-point
(8) Product 11 – Language Skills Course – Syllabus and Materials

There is obviously a great deal of work still to be done if we are to achieve all of the objectives of this research project, especially since it is breaking new ground in many respects. It is hoped that the results of the Project will help to enhance the English standard of student teachers and the quality of interaction in classrooms, and that it will open up opportunities for further research.

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Notes

1. Ullmann and Geva (1984) also give a list of uses to which classroom observation has been put, including research into teacher effectiveness, and the effect of certain variables on student achievement (task orientation, interaction patterns, pacing and so on).
2. The examples and explanations in brackets do not appear in this form in COLT; they have been adapted and extracted from the articles by Frohlich et al (1985) and Ullmann and Geva (1984).
3. We are aware of two studies into the overall language competence of trainee teachers but both are partial and of too limited a focus to be very useful to us.

   A 1984 study by Mukattash tested student teachers on a pre-service English course in Jordan using a grammatical error analysis test (verbs were the particular focus).

   He found that the 'standard of English' judged by this criterion was extremely poor.

   In 1986, Sim designed a series of tests to examine Singapore teacher trainees' 'communicative competence'. As far as we are aware, the research project ended with the construction of the tests and they were not applied to the trainees.
4. Richard R. Day and M. Gay Conklin studied the content of US MAs in TESOL: they found that these programmes emphasized precisely this aspect, which they term 'Pedagogic Content Knowledge'.
5. A complete version of this table, with rankings for all of the skills in Section E, can be found in Mosbergen et al 1982, page 16.
6. 137 members of staff attended the seminars. Not all members returned questionnaires, and the responses of lecturers in the departments of

Chinese and Chinese History were discounted. This figure therefore refers to the questionnaires actually analysed.

7. The four Colleges of Education under the Hong Kong Education Department are:

   Grantham College of Education (GCE)
   Hong Kong Technical Teachers' College (HKTTC)
   Northcote College of Education (NCE)
   Sir Robert Black College of Education (SRBCE)

   The three-year course at GCE is taught in Chinese and subjects offered at HKTTC (except those by the Languages Department) are very different from the other three Colleges, and so questionnaires were not distributed to student teachers on these courses.

   3Y3, 3Y2 and 3Y1 = final year, second year and first year students on the three year full-time course respectively

   2Y2 and 2Y1 = final year and first year students on the two year full-time course respectively

   Each student has to take 2 subjects as his/her elective study. Chinese and Chinese History are also offered as elective subjects on the English courses although Chinese is the medium of instruction for these two subjects.

*** You are most welcome to contact the Research Project Team for more detailed/updated information.***

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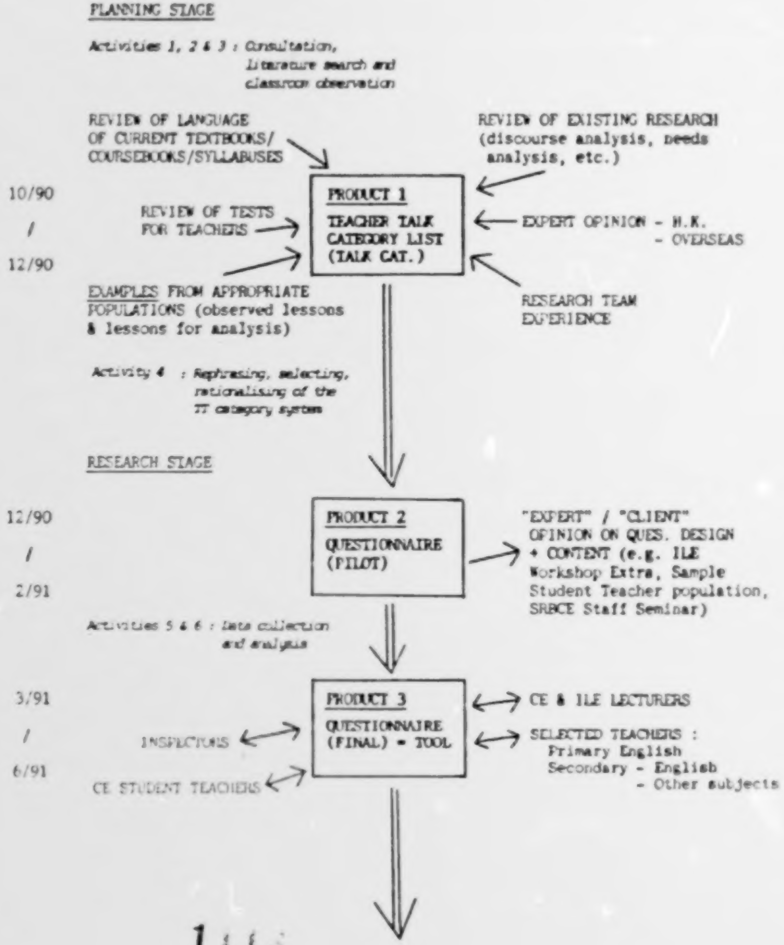
1113

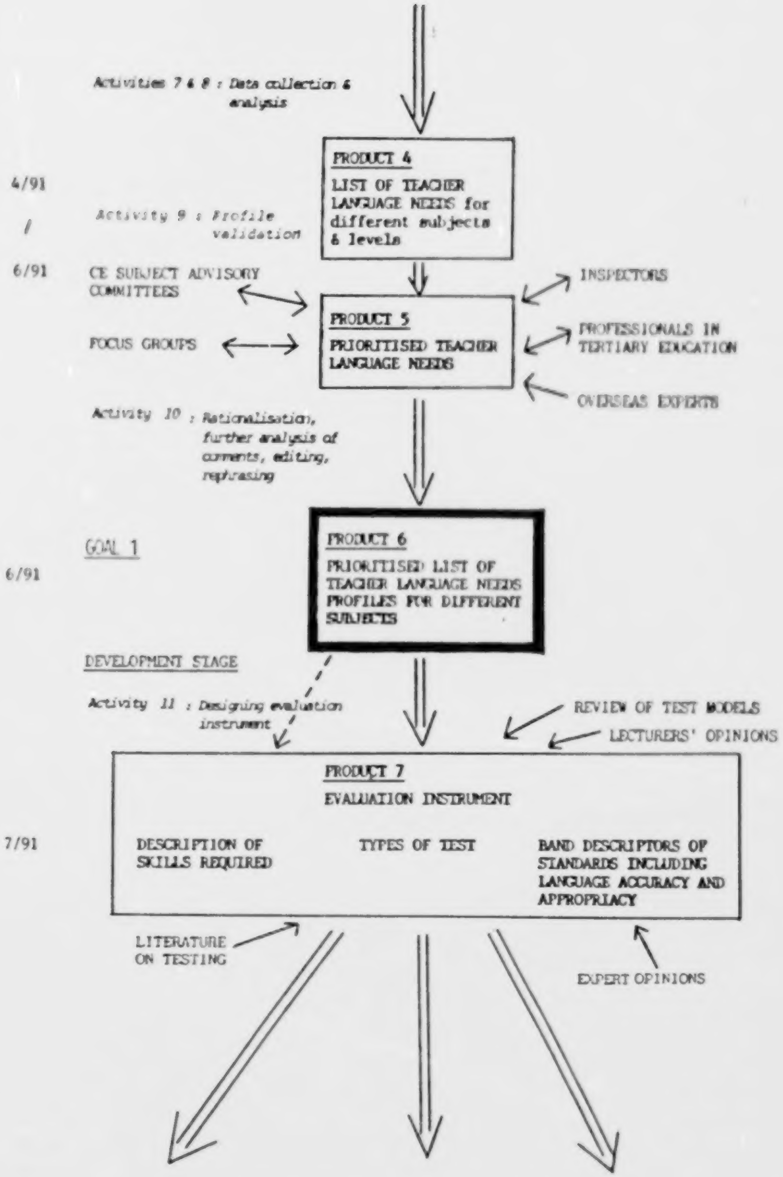
APPENDIX 1

HONGKONGBANK LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT FUND — RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT PROJECT 5

MINIMUM ENGLISH LANGUAGE REQUIREMENTS AND ENGLISH COURSES FOR COLLEGES OF EDUCATION STUDENT TEACHERS

Flow Chart Showing Research Process (with Provisional Timing)


PLANNING STAGE
Activities 1, 2 & 3 : Consultation, Literature search and classroom observation
REVIEW OF LANGUAGE OF CURRENT TEXTBOOKS/ COURSEBOOKS/SYLLABUSES
REVIEW OF EXISTING RESEARCH (discourse analysis, needs analysis, etc.)
10/90 / 12/90
REVIEW OF TESTS FOR TEACHERS
PRODUCT 1
TEACHER TALK CATEGORY LIST (TALK CAT.)
EXPERT OPINION - H.K. - OVERSEAS
EXAMPLES FROM APPROPRIATE POPULATIONS (observed lessons & lessons for analysis)
RESEARCH TEAM EXPERIENCE
Activity 4 : Rephrasing, selecting, rationalising of the TT category system
RESEARCH STAGE
12/90 / 2/91
PRODUCT 2
QUESTIONNAIRE (PILOT)
"EXPERT" / "CLIENT" OPINION ON QUES. DESIGN + CONTENT (e.g. ILE Workshop Extra, Sample Student Teacher population, SRBCE Staff Seminar)
Activities 5 & 6 : Data collection and analysis
3/91 / 6/91
PRODUCT 3
QUESTIONNAIRE (FINAL) = TOOL
CE & ILE LECTURERS
INSPECTORS
SELECTED TEACHERS : Primary English Secondary - English - Other subjects
CE STUDENT TEACHERS


Activities 7 & 8 : Data collection & analysis
PRODUCT 4
LIST OF TEACHER LANGUAGE NEEDS for different subjects & levels
4/91
/
6/91
Activity 9 : Profile validation
CE SUBJECT ADVISORY COMMITTEES
FOCUS GROUPS
PRODUCT 5
PRIORITISED TEACHER LANGUAGE NEEDS
INSPECTORS
PROFESSIONALS IN TERTIARY EDUCATION
OVERSEAS EXPERTS
Activity 10 : Rationalisation, further analysis of comments, editing, rephrasing
GOAL 1
6/91
PRODUCT 6
PRIORITISED LIST OF TEACHER LANGUAGE NEEDS PROFILES FOR DIFFERENT SUBJECTS
DEVELOPMENT STAGE
Activity 11 : Designing evaluation instrument
REVIEW OF TEST MODELS
LECTURERS' OPINIONS
PRODUCT 7
EVALUATION INSTRUMENT
7/91
DESCRIPTION OF SKILLS REQUIRED
TYPES OF TEST
BAND DESCRIPTORS OF STANDARDS INCLUDING LANGUAGE ACCURACY AND APPROPRIACY
LITERATURE ON TESTING
EXPERT OPINIONS

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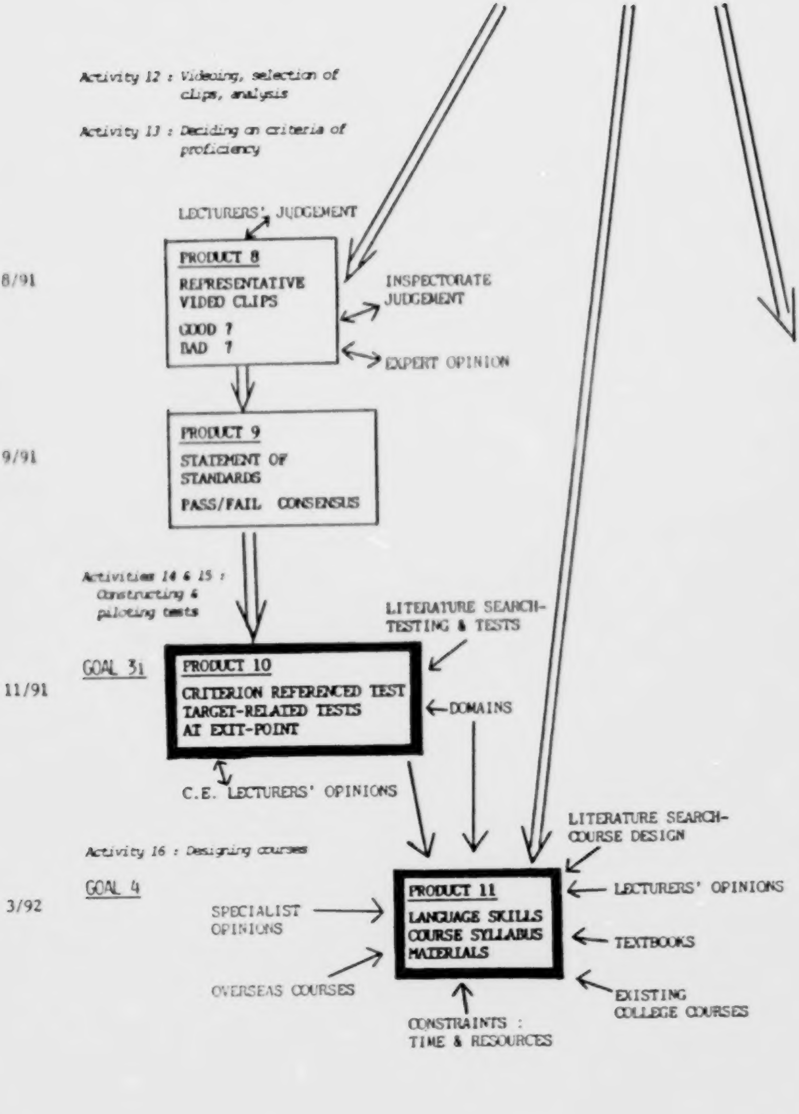
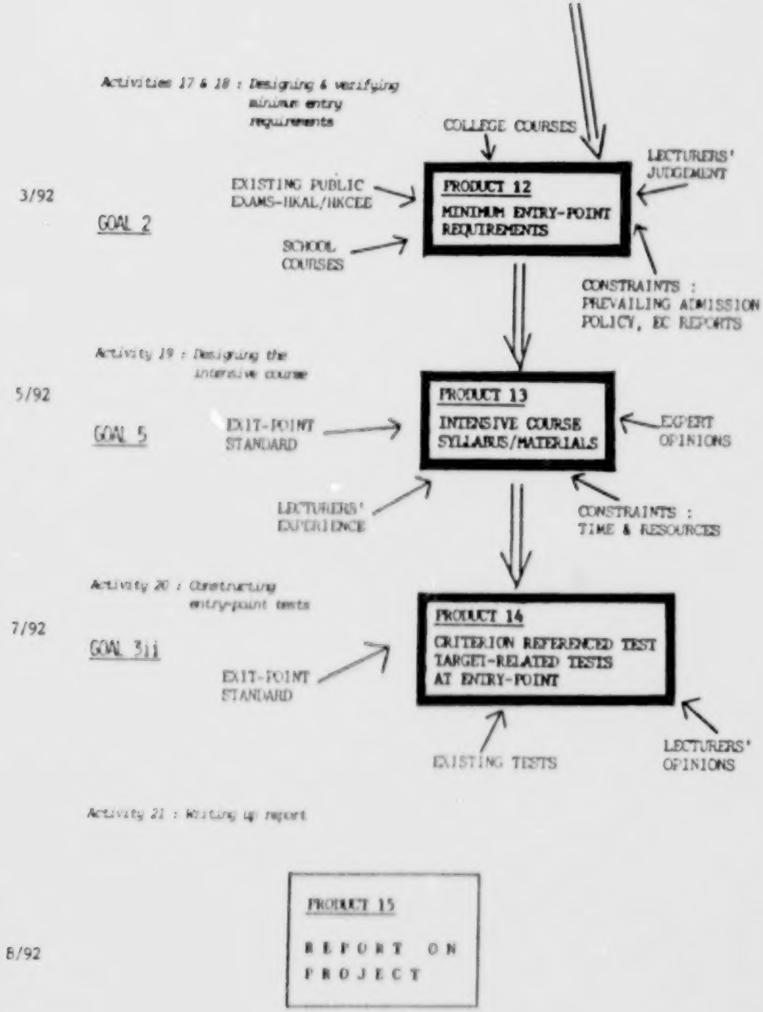

Activity 12 : Videoing, selection of clips, analysis
Activity 13 : Deciding on criteria of proficiency
LECTURERS' JUDGEMENT
8/91
PRODUCT 8
REPRESENTATIVE VIDEO CLIPS
GOOD ?
BAD ?
INSPECTORATE JUDGEMENT
EXPERT OPINION
9/91
PRODUCT 9
STATEMENT OF STANDARDS
PASS/FAIL CONSENSUS
Activities 14 & 15 : Constructing & piloting tests
LITERATURE SEARCH-TESTING & TESTS
GOAL 3i
11/91
PRODUCT 10
CRITERION REFERENCED TEST
TARGET-RELATED TESTS AT EXIT-POINT
DOMAINS
C.E. LECTURERS' OPINIONS
LITERATURE SEARCH-COURSE DESIGN
Activity 16 : Designing courses
GOAL 4
3/92
SPECIALIST OPINIONS
PRODUCT 11
LANGUAGE SKILLS COURSE SYLLABUS MATERIALS
LECTURERS' OPINIONS
TEXTBOOKS
OVERSEAS COURSES
EXISTING COLLEGE COURSES
CONSTRAINTS : TIME & RESOURCES


Activities 17 & 18 : Designing & verifying minimum entry requirements
3/92
GOAL 2
COLLEGE COURSES
EXISTING PUBLIC EXAMS-HKAL/HKCEE
SCHOOL COURSES
PRODUCT 12
MINIMUM ENTRY-POINT REQUIREMENTS
LECTURERS' JUDGEMENT
CONSTRAINTS : PREVAILING ADMISSION POLICY, EC REPORTS
Activity 19 : Designing the intensive course
5/92
GOAL 5
EXIT-POINT STANDARD
PRODUCT 13
INTENSIVE COURSE SYLLABUS/MATERIALS
EXPERT OPINIONS
LECTURERS' EXPERIENCE
CONSTRAINTS : TIME & RESOURCES
Activity 20 : Constructing entry-point tests
7/92
GOAL 3ii
EXIT-POINT STANDARD
PRODUCT 14
CRITERION REFERENCED TEST
TARGET-RELATED TESTS AT ENTRY-POINT
EXISTING TESTS
LECTURERS' OPINIONS
Activity 21 : Writing up report
8/92
PRODUCT 15
REPORT ON PROJECT

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THE HONG KONG EXTENSIVE READING SCHEME IN ENGLISH (HKERS)—AN EXTENSIVE READING PROGRAMME FOR JUNIOR SECONDARY STUDENTS

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The Hong Kong Extensive Reading Scheme in English (HKERS), a school project for junior secondary students initiated and developed by the Institute of Language in Education (ILE), will be implemented on a phased basis in approximately 200 schools over 7 years from September 1991. In this report we shall describe the Scheme and the work in progress.

Background

The HKERS is the product of an extensive reading scheme pilot project implemented at the junior secondary level in nine public-sector schools from September 1986 to August 1988 as one of the measures to improve the curriculum and the standard of English in Hong Kong schools. This pilot project was evaluated by the Education Department's Educational Research Establishment and by the ILE, an the findings were in general positive and encouraging. The greater exposure to English through extensive reading had resulted in both language improvement and desirable attitudinal changes in students towards the English language in general and reading in particular. The Report of the Working Group set up to Review Language Improvement Measures (1989) therefore recommended that an improved version of the Scheme be extended to all interested secondary schools. Work on the HKERS began immediately after the Government gave approval to the Scheme in 1990.

Aims of HKERS

The HKERS works on the principle that exposure to English through reading can help students to improve their English. As Nuttall (1982:168) points out, the best way to improve one's knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its speakers. The next best way is to "read extensively in it". Criper (1986:10–11) also suggests that the language input a student receivers in the English classroom is limited and insufficient to provide the learner with "an adequate language environment", but extensive reading will "transform the quantity of input" dramatically.

A well designed reading programme is the best way to bring about this improvement. Elley (1987), in describing the success of the Fijian Book

Flood programme for upper primary school students in Fiji, identifies five main factors that contribute to the effectiveness of such an enriched reading programme. Firstly, because to make sense of an interesting story is "inherently motivating", students feel the urgency to use the second language to understand the story. This also means that they focus on meaning rather than on form, and evidence from many sources has indicated that "language learning is most productive" when "the language is used for a real purpose" and when students "search for strategies to infer meaning, and make use of semantic cues, picture cues, and letter cues". Moveover, book floods not only lead to increased exposure to the language, but also give students the chance to be exposed to "natural language" that is not tightly controlled as in most other lessons. It is the best opportunity for students to learn "unfamiliar words" and "idioms" naturally. Lastly, the books provide good models of English and will be useful in situations where some teachers' own mastery over English is not always secure. (Elley 1987: 223-224)

The HKERS is also a good means of helping students develop "individualized learning". In a HKERS lesson, a class of 40 students will each be reading a different book and working on his/her own.

Main features of HKERS

The main features of the HKERS are described below:

Allocation of class time to the Scheme

A special feature of the HKERS is that it is incorporated into the English language curriculum and schools are required to devote class periods to the Scheme. A class scheme has certain advantages over a library scheme. In a library scheme there is less monitoring and a lot depends on the students. Left on their own some students will choose books that are too difficult and others will choose books that are too easy. Some will read a lot and do very well, whereas others will read very little. In a class scheme like the HKERS, on the other hand, the teachers can assess the students to place them on the correct reading levels, advise on books, monitor progress and give help, encouragement and feedback. In other words, without a reading programme in the curriculum, many students' reading tends to be spasmodic, haphazard and unrewarding, whereas a good reading programme implemented under the guidance of a teacher will help students to gradually progress towards individualized reading and learning.

Provision of resource packages

Participating schools are provided with components of a resource package per secondary one class participating in the Scheme in the first year of implementation, and these resource packages will be used up to S3.

There are two components in a complete resource package – the Extensive Reading Programme and the Reading Kit.

(*a*) *The Extensive Reading Programme*

The Extensive Reading Programme was developed by the University of Edinburgh and has been adapted by the ILE for Hong Kong students. It consists of 400 books (both fiction and non-fiction) of a variety of genre, period and setting. They are graded into 8 different reading levels, with 2 boxes of 25 titles at each level. Each book is also provided with an introduction to the contents, a workcard with questions to check students' understanding of what they have read, and an answer card.

The programme also includes a test pack, with a placement test to help teachers assess the individual students' reading ability so that they can enter the reading programme at an approriate level, and progress tests to be taken at the end of the school year in S1, 2 & 3 to assess improvement in English. In addition, reading charts and records to help teachers and students monitor progress are also provided.

(*b*) *The Reading Kit*

The Reading Kit is published by Longman Group (Far East) Ltd. It consists of 120 reading cards at 2 different levels and answer cards, and is especially designed to prepare the weaker students for entry to the Extensive Reading Programme.

Specialist support by the ILE

The ILE runs induction courses for the ERS teachers and publishes Teacher's Manuals, teaching aids and guidelines to help schools implement the Scheme. It is also responsible for monitoring and evaluating the HKERS with a view to improving the Scheme.

Work in Progress

HKERS schools

In October 1990, a circular and an information pamphlet on the HKERS were sent to all public-sector secondary schools inviting them to participate in Phase I (September 1991) of the Scheme. The Scheme has aroused a lot of interest and was reported both in newspapers and on television. The response from schools was also very enthusiastic, and over 100 schools applied to join the Scheme.

Two briefing sessions for interested schools were held in November 1990 to introduce the Scheme and to explain to the schools the procedures for administering a suitability test to a sample of S1 students so as to assess the students' readiness to start the Reading Programme.

The results of the tests were received in December 1990 and in January 1991, 19 schools were invited to participate in Phase I of the Scheme. Different types of schools were selected, and a range of student abilities was also represented.

The selected schools were invited to take part in a series of seminars and workshops on the implementation of the Scheme. A Seminar for Heads of schools and English Panel Chairpersons was held in March 1991, and a seminar for the ERS Co-ordinators was held in May 1991. More seminars and workshops will be held in June and July before the summer break.

In addition, Teacher's Manuals have been given to the teachers to provide them with detailed information on the operation of the Scheme. A Pamphlet in English and Chinese to introduce the value of extensive reading to parents will also be issued soon.

Work has also begun on inviting application for Phase II (September 1992) of the Scheme. A circular was sent to the schools in May 1991 and a briefing session for interested schools will be held in July.

Pilot schools

We visited the schools involved in the Pilot Project and many expressed interest in continuing with the Scheme. Arrangements were made to procure replacement copies for them as many of their books and materials were worn out after being used for 5 years. We shall maintain contact with the Pilot schools and give them support and help when necessary. Moreover, as their first batch of ERS students are in S5 now it will be interesting to see whether the ERS has any effect on their performance in the HKCEE.

Materials

The resource packages were despatched to the HKERS Schools in April 1991. The components for each school were chosen according to the reading profile of the school so as to suit the students' abilities. We have co-operated closely with the University of Edinburgh in the development of reading and teaching aids for the package and evaluation instruments for the Scheme. A lot of effort has also been put into exploring ways of reducing administrative costs like freight charges, so that more of the funding can be used for the purchase of books and materials. The process of procurement of materials for Phase II of the Scheme has also begun.

HKERS Awards

As HKERS Award Scheme has been set up as one of the measure to increase the students' interest in the Scheme. The awards, sponsored by the Zonta Club of Hong Kong East, will be presented to the Best Readers of every HKERS school and to the winners of an inter-school competition on book reports in July 1992, one year after the launching of the Scheme. We believe that for the Scheme to succeed, students must be encouraged to read, and the encouragement must be given constantly and can take many forms. The classroom teachers' role in this is of paramount importance, but this also needs to be reinforced by support at school and societal levels.

Future Development

It is hoped that with 20–30 schools joining the HKERS every year, many students at junior secondary level in the territory will benefit from this "book flood" (Elley 1987) and cultivate a lifelong interest in reading as well as gain improvement in their English. In the coming year when the Scheme is implemented in schools, it will be important to collect data and information to measure the effectiveness of the Scheme and to improve its materials and operation.

We shall report on this in future volumes of ILEJ.

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THE SWAPSHOP: PROGRESS OF WORK

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English Division
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This is the third year the Swapshop is in operation.

Around September last year, when we reviewed the development of the Swapshop during its second year, we felt that the amount of work achieved during the year was not very satisfactory, and that the reason for this was the lack of structure of the meetings and of the responsibilities of the members. In view of that, we re-organized the Swapshop meetings so that the participants coming to the meetings were divided into teams. Each team chose to work on a particular area of curriculum development or action research, under the guidance of a tutor. As the participants had expressed an interest in keeping in touch with ELT developments, we introduced a short input/workshop session at each meeting, except for the last two. These session were conducted by ILE staff. The topics covered were:

- Making better use of course-books
- Targets and target-related assessment based on criterion referencing principles
- Participant produced projects
- Language for enjoyment
- Non-standard English
- The New ILE Self-access Language Centre and Teachers Resource Centre

Participation was again voluntary and the Swapshop or its members did not take part in the School Based Curriculum Development Scheme run by the Education Department.

Inspite of the encouraging response of over twenty participants at the first meeting, and the enthusiasm shown by those who turned up at subsequent meetings, the work achieved by the Swapshop in the third year was disappointing.

The five teams of participants had each identified an interesting and worthwhile area of curriculum development to work on during the year. Some teams, though not all, managed to come back to quite a number of the meetings, or arranged to meet outside the ILE, to discuss their work. However, only one team has submitted their work (two action research reports) so far, and two other teams reported that they were in the process of finishing their materials.

The short input/workshop sessions were well received by those attending them. However, except for the first one, the meetings have been able to attract only a small number of participants.

We have to conclude however that this mode of support service for past ILE participants has not been very productive.

If we look back at the swapshop over the past three years, we find that in the first year the result was encouraging. We succeeded in pooling the work of 27 dedicated teachers and producing a sizable collection of materials for the Education Department's School Based Curriculum Development Scheme.

In the second year the teachers in the Swap-shop decided not to join the Scheme because they did not want to be constrained by the Education Department's fixed time-schedules. However, as they were not subject to the discipline of the Scheme, they had difficulty in disciplining themselves to carry out plans and meet dead-lines.

This year, again quite a number of teachers came to the meetings initially and these teachers appreciated what was offered to them, finding it very useful. However, in spite of their concern about teaching, and about improving their teaching, they had difficulty in sustaining their effort during their spare time to work on curriculum renewal.

Consequently, we believe that unless the workload of English teachers is substantially reduced, it is not realistic to expect them to squeeze time out of their tight schedule of work to take part in out-of-school cooperative forms of curriculum renewal. This is rather sad because it indicates that many English teachers are unable to enjoy the kind of job satisfaction that comes from systematically improving their own curriculum. Both teachers and students will suffer in the long term.

The teachers who came to our swapshop meetings are professionals who made a lot of effort to improve their teaching. Whether or not they were able to produce many finished products, their efforts are to be commended.

Instead of maintaining the Swapshop in its current form, which requires teachers to attend meetings and devote time regularly throughout the school year, we think it might be more effective if we ran *one-off workshops or seminars*. Teachers will then simply need to turn up at the workshop/seminar when they happen to be less busy, but will not have to commit themselves to longer term projects. Such functions might be organized in the *ILE Teacher Resource Centre*, where a lot of the materials produced by Refresher Course participants and Swapshop members are stored and can be used as reference or resource materials.

We will continue to issue the ILE Newsletter to past participants and keep them informed of these functions.

Another type of service we plan to offer is a support service to schools.

In the past, ILE lecturers have been requested by schools to give seminars to English teachers on various ELT topics. This has proved very effective. The seminar can be tailor-made for the needs of the school concerned, and the lecturer can discuss with the teachers to try and tackle the problems specific to the school.

Some past participants have told us that after attending the Refresher Course, they have been asked to conduct seminars for their colleagues on certain ELT areas. Some of these participants come back to get materials and help from us. If there were ready-made packages of materials and information on popular ELT topics which could be lent to schools, any past participant, or any English teacher, would then be able to organize seminars for the English panel in his/her school.

In the coming academic year, we hope to start organizing the above two types of support, namely, *going to schools to conduct seminars for English teachers at their request*, and *preparing packages of materials on popular ELT topics for loan to English teachers* so that they can conduct seminars for their schools.

Although the regular Swapshop meetings will be abandoned, it is still our wish that English teachers in Hong Kong will one day be able to pool their efforts and establish a resource bank of materials and teaching ideas and share one another's wisdom. The ILE Teacher Resource Centre will certainly aim to achieve this as one of its goals. But it may have to be built up by participants on courses rather than teachers in school.

We hope that, before long, English teachers will have their teaching load reduced and will be able to devote more time to curriculum renewal. It is also to be hoped that in the future some English teachers can be released from teaching for a whole year at a time to work on curriculum development work in the ILE or elsewhere.

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT SUMMARY: "KOWLOON PARK"

Course No.: EP 901
Group: 10
Participants involved in "Project: Kowloon Park"
KWAN Ping-kwan, Peter
LAM Yuet-ming, Wendy
LEE Man-sun, Donna
LI Yuk-yi, Julia
WONG Wai-ching, Karen
Participants who assisted in evaluation:
HUI Ming-chu, Salina
LAI Lai-mui
LAW Lai-ying, Teresa
LEUNG Woon-man, Stevie
SZETO Mei-ha, Carol

Tutor: Lindsay Howard

In this summary, I have given a report on the project undertaken by members of Group 10 on EP901. The project was carried out with Primary 4 pupils from TWGHs Lo Yu Chik Primary PM School. The summary outlines the general aims and nature of project work, before giving an account of the preparation, planning, implementation and evaluation of "Project: Kowloon Park".

1. Why did we embark on the "Project: Kowloon Park"?

After much discussion on our Experimental Teaching[1], it was understood that no project teaching had been tried out by ILE teachers at Lo Yu Chik Primary School. We all came to the conclusion that theme-based project work would provide an ideal vehicle for a meaningful application of the four language skills in a real life setting. In doing projects, pupils have to listen to instruction, to speak and communicate with one another, to read pamphlets and brochures for specific information, and to write notes, draw diagrams and produce a final product.

Therefore, we felt as ET offered an ideal opportunity to try out new ideas, we selected Kowloon Park as our theme, the park being central to the Lo Yu Chik community.

2. How was the project organized?

(a) *School Support*

This project was successfully tried out with a class of Primary 4 pupils from Lo Yu Chik Primary School. The consent and co-operation of the

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[1] Experimental Teaching (ET) = a component on the ILE Refresher Course where participants try out new teaching approaches, skills and techniques in a classroom situation.

Headmaster and staff, especially the class teacher, were essential to the enterprises. The Headmaster kindly offered to contact parents informing them of the intended outing and that the ILE would bear any costs incurred. In the event of a rainy day, the outing would be postponed to the following Monday. The Headmaster and the class teacher warned us that the class may present discipline problems and initially this gave concern about conducting a project that involved taking the children to Kowloon Park on an outing. But the enthusiasm and co-operation of the Headmaster prompted us to carry on with our project.

(*b*) *Preparation of scheme of work and objectives*

The group looked at the role a park plays in any community and planned the four lessons to develop the role of the park and prepared the children for an activity-based outing in the park followed by a final lesson to evaluate the project.

The scheme of work had three stages: (1) The Pre-Outing Stage (2) The Outing Stage (3) The Evaluation Stage. (See Appendix 1) Initially, the Pre-Outing Stage consisted of lessons on four consecutive Fridays. In the event, the Pre-Outing Stage had to be modified to five lessons to take account of bad weather on the first day chosen for the outing.

The scheme of work was pupil-centred and task-based with games, competitions, songs, interviews and practical activities. All four language skills were developed through these tasks with a slight emphasis on listening and speaking.

The overall objective was to arouse pupils' awareness of the role a park plays in a community. The linguistic objectives included the following:
Pupils should be able to:—

- identify animals found in Kowloon Park.
- ask about and describe what people do in the park.
- identify different parts of flowers.
- ask about and describe simple procedures on how to grow a plant.
- identify some common signs in the park.
- give a simple account of things they did on the outing.
- give a personal opinion on whether they enjoyed the project or not.

(*c*) *Preparatory visit to outing spot*

The group made a preliminary visit to Kowloon Park and after a general survey of the layout of the park, five specific spots were identified for close observation by our pupils, viz: the bird lake, the aviary, the Landmark, the Indoor Games Hall and the swimming pool. Photos of the five spots were taken and the time needed for visiting each specific spot was calculated by actually walking the whole distance ourselves. It was decided that the pupils would be divided into five groups. Each under the guidance of a teacher and each with a different route to follow but each would have the same Project Booklet to complete.

3. How was the Project Implemented?

Stage 1: Pre-outing

As stated, the scheme of work eventually consisted of five lessons. Lesson one's objectives were achieved through visuals, mime and songs. In the second lesson pupils looked at the various sports that Kowloon Park offered the community. In lesson three pupils used real flowers to identify the various parts and then followed oral directions to grow their own plants from seeds. The pupils were instructed how to grow the plants and were requested to bring them back to the final lesson for inspection. Lesson four introduced the children to various park signs through board games and other fun activities. The fifth lesson asked the pupils to complete various tasks by following directions on a map of the park.

Stage 2: The Outing

Pupils were taken to Kowloon Park for an afternoon. We assembled at the school entrance and distributed the Project Booklets to the pupils. We divided the pupils into the five groups, each group under the guidance of a teacher. We assembled at a specific point in Kowloon Park whereupon the pupils familiarised themselves once again with the map of Kowloon Park. Each group was requested to stop at each location and complete the respective tasksheets. For example, Group 2 began at the Aviary and group 5 began at the Swimming Pool. (see Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 for the respective tasks in the project Booklet.)

Stage 3: Evaluation of the project

Back in the classroom, pupils discussed and reported on the outing. They were involved in four activities:

(*a*) Talking about the outing.
Pupils were given a set of photos of the outing and took turns to ask and answer questions about both the outing and the photos.

(*b*) An interview.
Using a tape recorder, teachers conducted interviews with the pupils about the outing.

(*c*) The Tallest Plant.
Pupils were requested to bring the plants to class which they had grown from the seeds given to them in the third lesson. The class compared the heights and development of each plant.

(*d*) The best Project Booklet Cover.
After the outing, in their spare time, the pupils had been asked to design and colour a cover for their booklets. These were now displayed and the pupils were asked to select the best.

Through observation of the pupils we noted the following achievements in terms of the linguistic objectives we had set. As stated earlier, the pupils in the Pre-Outing stage, identified animals, flower parts and common signs in

Kowloon Park. They experienced most difficulty recalling the vocabulary items which they had only seen in picture form e.g. flamingo. The core activity of the second lesson gave the pupils much needed practice in asking WH questions in a realistic setting, rarely presented in HK classrooms. In the third lesson, the pupils followed instructions to grow their own plants, but they had difficulty in giving the instructions to their peers. The fifth extra lesson which presented the pupils with a map and asked them to give and follow directions highlighted the pupils' weaker areas as that of giving directions correctly and coherently.

During the outing we observed that the pupils were able to follow their group leader's directions on the map very well, were able to recognise and talk about various birds and activities. They obeyed the park signs and used them to locate the sporting areas. The pupil's weakest area was in identifying the flower parts and we noted a need for asking for assistance, clarification and confirmation in English that the pupils had not been fully prepared for in the Pre-outing stage.

The Evaluation Stage of the project involved pupils in interviews which, when played back, demonstrated both an increased confidence in the pupils' use of English and an improvement in the quality of English used: namely they attempted to use phrases and sentences rather than one word answers. The pupils were quite amazed at their newly acquired abilities in spoken English when the tapes were played back!

4. What positive feedback did the group observe?

Pupils exhibited no discipline problems, in fact the reverse. They remained highly motivated throughout the project, and showed satisfaction from their communicative experience in English. The motivation was sparked by the idea of an opportunity to use the English, learnt in class in the preparatory stage, in a real life situation in Hong Kong.

Working in small groups in a project was also new and interesting to the pupils. They were more responsible for their own learning. They participated more actively and there was more involvement in project work than in regular class coursebook activity.

From questionnaires, sent to the twenty-one pupils involved a week later, it was found that all the pupils enjoyed and found the games and activities interesting and useful. They thought that they had learnt a lot from their project.

The project made us aware of the possibility of using the many authentic sources in our immediate environment for promoting interest in the learning of English. Pupils drew upon knowledge and skills from science and other subjects, even adding to them during the project period.

5. What constraints did the group experience?

One constraint was the lack of time which was highlighted by the lack of familiarity with project work on the part of both the teachers and the pupils.

1129

In practice, project work creates extra work for the teacher(s). In addition to a teacher's daily routine involving regular lesson planning, the preparation and marking of exercises and test papers, projects necessitate the design of materials, such as tasksheets, maps, questionnaires and charts, the location of pamphlets and brochures as well as the collation of all the information. Teachers may therefore, experience difficulty in fitting projects into a scheme of work that is already laden with tight schedules of lessons and tests. As the co-operation of at least one other staff member is advisable if an exursion is included in the project, then time is needed to inform and enlist the co-operation of colleagues.

6. What were the factors for our success?

While we believe that one teacher can handle a project without too much difficulty, it is advisable, at least initially, to work in a team with teachers at the same grade level. In our case we had a willing, enthusiastic team of colleagues who shared the workload with a will and it was this teamwork that ensured the success of our project.

Careful planning at the preparation stage was also one of the ingredients for our success because once the project was underway there was no time for major revisions.

Last but not least, the consent, enthusiasm and co-operation of the Headmaster and staff, especially the class teacher, were vital, indispensable ingredients of our project.

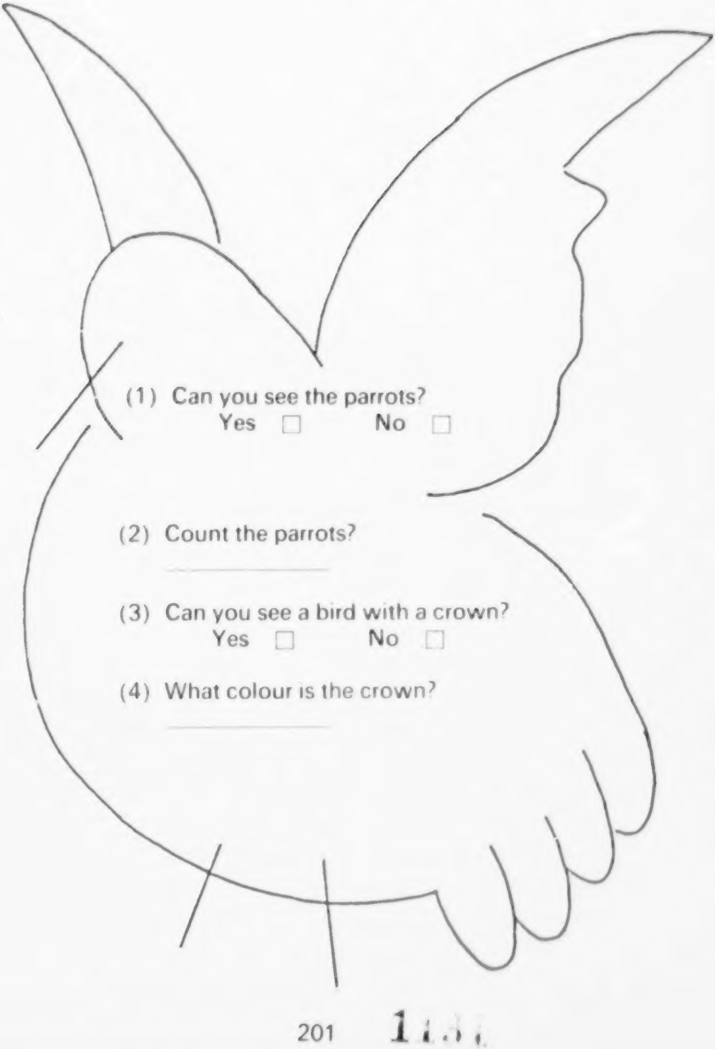
7. Conclusion

In conclusion our group considered the positive outcomes far outweighed the constraints. The time and effort put in by the group reaped such large gains in terms of pupils' attitude, confidence and language ability that it was considered worthwhile.

Topics like The Kowloon Park project can, with some modification, be adapted to suit the needs of children at different levels. There are many alternative tasks and activities that could be formulated to meet the needs of a language class at any Primary level. Similary, there are many alternative project topics to be found in any local community.

Figure 1

Tasksheet (2)
Aviary



(1) Can you see the parrots?
Yes ☐ No ☐

(2) Count the parrots?

____

(3) Can you see a bird with a crown?
Yes ☐ No ☐

(4) What colour is the crown?

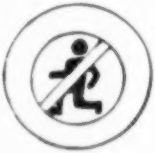
____

Figure 2

Tasksheet (5A)
Swimming Pool

(*a*) Put a "✓" for the sign you can see in the Swimming Complex.

(*b*) Put a "×" for the sign you can see in the Swimming Complex.



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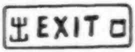

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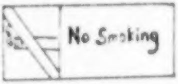

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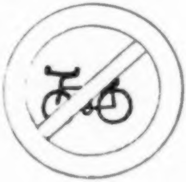

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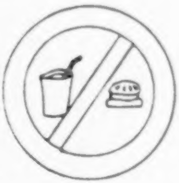

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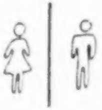

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PROJECT: KOWLOON PARK

Class: Primary 4B
School: Lo Yu Chick Primary School (PM)

STAGE 1: PRE-OUTING

Lesson No.: 1
Date : 30/3
Topic : Fauna
Function : Pupils should be able to:
identify common animals in the Park and describe them very simply.
Language Items : Structures:
1. What do ...... do ?
2. Where do they ......?
3. Have you seen ......?
Vocabulary: flamingoes, lake, cage, water
Resources : A toy duck, Cut-outs of animals, Wall Chart, Musical instruments
Focus on Skills : Listening, Speaking
Games, activities, tasks : Guessing game: Class is divided into pairs. A cue picture card is given to each pair. Pupil A mimes and pupil B guesses.
Miming game: A: What am I? (mime)
B: You're a duck/bird/flamingo.
Singing game: Teacher sings the song 'Having you seen the little ducks?' Groups of pupils with paper heads come out to sing and mime the ducks and birds.

Lesson No.: 2
Date : 6/4
Topic : Sports in Kowloon Park
Function : Ask and describe what people do in the park.
Language Items : What do they do in the park?
What's your favourite sport?
Where do you play ......?
When do you play ......?

On Sundays
On Saturdays
Resources : Cut-outs, Frieze, Worksheets
Focus on
Skills : Listening, Speaking
Games, activities,
tasks : Activity 1: (Pair work)
1. A boy and a girl come in front of the class to demonstrate the activity.
2. Boys come out and ask the girls questions.
Girls give answers according to their interests in sports.
Activity 2: Pupils fill in the questionnaire by asking their partners or members of the other groups. They write the information on worksheet 2.

Lesson No.: 3
Date : 27/4
Topic : Plants
Function : 1. Identify different parts of a flower, that is, petals, leaves and stem.
2. Ask and describe simple procedures of how to grow a plant.
Language
Items : 1. What do you do first?
2. What do you do, then?
3. What do you do next?
4. What do you do last?
First, put some cotton in the pot.
Then, put a seed on the cotton
Resources : A frieze, cut-outs, real flowers Worksheets 1, 2, 3, Pots, seeds, cotton, water, 3 green bean plants
Focus on
Skills : Listening, Speaking, Reading
Games, activities,
tasks : 1. Listen and find the word.
2. Picture re-arrangement.
3. Matching pictures with the correct sentences.
4. Ask questions about the procedures of how to grow a plant while demonstrating and answering the questions.

Lesson No.: 4
Date : 4/5
Topic : Signs and rules of the park
Function : Identify some common signs.

Language
Items : 1. What does this sign mean?
2. It means ......
3. Where can we see this sign?
Don't pick the flowers. Don't litter.
Don't walk on the grass. No smoking.
Don't feed the birds. Men's toilet.
Resources : Wall charts, cut-outs of signs, jigsaws, puzzles, fishing game, bingo games, tasksheets, teachers' tasksheets.
Focus on
Skills : Listening, Speaking, Reading
Games, activities,
tasks : 1. Jigsaw puzzles of signs.
2. Listen and finish the tasksheets about signs.
3a. A board game
b. Fishing game
c. Bingo game

Lesson No.: 5
Date : 11/5
Topic : Finding the way in the park
Function : 1. Identify 5 locations in Kowloon Park.
2. Follow directions.
Language
Items :
- Structures:
  a. Where's the ......? Go up here and
  b. Take the second left
  c. What does this sign mean?
- Vocabulary:
  New: route, pass, aviary, Landmark
  Recycling: park, bird, lake, sign, mean, Indoor Games Hall, swimming pool, left, right.

Resources : Frieze, worksheet, wall chart, board game fishing game, Bingo game cutouts of signs, Kowloon Park poster, Toy exhibition pamphlet.
Focus on
Skills : Listening, Speaking, Reading
Games, activities,
tasks : 1. Teacher recycles left and right with activities including "Simon Says"
2. Teacher presents map of Kowloon Park, pupils move according to oral directions.
3. Pupils direct each other using the map.
4. Pupils ask each other what can be seen at the various locations.

STAGE 2: OUTING

Date : 14/5

Outing to Kowloon Park. Pupils work in small groups to complete Project Booklets.

STAGE 3: EVALUATION

Date : 18/5

Topic : What I did on the outing.

Function : 1. Give simple accounts of things they did on the outing.
2. Speak and ask simple questions about past events.

Language Items : 1. What did you do in the park?
drew a picture.
Vocabulary: Past forms of verbs.

Resources: 3 sets of photos, Tape recorders, A chart

Focus on Skills : Listening, Speaking

Games, activities, tasks : 1. Each group is given a set of photos of the outing. The pupils take turns to answer questions about the outing.
2. An interview. Using a tape-recorder, teacher conducts an interview with some of the pupils. The questions are based on the outing.
3. Who's got the tallest plant?
Pupils compare the heights of their plants.

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT SUMMARY: "WHAT MAKES A READER POPULAR AMONG OUR PUPILS?"

Course No.: ES 901
Group 8
Participants: Au Wong Yuen Ling, Lydia
Chui Siu Chun, Debebe
Lee Hoi Ming (Leader)
Leung Lai Fun, Louisa
Lui Leung Siu Yin, Esther
Ng Kar Ling, Karen
Ng Yim Lai Seung
Siu Yuen Lan
Tse Sing Kit, Sandra
Chan Wong Siu On, Sandy
Wong Chong Moi, John
Wong Lai See (Secretary)
Names of Writers: Wong Lai See
Lee Hoi Ming

Tutor: David Bunton

In this project, we set out to find out what kinds of books students really enjoy reading – and why.

"The practice of extensive reading needs little justification. It is clearly the easiest way of bringing the foreign learner into sustained contact with a substantial body of English. If he reads, and what he reads is of some interest to him, then the language of what he has read rings in his head, the patterns of collocation and odiom are established almost painlessly"

Geoffrey Broughton (1980)
in G. Broughton, C. Brumfit, R. Flavell, P. Hill &
R. Pincas (Eds.): Teaching English as a
Foreign Language, Routledge, Kegan and Paul

Why Extensive Reading?

The main reason why we chose to work on such a project was that we were convinced that reading, in particular extensive reading, can help a great deal in second language acquisition, especially when the learner has developed a reading habit outside the classroom as in so doing the learner can always keep in touch with the target language in the most convenient way and he can made second language learning part of his or her life. As Nuttal pointed out, "The best way to improve your knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its speakers. The next best way is to read extensively in it."

How do we know where our students' interests lie?

The quotation at the beginning suggests that second language learners benefit a lot from reading materials which interest them. However, how do we know where their interests are?

It was this very question that led us to decide to start our survey. We hoped that our findings would help us in some way to run our own extensive reading schemes at school, which in turn would help our pupils develop a reading habit outside school.

Every major publisher provides lists of readers, specifying the vocabulary and their in-house grading system. When choosing books for use, most teachers try to find those that will be easy for the pupils to read and preferably of high intrinsic interest. The principles are sensible. However, no one but the students know what really are interesting and easy to them.

Aware of this, we came to a consensus that our project had to see what students themselves thought of as wide a variety of books as possible, rather than limiting their choice through our assumptions as teachers.

How to conduct our survey?

Subjects

Young children, curious and adventurous, are great explorers in their world of fantasy. From our experience, secondary school newcomers are more eager to try and more readily motivated. Once encouraged to begin reading, hopefully, they may develop reading habits thereafter.

We assumed that self-motivated pupils with higher standards of English will ensure a better response to the reading activity and hence contribute more to our project; whereas pupils weaker in English usually do not have the readiness to read and hence they may just do nothing at all. Mrs Christina Wong, a Vice Principal of ILE, pointed out in her report on the government's Extensive Reading Scheme (ERS) that brighter pupils would be most likely to benefit from extensive reading. With our assumption justified, we decided to survey pupils of average to above average English standard.

We selected one class of first formers from each of the three target New Territories schools, namely, POCA Wong Siu Ching Secondary School in Tsuen Wan, Shung Tak College in Yuen Long and Tuen Mun Government Secondary School, as our subjects and visited each school twice, for 1½ to 2 hours each time.

Books

13 of us tried our best to collect readers and other books from various sources such as publishers, our respective schools and libraries. With the help of Ms. Christina Wong, and Mr. David Bunton, our tutor, books of the ERS were made accessible to us. Eventually, a total of 493 different books,

including 363 fiction and 130 non-fiction, were assembled for the reading activity.

Activity

During the activity periods, pupil participants could choose freely from the choosing corner; sit down, relax and read comfortably at the reading corner; or if they did not like the book, they could always return it and get another one on the spot. On the other hand, if they liked certain books, they could take them home. Students had to tell us whether they liked the books or not – and why – by completing survey forms.

Survey Forms

Each pupil had to fill in a Personal Data Form and a Form A for each book he or she chose, giving the reason the book was chosen. If the chosen book was found to be to his or her liking, a Form B was filled in, giving reasons; if otherwise, a Form C was filled in, giving reasons for disliking the book. Forms were deliberately written in Chinese in order to eliminate any language barriers which might keep the students from giving genuine answers.

Our Findings

After visiting the schools, we collected 1049 Form As, 706 Form Bs and 225 Form Cs. However, some students might have submitted a lot more forms than the others and would have dominated the results. Thus we decided to take samples.

Features most appealing to students

According to the statistics, students tended to choose books with the following features:

1. beautiful pictures/illustrations
2. attractive/beautifully designed cover
3. big, bold print
4. simple language
5. interesting titles
6. hard cover
7. less than an inch thick and less than a hundred pages
8. clear, neat and tidy arrangement

(The above features were ranked according to the total number of Forms collected)

Students of this age like books with colourful and attractive covers and illustrations. Their choice of a book is very much influenced by its outward appearance. Most students prefer reading books that are short and can be finished quickly. Footnotes and exercises do not seem appealing to students though they are valued by some teachers.

Do the tastes of boys and girls differ?

Girls tend to prefer stories while boys are more attracted to books about sports. However, both of them show their preference for books about animals. Difference in taste does exist between boys and girls. On the other hand, we also found that neither of them have preference for one type of book only. If we are to choose books for students for extensive reading, there should be a great variety on different topics.

Conclusion

A number of other things emerged as the project was being carried out, the most significant, perhaps, being the effect of variety, availability and freedom of choice on students' interest in reading. Many students completed a book, in one way or another, within the first hour and a half session. Many more completed two or more books at home in two or three days. The fact that a great majority borrowed more than one book (average 2.6) when they were only required to borrow one brings into question the perceived lack of interest in reading.

It raises the issue of how to make this sort of availability of a variety of books possible for more students, both inside and outside the classroom. One student asked one of us during the project: "Where did you get all these books?" and many of those she was indicating came from the Tuen Mun Public Library – a short walk from her school.

Ranking of the 27 "4/5 – star" books by their respective number of form B

Rank	Title	Publisher	Fiction or Non-fiction	No. of Students who gave book 4/5 stars		
				Total	Male	Female
1	Inside the Personal Computer	Penguin	N	17	9	8
2	Fred	Jonathan Cape	F	13	2	11
3	Snow White & the Seven Dwarfs	Grafton	F	10	0	10
4	Sleeping Beauty	Ladybird	F	9	0	9
5	Growing Up ! Jack the puppy	Purnell	N	8	8	0
5	Stanley Bagshaw and the short-sighted trainer	Hamish Hamilton	F	8	6	2
5	Don't give up, Charlie Brown	Fawcett Crest	F	8	1	7

Rank	Title	Publisher	Fiction or Non-fiction	No. of Students who gave book 4/5 stars		
				Total	Male	Female
8	Footballer	Franklin Watts	N	7	7	0
8	Alice in Wonderland	Ladybird	F	7	0	7
8	Bambi	Ladybird	F	7	1	6
8	Cinderella & the Sisters	OUP	F	7	1	6
12	Dinosaurs	Methuen	N	6	6	0
12	The Three Little Pigs	Hamlyn	F	6	2	4
12	Star Wars	Longman	F	6	6	0
12	Fast Food	Longman	N	6	3	3
12	The Photograph	OUP	F	6	0	6
12	The Proper Bike	OUP	F	6	4	2
18	Book of Riddles	Collins	N	5	0	5
18	On the Trail of the Fox	JM Dent & Sons Ltd	N	5	4	1
18	The World of Sharks	Wayland	N	5	5	0
18	Baby Rabbits	Macmillan	N	5	4	1
18	Sharks in the Wild	Wayland	N	5	5	0
18	Dracula	Ladybird	F	5	3	2
18	Sleeping Beauty & Bluebeard	OUP	F	5	1	4
18	The Lion and the Mouse	OUP	F	5	1	4
18	William and the Dog	OUP	F	5	0	5
18	Pop Stars in Hong Kong	College Press	N	5	2	3
			Total:	187	81	106

F – Fiction Total: 16
N – Non-fiction Total: 11
% of Male: 43.3%
% of Female: 56.7%

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT SUMMARY: "DEVELOPING LANGUAGE ENRICHMENT MATERIALS ON SONGS, POEMS AND VIDEOS FOR LOWER SECONDARY CLASSES"

Course No.: ES 911
Group 10
Participants: So Lai Wah
Christina So
Denise Jim
Bless Ho
Rosa Ho
Aman Cheung
Winnie Chiu
David Chiu
Aliana Wong
Connie Leung
Mabel Fan

Tutor: Anne O. L. Lo

Introduction

Most students in Hong Kong do not have a genuine purpose to use English. Therefore, the students' motivation to learn English is generally low. They seldom have the chance or need to interact with speakers of English in either the school or home environment. Besides, the examination syllabus dominates the homes and classroom of both teachers and students. In other words, what is not tested in the examination is seldom taught in the classroom.

As a consequence, most of the students and teachers view English simply as a requirement or qualification to be sought after. To achieve this, many teachers find themselves administering, checking and making tests of the four skills in the language classroom, while students drill and regurgitate chunks of language items for operational needs in examinations. Such a situation does not get them interested or involved in what they are doing. Another point is that is does not help to cultivate interpersonal relationships between the student and the teacher as its content is too impersonal. There is very little cultural context, aesthetic appeal, affective involvement or intellectual stimulation. It is not conducive to authentic communication.

On the other hand, we find that one of the domains of use, English as a medium of pleasure and entertainment, receives very little or no attention from coursebook writers, teachers and students. This domain emphasizes English as the language of one of the world's great literatures and as the medium of popular international culture through which learners can broaden "the range of aesthetic experience and entertainment available in Hong

Kong". It is complementary to other domains because it makes the learning of English meaningful and enjoyable.

However, the workload of Hong Kong Secondary School teachers is so heavy that most of them cannot spare much time and energy to design supplementary materials for their students. On the other hand, there is not sufficient supply of supplementary materials of this kind available for use. Thus, teachers simply make use of the "activities" or the drills in the coursebooks, which are boring and mechanical.

After considering the advantages of using supplementary materials in class to cater for the interests of the students, we decided to develop a set of Language Enrichment materials for lower secondary classes to be used to widen students' range of aesthetic experience and entertainment through English. These materials offer pleasurable experiences and enjoyment which can motivate students to persist in the difficult task of learning English. They can also provide the opportunity for language to be explored for its own sake, and to bring students into an encounter with language in its most complex and varied forms, presenting the thoughts, experiences and feelings of people outside the realm of the students' daily awareness. (CDC H.K., 1983) Hence, the language of students is enriched subconsciously and if they carry on reading English books and poems, listening to English songs, radio programmes and advertisements, watching English TV programmes, videos and dramas outside classrooms, their pursuit in English will be a continuing process throughout their lives. It is highly beneficial for them to balance their linguistic development in English with appreciation and enjoyment of the language. However, we can only design materials for songs, poems and videos since time and manpower are limited for preparation, and we believe that these three types of materials are of great interest to students.

Materials Design

We were only able to focus on songs, poems and videos which we think are more appealing and suitable for the lower secondary students we teach.

Music is a kind of art that has a universal appeal. Most young people enjoy songs. No matter what language a song is written in, it becomes internationally popular if it has a good melody and is easy to learn. English songs can stimulate the students' interest and liven up the class. Students may have few opportunities to speak English to other people outside the classroom but they can always sing a song when they are alone. Thus songs are a means of oral reinforcement outside of the classroom.

Poetry (if chosen carefully and used intelligently) can open up and enrich the content of language lessons, can provide useful opportunities for gaining experience of the world, and can contribute to the development of 'the whole person' as well as the 'learner of a language'. Poems, (as well as songs and short stories) can provide even elementary learners with opportunities to start developing the so-called 'advanced' skills.

Since every primary and secondary school in Hong Kong has already been equipped with television and video recorders for educational use and students enjoy watching TV and video at home, we, as teachers of English language should make use of the machines available to bring active and profitable learning activities to the classroom so that our students can enjoy the lessons and get the maximum benefit from them.

In this package, we have included both the teaching materials and activities i.e. songs, poems and videos. Our materials are graded for different levels of difficulty by asterisks. Materials with one asterisk are the easiest while those with three asterisks are the most difficult. Some activities are suggested for the materials so that teachers may use them whenever they think appropriate and necessary. Some of these materials have been tried out in our Experimental Teaching.

Experimental Teaching

Our group members tried out materials on songs, poems and videos in a Secondary 2 class of three different schools. Secondary 2 students were our target group because they are more accustomed to secondary school life than Secondary 1 students and are not yet under any public examination pressure. We chose schools which differed in the make-up of their students so that we could see how different types of students responded to the lessons. In fact, this was one of our objectives in our experimental teaching.

One of the schools we chose was Maryknoll Convent School which is an elite girls' school which attracts students are of high academic ability and good command of English. The other schools are Kwun Tong Maryknoll College and T.W.G.Hs Wong Fut Nam College. The former is a boys' school where as the latter is a co-educational one. Mixed-code teaching is a common practice in both schools and the students of both schools are of average academic ability.

Our objectives in carrying out the experimental teaching in three different types of schools were as follows:—

(*a*) to develop or design Language Enrichment materials to try out in class.

(*b*) to find out what kinds of materials or activities for language enrichment would interest the students most, how much they would enjoy and benefit from them.

(*c*) to find out how students of different schools with different academic ability would react to these activities.

(*d*) to develop suitable materials for language enrichment lessons from the findings of our Experimental Teaching.

There are two hypotheses that we wanted to test in our experimental teaching.

(*a*) Students enjoy language enrichment lessons.

(*b*) Language enrichment lessons can be a useful supplement to normal English lessons.

In our experimental teaching, we allocated four lessons to try out some of the materials in each school. The first two lessons were for trying out materials on songs and poems whereas the other two lessons were for trying out materials on videos and for evaluation.

From the questionnaires and observation forms we collected, we found that the students' questionnaire responses and oral feedback really threw light on our choice of materials and presentation of the lessons. Most students said that they could learn something from these lessons and they would like to have this kind of lesson regularly in their English course. Through the preparation of Language Enrichment materials and Experimental Teaching, we found that the materials really were more interesting than those in the coursebooks and we also felt the excitement and enjoyment of our students during the lessons. Therefore, all our objectives and hypotheses were achieved and confirmed.

Implications for further research

For further research, it is advisable to carry out a survey on students' interest and preference for topics and types of activities before developing any materials. There must also be a longer period of time for experimental teaching (at least some months or a whole year) and within such a period, there should be regular Language Enrichment lessons e.g. once a week, or once every two weeks, so that the research workers can have sufficient time for developing and trying out materials as well as revising them. In addition, a longer period of time for observation allows the research workers to collect more reliable data and feedback for a more valid evaluation and conclusion. Language enrichment is a long term process research to find out whether language enrichment lessons can motivate students to read more, listen to songs, radio programmes and view films and TV programmes, etc. in English at their leisure. Research workers are advised to conduct a survey before and after the language enrichment programme to see the effectiveness of these lessons.

It is essential to involve in-service teachers (if possible, from more than one school) in the research team because teachers are in the front-line of classroom teaching and are most directly involved in the learning process. There is another advantage of having in-service teachers in the team – there is already a certain kind of rapport between the teachers and the students and so it is easier and more convenient for the team to arrange and carry out their experimental teaching in their own schools in which case students will not feel uneasy about having a strange teacher.

Moreover, as students have a wide range of interest, the research team can explore other materials for language enrichment lessons. Areas such as drama, role-play, extensive reading, language games (especially those of communicative value) are worth exploring.

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT SUMMARY: "INTRODUCING A LANGUAGE ARTS PROGRAMME TO A S2 CLASS"

Course No.: ELS 902
Group 6
Participants: Louisa Cheung
Florence Lam
Gladys Wong
Hilda Leung
Arena Lee
Lydia Lo

Tutor: Madeleine Lau

Introduction

We propose here in this project the integration of a 'Language Arts Programme' with language teaching. By 'Language Art Programme', we mean the use of literature in the language classroom. Sources of literature can range from traditional literary works, such as poetry, fiction and drama, to modern short stories and simple poems, including those specially written for kids. The implementation of such a programme, we think, is the best way to provide English lessons with appropriate and enriching authentic written texts for learning.

Experimental Teaching

In our experimental teaching, the teaching of writing simple poems for one's enjoyment was tried out. A selection of poems of various styles and themes were collected and introduced to the students. Nusery rhymes were used to help illustrate the rhyme and rhythm of a poem. A worksheet for students to practise filling in the rhyming words was designed for use in the first lesson. The selected poems had been either recorded on cassette tapes or written on large pieces of paper for students to listen to or to read for appreciation. An ETV programme, "Likes and Dislikes" was shown to the class to motivate them to think of their own likes and dislikes; which was also the theme they would eventually write about in the rest of the experimental lessons. While listening to or reading the poems, students were asked to concentrate on the ideas and imagination other people were capable of expressing through poetry. The writing process involved group report, group writing, and individual writing. We hoped that during the process, students could pour out their ideas freely to help each other and learn from each other. In this way, we also hoped that they could become more and more confident in composing their own poems. In order to make the task more enjoyable and stimulating, students were asked to write their little poems on cards, book marks or book covers for a mini-display after school. The mini-display turned out to be a great success.

During the preparation stage, we did encounter a lot of problems due to the lack of experience in teaching the writing of poetry. Moreover, students' levels and interests which were unknown to us had caused another difficulty. We found that they were a bit passive and shy at first. Perhaps it was the result of meeting seven new teachers at one time. However, the students were in fact bright and creative. Not only could they understand teachers' instructions and answer questions in English, they had also shown great interest in writing poems which were creative, lively, and much better than our expectation.

Conclusion

On the whole, our experimental teaching is far from perfect. However, we have gained a lot during the whole process. The most precious experience we gained is the experience of trying out poetry with F.2 kids. The knowledge and experience of this project will help us a lot in future when we want to design and implement a similar 'Language Art Programme' in our own school.

ACTION RESEARCH SUMMARY: "SELF-ACCESS LEARNING"

Course No.: EUS 902
Group 1
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Introduction

As our assignment in the ILE Refresher Course, we did an action research into the feasibility of implementing self-access learning in the Hong Kong context. After completing a review of the literature, we as a team of 10 teachers designed a package of self-access materials. Then we tried them out with four classes of senior forms students in St. Louis School between 6 December and 11 December 1990. The aim of our action research was to verify the following three hypotheses:

1. Self-access can cater for individual learner differences.
2. Self-access can help students learn and work independently.
3. Self-access is suitable and feasible in the Hong Kong context.

Reasons for our action research

We decided to carry out our action research on self-access learning because we believed that this mode of learning had two main advantages.

1. It enables different learners to choose materials that suit their own needs, interests, levels, and learning styles. In the traditional classroom where the learning materials and progress of all students are controlled by the teacher, individual differences are often ignored. The use of self-access materials, we believe, can help the teacher cope with the problem of mixed ability classes.
2. Self-access learning changes the role of the learner from one of dependence and passiveness in traditional classroom teaching to one of independence and activeness. Its requires greater responsibility and more involvement from the learner, thus preparing him/her for later learning in life.

Our action research aims at providing some useful information to teachers on this relatively little explored area.

Organisation of our action research

A. Review of the literature

After a review of the literature and some discussion within the group, we arrived at the following definition of 'self-access learning'. This term to us means the learner works without the direct control of the teacher, and takes responsibility for his/her own learning.

B. Designing self-access materials

When preparing self-access materials for our action research, we concentrated on three areas: reading, speaking, and vocabulary. We chose these areas for the following reasons:

1. Reading is one of the most important skills students need to master since most textbooks are written in English.
2. Spoken English is important in verbal interactions but is often neglected by both teachers and students in the teacher-centred classroom.
3. Vocabulary is important in a good mastery of English but its teaching is often difficult and boring. More interesting ways of teaching lexical items need to be devised.

We designed a total of 258 activities, which were divided into three groups: reading, speaking and vocabulary. It should be noted that many of these activities involved not just one language skill but an integration of skills. All the activities were classified into three levels of difficulty: A, B and C meaning 'easy', 'intermediate' and 'advanced' respectively.

Most of the activities were designed in such a way that they were to be done in pairs or small groups. We believed that among other advantages, peer help could play an important part in self-access learning.

Apart from open-ended discussions and some role plays for which there were no definite answers, we prepared a suggested key for each activity so as to provide students with some immediate feedback after they have finished a task.

C. Research methodology

We decided to collect data by different means in our experimental teaching. The following forms were designed:

1. Questionnaire – This was filled in by individual students upon completion of an activity. Its aim was to find out whether the activities could be carried out without teacher help and whether they could help learners practise English.
2. Teacher Observation Form – This was completed by a teacher who observed the progress of an activity. This teacher should use the form to indicate whether the students could work independently and whether they participated actively.

3. Interview Form – This was used at the end of our experimental teaching when we would interview the students individually to collect feedback on self-access learning.

D. Experimental teaching

We tried out our materials successfully with two classes of F. 4 and two classess of F. 6 students in St. Louis School.

We found that most students enjoyed our activities and participated actively in class. Data from interviews revealed that over 90% of the students used more English during our teaching practice than in ordinary English lessons. In other words, self-access learning is a feasible and effective mode of learning.

Our suggestions

We would like to make a few suggestions on how self-access learning can be implemented successfully in Hong Kong secondary schools.

A. Preparation of materials

1. The production of self-access materials is an enormous task, and the cooperation of the whole English Department should be sought.
2. The school authorities should be convinced to lend their support in terms of money and other resources.
3. Students in senior forms can be asked to prepare self-access materials for their schoolmates.

B. Contents of materials

4. Self-access materials should not be too lengthy or complicated. If they are, students may not attempt them.
5. A placement test or questionnaire may be designed and used before students are introduced to self-access activities. This is to raise their awareness of their own levels, needs, and interests before they choose activities suitable to them.

C. Where to do self-access learning

6. We suggest that self-access materials should first be used in the classroom with some guidance from the teacher. After this, they may be used by students at home or as extra-curricular activities.

D. Preparing students for self-access work

7. Students should be familiar with the content and organisation of the materials if they are to work efficiently.
8. Students need to be prepared for the language skills and functions required for the activities.

E. Evaluation of students' progress

9. We suggest students keep their own progress by keeping their record sheets.

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT SUMMARY: "TOWARDS IDENTIFYING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF DIFFERENT QUESTION TYPES IN RELATION TO STUDENTS' IMMEDIATE VERBAL RESPONSE IN AN ENGLISH CLASSROOM"

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Tutor: Wendy Lam

Summary

The project's aim was to investigate the effectiveness of different question types in generating students' immediate responses and to look at how the different forms and functions of questions could affect these responses.

This area was chosen for investigation because we believe questioning has a role to play in stimulating students to speak up in English lessons, an area in which our students are generally very weak. We wanted to examine the relation between different question types and students' response and to make recommendations on the type of questions to ask and the manner of asking them to encourage our students to speak up effectively.

The very first step of our research was to think of how questions could be classified. We observed several videotaped lessons for reference. Then we read books on related studies borrowing some ideas from them and modifying some others. Finally, we came up with three different ways of analysing a question. First, we looked at what the question elicited and decided whether it was a factual, opinion, personal experience, explanation or reasoning question. Second, we looked at whether the question was a genuine or display one. Third, we looked at whether it was a 'wh-' question or 'yes-no' question. In short, questions were classified by their different forms and functions. In addition to these, a question may employ one of the three strategies, namely simplification, repetition and probing.

Having designed the typology of questions, the next logical step was to relate questions to responses. In our experimental teaching, we had four normal reading comprehension lessons with F.4 students in four different schools and all questions asked in the lesson were analysed in relation to the kinds of responses they generated. Responses were subcategorized into either voluntary or nominated, elaborate or minimal, processed or text-bound. An elaborate answer is a more sophisticated, usually longer discourse whereas a minimal one refers to a word, phrase, clause or a very short sentence used to answer a question. Processed and text-bound answers distinguish whether a response is basically an extract form a text or is something linguistically processed or original.

Our research is subject to several limitations. The limited population and sample size of each type of question and response may militate against our findings. The uneven proportion of each type of question asked also affects the resulting findings. The situation in which students gave no response because of lack of nomination was not fully examined. Other constraints like setting and teacher's unfamiliarity with students also negatively affected student responses.

In spite of its drawbacks, our research revealed some interesting findings. Of all the responses, an overwhelming number of responses was of the minimal type. It was found that Opinion/Feeling, Personal data/experience, genuine, 'wh-' questions were more effective in generating responses in general while reasoning questions were the most generative in yielding elaborate responses. Regarding strategies, probing was the most effective in eliciting responses. It also revealed that genuine questions related to students' personal interests were more effective in generating voluntary responses. Another finding showed the importance of teacher's nomination in yielding responses because majority of the students have the habit of waiting for nomination.

A few suggestions were made to teachers to encourage more students to speak up in class through questioning. In order to stimulate students' response in class, it was recommended that the teacher asked more opinion, reasoning genuine and 'wh-' questions, though we should not overlook the importance of other types of questions. To encourage students to respond voluntarily to teacher's questions, the teacher should try to eradicate the student habit of waiting for nomination and to ask more genuine questions related to students' personal interests.

Our research provides a crude framework on how to study students' response in relation to questions types. Further research in the same area can take into account its weaknesses and improve on it. Besides, there are relevant areas beyond the scope of this research which are worth further investigation. For example, the interplay of different factors in contributing to the effectiveness of a question is an area worth examining.

The research fulfills its purpose of finding out what question types tend to generate more students' responses. Yet, how effective questioning is as a whole in encouraging students to talk, is an area left for further investigation.

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT SUMMARY: "PUTTING THOUGHT INTO WORDS"

Course No.: EUS 902
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Wong, Yip Hang Fong Jenny

Tutors: Mike Murphy and Chris Green

Why we chose the topic area

The present language situation in Hong Kong's education system does not help to develop students' oral competence. Most students are not good at generating, organizing and expressing their ideas verbally in English lessons. The assessment system in Hong Kong lays too much emphaisis on written work. Therefore most teachers devote most of their time to developing students' reading and writing skills and neglect training their speaking skills.

Although English is essential in the commercial field and tertiary education, it is not used as a means of communication in social life in Hong Kong. The majority of the population is Chinese. Students use Cantonese, their mother tongue, to converse with relatives, friends and classmates in their daily communication. It is difficult for them to percieve the importance of speaking English, since they lack the opportunity to use English for genuine communication. Therefore we decided to carry out this project to stimulate students to think and express their ideas in words. It is hoped that students can then develop their ability to think and enhance their verbal fluency.

How our project might solve the problem

In order to build up the confidence of students in using English in communication, our project provides activities which stimulate thinking and talking. These activities provide students with ample opportunities expressing their ideas, opinions and attitudes.

Moreover students are willing to think when the activities are interesting and challenging enough. With the help of more able students acting as group tutors, students would be helped to organize their thinking better. As students grow familiar with the process of thinking, less help will be required from the tutors or teacher. As a result there will be a lot of interaction and genuine communication among students themselves. They will become more confident when communicating in English, and their competence in speaking will be strengthened.

What activities were selected

1. *Viewing*

We selected a video, "Animal Magic" from "Television English 1". It was about a scientific experiment on animals which could generate electricity. We chose viewing as our first activity because the students may not be used to discussing and expressing ideas and opinions in English. This video would then be able to motivate and initiate them to discuss the mainly content-based questions arising from the video programme.

2. *P.M.I.*

Our second activity was based on De Bono's book "Cort Thinking". The P.M.I. system of thinking trains students to broaden their thinking process. For examples, instead of deciding whether they like or dislike an idea, they make an effort to find the good points (P = Plus), the bad points (M = Minus) and the interesting points (I = Interesting) about an idea.

3. *Puzzles*

We selected three problem-solving activities. In Activity 1, we took out a set of 11 pictures from Klippel's "KEEP THINKING". These pictures help students to desribe, to discuss and finally arrange the pictures in a logical sequence. Activity 2 is a puzzle called "The 4 Babies" extracted from Ronvolucri's "CHALLENGE TO THINK". The puzzle-stories in Activity 3 were also taken from the same source. These activities stimulate students to express their opinions, to give reasons to support their ideas, to make deductions and to make hypothesis.

4. *Moral Issues*

This theme was also extracted from "Challenge To Think". Activity 1, "The Survivors", is a group discussion on the character students like best and the character they like least. Activity 2, "Laying Off", is a group discussion on which member of staff to lay off to improve the economic situation of a company. These activities lead students to indicate preferences according to moral judgement and to express opinions with reasons.

5. *Reasoning*

Two activities were designed to provide semi-authentic situations for practising thinking and verbal reasoning skills. In Activity 1, some attractive advertisements were selected from newspapers and magazines. Brand names and pictures of the advertised products were removed and students were asked to guess the advertised products, giving reasons for their guess. In Activity 2, a board game called "Merry Christmas", students were required to explain why they wanted to send certain gifts to their friends/relatives. In these activities, students had to give opinions, make deductions, make hypotheses and of course, give reasons.

How we tried out our materials

We carried out our experimental teaching at Kwun Tong Maryknoll College for a total of ten periods over four days. The class S.6B was chosen and the 23 students were divided into 6 groups. On the first day, the activities were viewing (1 1/2 periods) and P.M.I. (1 1/2 periods). On the second day, the two periods were devoted to Puzzles (Problem Solving), the theme for the two periods on the third day was Discussion on Moral Issues. We concluded our experimental teaching with Reasoning activities in the three periods on the final day.

Main findings from the try-out

1. The students showed keen interest and took an active part in group discussion.
2. There must be appropriate motivation for every activity to arouse the interest of students.
3. A "Language Ladder" should be provided for every activity to help students express their ideas fluently.
4. The teacher should make spontaneous correction of verbal grammatical errors that occur frequently.
5. As students showed a keen interest in open presentation, group work should be followed by open presentation as often as possible.

Future implications

1. Our project depended on the joint effort of ten teachers. In a normal class with only one English teacher, these activities would be difficult to carry out without much modification and adaptation.
2. A more able student can take the tutor's place in each group to monitor the activities.
3. Before the activities, the teacher should give clear and detailed instructions if no tutor is available.
4. A larger classroom should be used if the class size is larger.
5. Without teachers acting as group judges, the group-based competition factor may have to be dispensed with.

1155

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT SUMMARY: "INTRODUCING A PROCESS-ORIENTED APPROACH TO WRITING TO A S4 CLASS IN A CHINESE MEDIUM SCHOOL"

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Tutor: Norman Bird

What is our action research project about?

This action research project is designed to try out a process writing approach in a Chinese middle school. Students are to develop their writing ability through a recursive process of generating, organising, drafting, revising, editing and proofreading. The strategies used are brainstorming, fastwriting, sharing, drafting and peer-reading. The approach used is student-centred rather than teacher-centred.

The try-out was carried out in Pooi To Middle School. With the principal's approval, we carried out a survey of the students' writing habits and needs before we started our tryout. Two hundred and seventy two S4 students in Pooi To Middle School were invited to fill in a standard questionnaire. The data was then collected, processed and analysed. According to the findings of the survey, a set of process writing materials was complied to cater for their needs. A scheme of work was written as guidelines for our tryout lessons. We then spent five days at the school to introduce the approach to a class of thirty-six S4 commercial students.

Reasons for choosing the process-oriented writing approach for investigation

From our experience, we notice that most secondary school students find writing English composition boring. Our traditional teaching approach may have been partly responsible for nurturing such negative views. Throughout the years, we have placed too much emphasis on the product rather than the process itself. Students are usually only given the topic of the composition with minimal explanations and a deadline. Then they are left in the cold to produce a product. What we teachers really focus on is our students' product writing rather than the procedures of writing. We pay very little attention to the creativity of our students.

To revamp the present dead-fish image of writing, we tried to explore new approaches of writing. One of the approaches we came up with is a process writing approach.

Process writing approach places its main emphasis on the process of writing. Its main features are brainstorming, fastwriting, sharing, drafting and peer-reading. It is student-centred rather than teacher-centred. Students are encouraged to create and re-create; to think and re-think.

Since its introduction into Hong Kong schools, it has been tried out and adopted by various teachers who teach in Anglo-Chinese secondary schools with English as the main teaching medium. After talking to some of the teachers, we find that the feedback is encouraging. Those teachers who have tried out this approach find it practical in the sense that students find writing more stimulating, interesting and effective than is otherwise the case. They express what they intend to express and generate new and innovative ideas.

Since it is practical in Anglo-Chinese secondary schools, we thought that it might also be effective in Chinese middle schools which differs mainly from the former in terms of the teaching medium. To test our hypothesis, we chose to implement a process writing approach in a well-established Chinese middle school—Pooi To Middle School.

What did the project aim to do?

Our aim was to investigate whether a process-oriented writing approach can be carried out in a Chinese medium school. With this in mind, we tried to encourage learners to develop confidence in using the target language, to develop the learners' ability to generate, select, organise, revise and edit ideas, to creat a co-operative and sharing atmosphere through exchanging information and revising each other's work and finally to arouse learners' interest in writing.

Materials used

Extracts from newspapers were used, a content checklist, a language checklist, discussion guidelines and rewriting guidelines were also designed. These were introduced at various stages to help students draft, redraft and edit their writing.

How materials designed were tried out?

In order to familiarize students with the different stages of process writing, an introductory lesson was given. Through brainstorming, sharing, focussing, fastwriting and peer-reading, they were guided to produce a piece of writing in class. The topic is to introduce themselves to a new teacher.

They were then introduced to the main writing task—writing a letter of complaint. They were encouraged to explore the existing problems in their school through brainstorming and to devise solutions to the problems. Wh-questions and sketches were used to help them generate ideas and think comprehensively. Extracts from newspapers were given as input to familiarize students with the format of a letter of complaint. After finishing their first drafts, students peerread each other's work and gave comments on the work. They concentrated only on the content at this stage. They then revised their own drafts.

Discussion guidelines, content checklist, language checklist and rewriting guidelines were supplemented to help students peer-read and revise their second drafts. Exercises on rearranging the sequence of a letter were provided to give them practice in the organisation of a letter of complaint.

Findings from the tryout

We observed that the students participated actively during brainstorming, sharing, fastwriting, discussion, peer-reading and drafting during our try-out period. Comments in the Student's Evaluation Form were positive. The students found the processes of writing useful, interesting and helpful. Writing was no longer boring for they helped each other to generate innovative ideas.

There were factors such as boredom, impatience, reluctance, time constraints, English language competency, cooperation, self-discipline and examination that hampered the smooth operation of this try-out.

Some students found revision of their drafts boring and were therefore reluctant to improve them. Both drafts were virtually identical. Impatience surfaced at times, even among the motivated students because all of them were used to writing one version of their composition. It is an intensive course, so they must do all the tasks within a time limit. Some weaker students found that they had too little time to do a lot. The better students found it stimulating because they were given more room for creativity but they felt they were wasting their precious time on waiting for the weaker students to complete their tasks. Some did not have enough words and expressions to communicate with others during discussions. The more competent students found themselves dominating processes like brainstorming and discussion. Though accuracy was not heavily emphasized it was still important. Weak students and good students alike were frustrated by their grammatical mistakes. A pair of weak students would certainly not be able to help each other in accuracy. They might even obstruct each other. Only the better students could offer help to the weaker ones especially during peer-reading and discussion. Cooperation among students within a group is essential because it is basically a student-help-each-other situation. Since the teachers were not able to monitor and supervise each group or pair at the same time, students' self-discipline was vital. Some resorted to jest instead of work, chat instead of discuss. They were unproductive. A few copied ideas from other classmates instead of generating their own. To the examination-minded students, this approach was considered useless because they thought they would only be given a mere one hour to complete their composition during examination. They thought the strategies they have learned to revise and polish their writing could not be used again.

Implications for the future

The try-out lessons have given us insights into the teaching of writing in future. We can add some safeguards for greater success like introducing more interesting and authentic inputs, for example, cuttings from current magazines, videos; giving students more discussion guidelines to make their discussions more fruitful and task-centred; encouraging them to bring in their own reading material to use as their reference and to share with others; and nurturing their joy and satisfaction of creativity by showering constant positive feedback such as praises and better grade.

Being realistic, we really did not expect to witness any miracle to happen during our one-shot-deal Experimental Teaching. Students' die hard writing habits will not be changed overnight. However, given ample time, repeated trials, unsagging perseverance and strong conviction, we are certain that we can produce thinking writers.

讀文教學與課堂活動

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一

本港的中國語文教學，近幾年來，可說頗有變革。變革的趨向，一般較重視教學活動的安排和教具的使用，也較強調教學須結合學生的程度、興趣、需要。為甚麼會產生變革？原因極為複雜，不是三言兩語所可說盡，但其中應有學制改變的因素，也應有社會發展、語文應用的因素，是可以斷言的。至於變革的內容，主要包括課程、教材、教法三方面。我們試把1991年實施的《中國語文科課程綱要》①跟以往各階段的《課程綱要》相核對，不難了解多年來變革的過程。不過，課程和教材的變革較易覺察，因為我們只要翻開各階段的《課程綱要》，細心比對教學目標、教學範疇、教材等項目的說明，就會得到一個較具體的印象。有關教法的說明不是沒有，而且有些還說明得相當詳細，但這些說明，大多只能提些原則的意見，或按照原則舉述一些例子。只是教法是否真有變革，光看原則或光看例子是不足夠的，我們得看教師的施教計畫和教室中的實際教學情況。據我所知，目前本港中國語文教學的教法是有改進的，只是這些改進，有部分似乎仍未能趕得上課程的要求，教師在施教時，有時也會忽略了學生的程度、興趣、需要，有時甚至未能充分利用教材中的語文成分，去訓練學生的聽、說、讀、寫能力。要大幅度改進中國語文教學的教法，要清楚地看到教法上的切實改進，真不是一件那麼容易的事。談教法改進的成效，教師肯不肯認真備課，肯不肯虛心擴大自己的識見，肯不肯經常力求自我改進，無疑是絕不可忽略的因素，但如果有人肯為他們多提供一些有用的教學設計或參考資料，就會減輕他們備課、設計的負擔，而且也會通過這些教學設計或參考資料，直接影響他們的教學。當然這些教學設計或參考資料，要密切符應教學課程的要求。

二

1991年實施的《中學中國語文科課程綱要》，把「讀文教學」分為「精讀教學」和「略讀教學」兩部分。關於「精讀教學」的教法，《課程綱要》的提示是：

> 原則上採提問討論方式教學，以訓練學生思考分析及說話的能力，但亦可因應教材特點、學生程度或教學環境等實況而靈活結合其他方法施教。此外，亦宜配合實際需要，運用適當的教具和組織適當的教學活動，以提高學生的學習興趣。②

關於「略讀教學」的教法，《課程綱要》的提示是：

> 略讀教學宜在課堂上進行。教師不必像精讀教學般與學生全面而深入地研習教材，只須將教材略教，並以該次教學重點為中心，引導學生研習。略讀教學的教學方式並無成規，可配合各次教學重點和教材特點，靈活施教：或採口頭問答、討論方式；或採書面作答方式；或二者兼採；也可以組織教學活動，例如比賽、遊戲、角色扮演、辯論會等。③

除了上述兩段文字，《課程綱要》乙部「教學建議」有關「教學活動」一項，又舉出了十一類（包括「其他」）常見的課堂活動④。參考上述三段資料的提示，把相類的合併，把不同的分列，我們或可把課堂活動的類型歸納為：1.提問、口頭作答、討論；2.提問、書面作答；3.朗讀、朗誦；4.看圖說話；5.角色扮演；6.戲劇表演；7.遊戲；8.競賽（如：查工具書、辯論等等）；9.專題設計、報告、討論；10.觀看幻燈片、錄影帶或聆聽錄音帶；11.其他。再補充一些，在「其他」項下，或可包括小組座談、錄音（座談錄音、演講錄音、誦讀錄音、訪問錄音等）、新聞報導、滙報等等。其實課堂活動的類型，恐怕不能窮舉，也不必窮舉，而且有些類型，在內容上不免有重複的地方，如「討論」，在大多數活動類型裏都可進行，因此不出現「討論」字眼的活動類型，並不表示不會討論。《課程綱要》提到「教學方式並無成規」，又提到「靈活施教」，這是強調教無定法，不過並沒有說不要「法」。《課程綱要》裏許多關乎教學原則或規律的提示，其實就是向教師提供「法」，只是有了「法」以後，教學仍須因應實際情況而靈活調整施教方式。沈衡仲在《教學有法和教無定法》一文中，主張兼重「有法」和「無法」。他的意見是這樣的：

> 方法是前人從實踐中總結出來的經驗，必然反映一定的規律，我們運用這些方法以達到教學的目的，這可以說是教學有法。正因為教學有法，所以我們教學時不但要鑽研教材，還要注意教法，要學習有關教學的論著，並通過實踐、探索，掌握其規律。⑤

這是強調教學方法的重要，所謂教學方法，就是從實踐經驗所總結出來的規律，也就是說，教學方法本身是有規律可循的。跟着沈氏又說：

> 但從另一方面來說，教學要從實際出發，因文因人而異，不能拘泥於某種成法，所以又可以說是教無定法。教學既有法可循，又不宜執着於一法。⑥

這是說教學方法並非一成不變，教材不同，教學對象不同，教學環境不同，就要根據實際情況而靈活運用不同的方法。其實即使是同一篇教材，如果教學對象不同，教學環境不同，教師就要根據具體情況，靈活運用施教技巧，而不能固執於某一種特定方式。我們在讀文教學中為學生安排課堂活動，應該有上述認識。

三

談到讀文教學的課堂活動，有人或許會問：為甚麼要為學生安排活動？課堂活動的主要作用是甚麼？《中學中國語文科課程綱要》的意見是：

> 為提高學生的學習興趣並提供學生參與學習的機會，教師宜組織課堂教學活動。[7]

上文強調兩點，一是提高學習興趣，二是提供參與機會。把這兩點引申、補充，我以為課堂活動的作用，主要有下列幾項：

1. 提高學生的學習興趣：興趣是學習的動力，缺乏興趣的學習，課堂上的氣氛就會沉悶，也會減損了學習的成果。本港的讀文教學，較常採用提問、口頭作答的方式，有時也會加插一些討論。提問、作答，當然是課堂活動之一，只是長期採用同一方式，學生對語文的學習，就會由悶而厭。提高學生學習興趣的方法，應在讀文教學中安排較多課堂活動，並經常轉換活動方式，這樣才會使學生不斷有新鮮感，又讓他們有較多參與討論、研習的機會。而且，課堂活動往往需要教具作為輔助，有參與、有活動、有教具的教學，學生的學習興趣，自然會逐步提高。
2. 培養學生的自學習慣和能力：葉聖陶先生在《閱讀是寫作的基礎》一文中說：「在課堂裏教語文，最終目的在達到『不需要教』。」[8] 這話有很大的啟發性。在讀文教學中，教師要十分重視培養學生的自學習慣和能力。自學習慣，應包括：查檢工具書或參考書的習慣，專心讀書的習慣，思考提問的習慣，發言議論的習慣，摘錄筆記的習慣等等[9]。自學能力，應包括：獨立、正確使用工具書或參考書的能力，獨立辨析、推敲字、詞、句、段、篇的能力，聯想、想像、推理的能力，默讀、速讀、跳讀的能力，理解、分析各類文體篇章的能力等等[10]。課堂活動，往往要學生自己尋求答案、解決疑難，同時也會經常要他們思考、發表意見、筆錄要點，所以要培養學生的自學習慣和能力，多為他們安排課堂活動，是有效的方法。
3. 加強訓練的效果：過往的語文教學，較重視讀、寫的訓練，因此在讀文教學中，「滿堂灌」是常見的現象，教師盡力多講，學生努

力多記，到頭來學生的聽、說能力，得不到應有的發展，而且他們也不慣於聯想、想像、推理。現代語文教學的要求，是要全面訓練學生的聽、說、讀、寫能力，同時也要啟發他們思考，鼓勵他們自學。在讀文教學中安排不同類型的課堂活動，就是要學生在不同情況下，有時聆聽，有時說話，有時閱讀，有時寫作，有時思考，有時翻檢工具書，於是學生的語文能力，就會得到較全面、較均衡的照顧。而且在有目標、有計畫的課堂活動中，學生要少說、少聽、少讀、少寫、少思考，根本是不可能的事，所以讀文教學的課堂活動，實有加強訓練語文能力的效果。

4. 方便講練結合：所謂「講」，指教師的講解；所謂「練」，指學生的練習。讀文教學，教師的講解有重要指導作用，因此我們不必輕視講。只是經過講後，學生如果沒有切實去作讀的練習，他們的閱讀理解能力，就不能有效地提高。除了讀的訓練以外，讀文教學也要通過教材或一些活動，訓練學生能聽、能說、能寫，以符應語文教學的要求。要達到這個目的，學生也得要練。在讀文教學中安排課堂活動，最方便教師把講和練結合起來，讓學生把剛學到的，立刻嘗試應用，或作較深刻的體會。而且，所有課堂活動，無論形式怎樣，都會為學生提供較多聽、說、讀、寫的機會，這無疑會大大加強了語文基本技能訓練的作用。

四

在讀文教學中安排不同類型的課堂活動，只是一種教學手段。手段高低，會影響教學的成果，但手段並非最重要，最重要的，是要通過手段來達成語文訓練的目標。所謂手段，其實就是教學方法。談到教學方法，我們應該有這樣的認識，就是：教學有法可循，因為有規律存乎其中。規律是重要的，我們不該輕視。但教亦多術，術即方法，種種方法的採用，都只不過為教學目標服務，拘執於某一種方法的形式，而忘記了本來的教學目標，好的方法，有時也會變得不好。因此，語文教師參考本書所提供的活動例子時，最好不要拘執於某一種形式，或刻板地遵循某一種形式。重要的是，教師能夠從例子中，得到一些啟發，進而加以變通，甚至舉一反三，聞一知十，使課堂活動在讀文教學中，發揮最大的效用。

本書內容，分為課堂活動舉例和參考資料兩部分。課堂活動共有二十個，程度是中一至中三，大部分由同事李孝聰先生和張壽洪先生所執筆，而我則負責全稿的校訂。但為了切實體會設計、編寫的甘苦，又為了加強李、張兩位同事與我之間的默契，我也選了幾篇教材，嘗試動筆設計、編寫，並在全書的體例和形式方面，多出了一點點主意。我強烈感覺到，在

接參與，共同工作，的確加強了同事與自己之間的合作與融洽。在設計、編寫的過程中，我彷彿又回到中學的教室裏，面對躍躍欲動的學生，分享他們因競賽、對話、角色扮演、小組討論、圖片觀察等等活動所帶來的激動與歡樂。偶然由活動所產生的諠鬧與笑聲，有時也會引來一些教室門外的張望。根據張望者的眼色、表情，我有理由相信：這些張望，應該並不含有厭惡的成分。

附註

① 1991年實施的《中國語文科課程綱要》，由香港教育署香港課程發展議會編訂，包括中、小學兩課程，同時公布於1990年。

② 見香港課程發展議會編訂《中學中國語文科課程綱要》，1990年6月香港政府印務局，頁18。

③ 見同上，頁20。

④ 參閱同上，頁42至43。

⑤ 見沈蘅仲《語文教學散論》，1983年11月上海教育出版社，頁58。

⑥ 見同上。

⑦ 見香港課程發展議會編訂《中學中國語文科課程綱要》，1990年6月香港政府印務局，頁42。

⑧ 見《葉聖陶散文乙集》，1984年12月生活・讀書・新知三聯書店，頁395。

⑨ 參閱陸繼椿《語言訓練教學法綱要》，劉國正、陳哲文主編《語文教學在前進》，1985年4月人民教育出版社，頁124至126。

⑩ 參閱張貸表《農村中學語文教學也要搞改革——初中試點班兩年試教工作初步經驗》，劉國正、陳哲文主編《語文教學在前進》，同上，頁86。

附記：《讀文教學課堂活動設計》一書將於今年年初出版，本文是它的前言。

介紹語文教育學院1990年出版的《常用字廣州話讀音表》①

何國祥
香港教育署語文教育學院

一、緣起

香港目前絕大部分中、小學的中國語文科都用廣州話授課。教師在備課時，如果對課文漢字讀音有懷疑，往往求助於字典、辭典等工具書。令人困擾的是：不同工具書間的讀音往往並不一致，使人無所適從。下面列舉一些見於七種字典②的岐異讀音字例③：

	廣州音字典	李氏中文字典	中華新字典	同音字彙	中文字典	辭淵	粵音韻彙
例1 「亞洲」的「亞」字	a3 阿 又 nga3 扼3 亞軍	a3 呀	a3 阿	a 上去	a3	a3	a3
例2 「彫刻」的「彫」字	diu1 刁	diu1 刁	diu1 刁	diu 上平 又 tiu 上平	diu1 凋 又 tiu1 挑	tiu1 挑	(1) diu1 刁 (2) tiu1 挑 語音
例3 「衷心」的「衷」字	zung1 又 cung1 沖	tsung1 充	dzuŋ1 終 又 tsuŋ1 充	tsung 上平	zung1 終 又 tsung1 沖	zung1 終	(1) dzuŋ1 中 (2) tsuŋ1 充
例4 「學生」的「生」字	seng1 牲	(1) 讀 seng1 (2) 語 sang1	saŋ1 牲	saang 上平	sang1 甥	sang1 甥	saŋ1 甥
例5 「立刻」的「立」字	leb6 笠6	lap6 臘	lap9 腊	laap 下入	lep9	lep9	(1) lap9 臘 (2) lep9 立升
例6 「索引」的「索」字	sog3 朔	(1) sak3 (2) sɔk3	sak8 sɔk8	(1) sok 中入 索性 (2) saak 中入 索性	sak8 又 sok8	sok8 朔	(1) sak8 讀音 (2) sɔk8
例7 「提倡」的「倡」字	(1) cêng 昌 (2) cêng3 唱 又倡 議	(1) 語 tsoeng1 窗 (2) 讀 tsoeng3 暢	tsoeŋ3 唱	tsoeng 上去	(1) tsoeng1 昌 (2) tsoeng3 唱 倡導	tsoeng1 昌	(1) tsoeng3 提倡 (2) tsoeŋ1 倡

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	廣州音字典	李氏中文字典	中華新字典	同音字彙	中文字典	辭淵	粵音韻彙
例8 「打扮」的「扮」字	ban6 辦	ban6 辦	ban3 辦 又ban6辦	baan 上去	ban3	ban3	ban3
例9 「辭彙」的「彙」字	wui6 會6	(1) 讀 wui6 會 (2) 讀 wei6 惠	wui6 匯	(1) 正音 wai 下去 (2) 俗音 loey 下去 (3) 俗音 wui 下去	wae6 慧 又 wui6 匯	wae6 慧	(1) wei6 胃正讀 (2) wui6 匯
例10 「根莖葉」的「莖」	ging3 勁	(1) 讀 ging1 京 (2) 讀 ging3 敬	heŋ4 恆	hang 亨 上平	geng1 庚 又 heng4 恆	ging1 經	heŋ4 恆

語文教育學院中文系有見及此，於是發起「常用字廣州話讀音研究」，先由院內工作小組④根據七種常用的字典、辭典、韻書⑤找出有爭論性的漢字讀音⑥，然後組織「常用字廣州話讀音研究委員會」⑦，擬訂「建議讀音」。《常用字廣州話讀音表》（以下簡稱《讀音表》）就是委員會的討論結果。《讀音表》出版時，並加上普通話讀音。上面提到的10個歧異讀音字例的「建議讀音」（廣州話）是這樣的：（下文第四節另有詳細解釋）

字碼	漢字	普通話	廣州話	備註
0058	啞	ya4	a3 阿	
1250	彫	diao1	diu1 刁	（又）tiu1 挑
3647	衷	zhong1	dzung1 中 或 tsung1 沖	
2581	生	sheng1	sang1 甥	（又）saang1 司坑1
2930	立	li4	lap9 笠9	（又）laap9 臘
3041	索	suo3	sok8 朔	搜尋義又讀 saak8 絲拆8
0187	倡	chang4	tsoeng1 昌	提倡又讀 tsoeng3 唱
1496	扮	ban4	baan6 辦	（又）baan3 班3
1243	彙	hui4	wai6 惠	（又）wui6 匯，loey6 類
3424	莖	jing1	hang1 亨	（俗）ging3 敬

二、對象

《讀音表》是一份以小學語文教師為主要對象的語文教學參考資料，目的在減少小學語文教師因漢字廣州話異讀太多而產生的困擾。至於中學語文教師或中、小學教師講授其他用廣州話授課的科目時，當然也可以參考本表的資料。

三、收字數量

《讀音表》共收常用字4716個，包括語文教育學院1986年出版《常用字字形表》所收4721字(《讀音表》前面4791字與《常用字字形表》字碼一樣)；另分別參考三種漢字頻率統計⑧中最常見的2000字，增加常用字和異體字42個(其中包括《常用字字形表》「附錄」中的異體字和「補遺」的字)。

四、資料編排

《讀音表》每字給予編碼，正文(4719字)與補遺(42字)內容分別按部首順序排列；另有廣州話及普通話讀音索引，方便查閱。《讀音表》中每字資料分五欄編排，依次為：(例子見上文第一節)

1. 字碼；2. 漢字；3. 普通話讀音；4. 廣州話讀音；5. 廣州話讀音備註

我們採用中文電腦(《國喬》軟件)編印字表及索引，標準字形方面資料，請參考《常用字字形表》。普通話讀音根據中國社會科學院語言研究詞典編輯室編，1983年北京商務印書館印行的《現代漢語詞典》。1985年，國家語言文字工作委員會公佈《普通話異讀詞審音表》，我們也根據這個表作了適當的修訂。《讀音表》所收4761字中，不見於《現代漢語詞典》的字，我們就參考其他詞典，其中包括教育部重編國語辭典編輯委員會編，1982年台灣商務印書館印行的《重編國語辭典》。常見破讀音字在讀音欄內依次排列，並附詞例。

為方便利用電腦編印音標符號及製作普通話、廣州話索引，《讀音表》盡可能採用電腦鍵盤上的符號注音。

普通話以漢語拼音方法注音，用阿拉伯數字1、2、3、4；0分別表示第一聲(陰平)、第二聲(陽平)、第三聲(上聲)、第四聲(去聲)、輕聲。

廣州話注音以國際音標為主。因為廣州話除【m】、【n】、【ŋ】外，無全濁聲母，所以《讀音表》用濁音符號，與同一發音部位及方法的清音並列，以清音表示送氣，濁音表示不送氣。此外，聲母【ŋ】寫作ng。韻母方面，我們仿效耶魯大學標注粵音的方法。【ɐ】寫作a，【a】寫作aa，其他的改寫有：【ɔ】作o；【œ】作oe；【I】作i；【U】作u；【ɛ】作e；【-ŋ】作-ng

等。至於聲調，仍用阿拉伯數字表示，即用1、2、3、4、5、6、7、8、9分別表示陰平、陰上、陰去、陽平、陽上、陽去、陰入、中入、陽入。

五、字音研訂

廣州話欄所列讀音，在研訂過程中，力求審慎，希望盡可能照顧小學教師語文課堂上的實際需要，並根據一些原則來考慮(見下文)；但我們無意樹立「漢字粵語正讀」權威，「廣州話」讀音欄所載的只是我們的「建議讀音」，教師授課時，可以採用我們的「建議」。為減少異讀的困擾，我們在廣州讀音欄內，只建議一個讀音(只有八字的異讀⑨，委員們難以取捨，結果二讀並存於廣州話讀音欄內，用「或」音表示)。這並不表示見於其他字典詞典的無別義異讀是誤讀或不能接受，況且委員認為可以接受的異讀，我們都盡可能在備註欄說明(詳見下文)。

研討字音時，主要根據下列原則考慮：(漢字前為字碼，下同)

1. 字有正讀俗讀，而俗讀為多數人所接受者，取俗讀為建議讀音。例如：

   2307 澡　取 tsou3 為建議讀音

2. 無別義作用的異讀，取最常用者為建議讀音，頗常用者放入「備註」欄，不常用者不取。例如：

   4476 顆　取 fo2 為建議讀音，lo2 入備註，不取 fo3

3. 有別義作用的異讀(即「破讀」)，按常用度在讀音欄內依次排列，並附詞例，不常用者不取。例如：

   0627 單　(1) daan1 丹　單純　(古人名) sim4 蟬　單于
   (2) sin6 善　姓單

4. 專有名詞的讀音，原則上以文獻或學者考證的意見為依據。例如：

   0074 可汗　取 hak7　hon4 為讀音

5. 因字形接近而誤讀的讀音，仍以正讀為建議讀音。例如：

   3038 紊 man6　不取 loen6(吝)

「備註」欄內，原則上收錄下列資料：

1. 常用的廣州話口語讀音。例如：(最後一欄是備註資料)

   0022 丸 jyn4 元　(語) jyn2 苑

2. 無別義作用而頗常用的異讀。例如：

   0319 凹 nap7 粒　(又) aau3 拗

3. 古代漢語通假字的異讀而見於本港中小學語文教材者。例如：

   3736 說　(1) syt8 雪　說話　(古)同悅
   (2) soey3 稅　游說

4. 古代專有名詞的異讀而見於本港中小學語文教材者。例如：

2075 氏 si6 是　　　(古民族名) dzi1 支　氏

委員會針對小學語文教師課堂朗讀語文教材的需要而研訂字音。因此《讀音表》不收錄只出現於口語的俗音，如 1652 擁 yung2 不收 ung2；2039 歪 wai1 不收 me2。變調語音亦不收，如 1191 座 dzo6 不收 dzo2。至於 1169 平 ping4 有字典音 peng4 的(如物價好平)，《讀音表》不收後者的讀音，因為語文教材不會用方言擬寫，而粵方言中的物價好「平」，書面語應該是「便宜」。

六、讀音研訂的重要

羅忼烈教授和單周堯博士在《常用字廣州話讀音表》前言中說得好，現把原文引錄於下，作為本文的結語。

「廣州話的訂音，也有許多學者贊成約定俗成。問題是，哪些音我們接受，認為是約定俗成；哪些音我們不接受，認為是誤讀。「刊物」的「刊」，讀 [hɔn˥] 還是 [hɔn˧˥]？「綜合」的「綜」，讀 [tʃʊŋ˧] 還是 [tʃʊŋ˥]？這對小學教學來說，尤其重要，因為小學生比較單純，如果同一個字，不同的老師有不同的讀音，將會給他們造成困擾。《常用字廣州話讀音表》的出版，將會減少異讀，這無論對小學語文教學或粵音規範化來說，都是一件很有意義的事。」

附註：

⑴ 《常用字廣州話讀音表》，香港教育署語文教育學院中文系編，何國祥主編，香港政府印務局印刷及發行，1990 年初版，十六開本，310 頁，定價港幣 60 元。

⑵ 《粵音韻彙》重排本，黃錫凌著，中華書局香港分局出版，1987 年(初版 1941 年)。
《辭淵》，施甫鑫、茅瑩甫主編，華通公司出版，1986 年(初版 1948 年)，香港。
《中文字典》，喬硯農編著，香港華僑語文出版社，1984 年(初版 1963 年)。
《同音字彙》，余秉昭司鐸著，光華圖書出版公司，1982 年(初版 1971 年)，香港。
《中華新字典》，中華書局香港分局出版，1986 年(初版 1976 年)。
《李氏中文字典》，李卓敏編，香港中文大學出版社，1980 年。
《廣州音字典》，饒秉才主編，廣東人民出版社，1983 年，廣東。

⑶ 以下字例讀音仍用原書注音系統，只有《粵音韻彙》的聲調改用數字 1 至 9 表示。

⑷ 「常用字廣州話讀音研究」由香港教育署語文教育學院中文系下列成員於 1987 年 4 月開始工作：
1. 統籌者：何國祥
2. 統籌助理：吳鳳平(鄭崇楷於 1988 年 7 月至 1989 年 4 月吳小姐進修期間擔任統籌助理工作)
3. 工作小組成員：李學銘、何國祥、姜貝玲(1987 年 4 月至 1988 年 8 月)、鄭佩芳、唐唐秀玲、劉關之英、梁燕冰、陳蘇潔玉、鄭崇楷、吳鳳平

⑤ 工作小組根據註②所列七種常用字典、詞典或韻書找出有爭論的讀音，供委員會討論。

⑥ 七種工具書間的讀音分歧，可分八類，加上不見於七種資料的委員會建議讀音，便成下列九類有爭論的讀音：

1. 聲母歧異（例如第一節的例1、例2和例3）
2. 韻母歧異（例4、例5和例6）
3. 聲調歧異（例7和例8）
4. 聲、韻均異（例9）
5. 聲、調均異
6. 調、韻均異
7. 聲、韻、調均異（例10）
8. 破讀與否不一
9. 不見於七種資料的建議讀音

上述資料經整理後，如有需要，將於稍後發表。

⑦ 「常用字廣州話讀音委員會」於1988年1月成立，至1989年8月期間共召開十一次會議。委員會成員，包括院外和院內人士：

顧問：羅忼烈教授　（香港大學，澳門東亞大學）
委員：陳志誠先生　（香港城市理工學院）
　　　張日昇博士　（香港理工學院）
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　　　余迺永博士　（香港中文大學）
　　　陳煒良博士　（語文教育學院）
　　　鄭崇楷先生　（語文教育學院）
　　　何國祥先生　（語文教育學院）
　　　李學銘博士　（語文教育學院）
　　　吳鳳平小姐　（語文教育學院）

⑧ 三種漢字頻率統計是：

1 《國民學校常用字彙研究》，國立編譯館，1967年，台北。
2 《現代漢語頻率詞典》中的《漢字頻度表》，北京語言學院語言教學研究所編，北京語言學院出版社，1986年，北京。
3 《香港初中學生中文詞彙研究》中的《常用字表》香港教育署教育研究處編，香港政府印務局，1986年，香港。

⑨ 第一節例3「衷心」的「衷」是其中一字。

漢語拼音SCRABBLE──教學設計

設計：陳憶崙(CS902學員)
導師：何國祥

1. 前言

這並非一份專題研究，只是嘗試將一個現成的英語拼字遊戲──SCRABBLE應用於普通話語音知識教學的輔助活動。

2. 目的

利用學生已有的SCRABBLE遊戲經驗，尋求作最少的改動(包括遊戲規則及器具)，進行漢語拼音練習，藉遊戲提高同學學習普通話的興趣。

3. 遊戲規則

經審閱後，發覺英語SCRABBLE規則幾可全部移用於漢語拼音SCRABBLE，惟以下各條須作若干修訂：

3.1 英語SCRABBLE以單字為造字單位，惟基於下開原因，漢語拼音SCRABBLE應同時採納單字及雙字詞作為造字單位：

3.1.1 英語單字的字義既與中文的單字字義相同，許多時亦即中文的雙字詞語。

3.1.2 英語SCRABBLE規則規定倘能將手上七塊字母於同一次全部置於母板上造成一字或多字，除原有應得分外另加50分；而漢字單字拼音最長也只是6字母(例：CHUANG，窗、牀、闖、愴)。

3.2 英語SCRABBLE規則規定所有由大寫開始的專有名詞不可接納。中文基本上沒有「大寫」的特質，惟其精神則須保留，即是地名、人名、國名等不予採納。

4. 母板(器具)

母板可一物兩用，不必作任何改動。

5. 字母塊(器具)

5.1 取消英文的「V」，加入漢語拼音的「Ü」。

5.2 由於同一字母在英語及漢語的常用率明顯差異，因此個別字母帶分額應根據漢語字母的常用率作出調整。標準是：常用率愈高，則帶分額愈低，反之亦然。詳見附表。

5.3 基於5.2所述原因，個別字母應佔塊數多寡亦應根據漢語字母常用率作出調整；常用率愈高，則佔塊數愈多，反之亦然，詳見附表。惟不論如何調整，其總塊數應為100，以使SCRABBLE之字母塊可一物兩用，而毋須另行製作。

英語SCRABBLE				漢語拼音SCRABBLE			
字母	常用率①	帶分額	塊數	塊數	帶分額	常用率②	字母
E	12.68	1	12	12	1	13.75	I
T	9.78	1	6	9	1	11.40	N
A	7.88	1	9	9	1	10.46	A
O	7.76	1	8	8	1	7.96	U
I	7.07	1	9	6	1	7.47	E
N	7.06	1	6	6	1	6.91	H
S	6.34	1	4	6	1	6.67	G
R	5.94	1	6	4	1	5.98	O
H	5.73	4	2	4	2	3.33	D
L	3.94	1	4	4	2	3.32	S
D	3.89	2	4	4	2	3.22	Y
U	2.80	1	4	3	2	2.90	Z
C	2.68	3	2	2	2	2.13	J
F	2.56	4	2	2	3	1.86	L
M	2.44	3	2	2	3	1.77	X
W	2.14	4	2	2	3	1.64	B
Y	2.02	4	2	2	3	1.59	N
G	1.87	2	3	2	4	1.34	T
P	1.86	3	2	2	4	1.24	C
B	1.56	3	2	2	4	1.24	M
V	1.02	4	2	2	5	1.02	Q
K	0.60	5	1	1	8	0.98	R
X	0.16	8	1	1	8	0.86	F
J	0.10	8	1	1	10	0.65	K
Q	0.09	10	1	1	10	0.33	P
Z	0.06	10	1	1	10	0.06	Ü
BLANK		1	2	2	0		
			100	100			

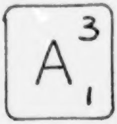
①DEWEY 1903　②何國祥 1976《漢語常用音素之研究》

6. SCRABBLE字母塊一物兩用(即適用於英語及漢語拼音遊戲)的建議

6.1 字母合用，塊數合用，帶分額合用，不必修改。

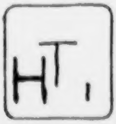
6.2 字母合用，塊數合用，帶分額不合用，則可用紅筆在其右上角寫上分額。

例：



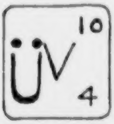
6.3 字母不合用，帶分額合用，則可用紅筆在其左旁寫上漢語拼音字母。

例：



6.4 字母不合用，分額不合用，則須一併修改如6.2，6.3。

例：



何國祥註：也可在字母塊後面用紅筆寫上漢語拼音字母及分額，然後將字母塊置於布袋中，玩時着學生伸手入布袋內抽取字母塊應用。

7. 聲調

為減少技術問題及提高初學漢語拼音同學的學習興趣，故聲調因素不予考慮。

8. 漢語拼音SCRABBLE舉例

	放置母板字母	所造之字詞	
8.1	WOMEN	WOMEN	我們
8.2	K WOMEN N	KEN	肯

K
8.3 WOMEN
N
GUANG

KENG	坑
GUANG	光

K
8.4 WOMEN
NI
GUANG
N
A
I

NIUNAI	牛奶
NI	你

K
8.5 WOMEN
ZHA NI
GUANG
N
A
I

ZHA	炸
WA	蛙

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語文教育學院出版之中、英文教師手冊可於中環郵政局大廈政府刊物銷售處購買。

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Volume 9 of ILEJ will be published in December 1992. Contributions will be welcomed. They should be sent to the editors before 30 June 1992 at the following address:

The Editors (English/Chinese): ILEJ,
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Articles should be approximately 4 000 words in length. An English style-sheet is attached on the next page for your reference. A brief abstract in the same languages as the articles should be included. Book reviews will also be welcome. Further information about the ILEJ may be obtained from Ms Madeleine LAU. Tel.: 803 2415.

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《語文教育學院學報》主要刊載有關語文教學、語文應用、語文研究的學術論文。來稿如用中文撰寫，請閱下列說明：

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二、字數宜在四千至八千之間。

三、引文請註出處，圖表、音標、古文字，外文等，務請繪寫清楚。

四、編輯顧問及委員會對來稿有刪改權，不願者請註明。

五、來稿請一式兩份，並附姓名、任職機構、通訊地址、電話，以便聯絡。

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醫院道二號
香港教育署語文教育學院
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5. Single inverted commas should be reserved for:
    a. A distancing device by the author (e.g. This is not predicted by Smith's 'theory'...).
    b. A method of highlighting the first mention of terms specially coined for the paper.
6. Double inverted commas should be reserved for verbatim quotations.
7. The first page should contain the title of the article at the top of the page, in bold capitals, with the name of the author(s) and institution(s) immediately below, all aligned with the left margin. A reasonable amount of blank space should separate these from the start of the text. Headings and sub-headings should also be aligned at the left.
8. Tables and diagrams should each be numbered sequentially and their intended position in the text should be clearly indicated. Diagrams should be on separate sheets. Capitals should only be used for the initial letter of the word Table or Diagram and for the first word in the following sentence (e.g. Table 2. Distribution of responses).
9. Footnotes should not be used. Reference in the text should be to author's name, year of publication and, wherever applicable, page or pages referred to (e.g. This is refuted by Smith (1978a: 33-5). However, several authors take a different view (Chan 1978:13; Green 1989)').
10. Notes required as explanation should be indicated by superscript numerals in the body of the article and should be grouped together in a section headed NOTES (in capitals) at the end of the text. The number and quantity of notes should be kept to a minimum.

11. References should be listed in alphabetical order in a section headed 'References', immediately following the NOTES section.
12. In cases of joint authorship, the name of the main author should be placed first. Where each author has taken an equal share of the work, the names should be sequenced alphabetically. The fact that the names are in alphabetic order may, if so desired, be pointed out explicitly in a note.
13. Journal articles should be referenced in the following way: Oller, J.W. and Streiff, V. 1975, 'Dictation: A test of grammar-based expectancies,' *English Language Teaching Journal* 30(1):25–36.
14. Books and pamphlets should be referenced in the following way: Foss, B. (ed.) 1974. *New Perspectives in Child Development.* Harmondsworth: Penjuin
15. Articles in books should be referenced in the following way: Kvan, E. 1969. 'Problems of bilingual milieu in Hong Kong: Strain of the two language system.' In *Hong Kong: A Society in Transition,* edited by T.C. Jarvie and J. Agassi, pp. 327–343. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

1178

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1183

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Volume 9 1992

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語文教育學院學報

一九九二年

第九期

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目錄 CONTENTS

		Page
文　琴	思維品質與語文教學	9
李家樹	從「齊整」「整齊」「歡喜」「喜歡」説起	14
周繼聖	簡論詩歌朗誦中的形象樹立問題	17
秦　湘	寬泛教學——相對精細而言的教與學方式	22
陳基藩	「短語」還是「詞群」	26
陳啟英	在雙語教學中應對不同文化進行比較	31
張日昇	香港中文閱讀水平研究初步報告	35
張　旭	語文水平的評估與實現	48
謝世涯 **蘇世禎**	以完形程序法探測新加坡學生掌握華文的能力	54
John Harris	Supporting Curriculum Change	62
Stephen Andrews	And so to B.Ed—The University of Hong Kong Bachelor of Education Programme	71
Amy B.M. Tsui	Classroom Discourse Analysis in ESL Teacher Education	81
Lily Leung	A Goal-Directed Thinking Framework for Decision Making in Language Curriculum Renewal	97
Christopher F. Green	The Language Improvement Component of E.S.L. Teacher Education Programmes: Rationale and Design	108
Roger Berry	Teaching and Learning Relative Clauses in English	117
John Fullilove	The Tail That Wags	131
Peter Falvey	Teachers of English, Technology and the Future	148

1185

匯報 REPORTS AND SUMMARIES

Page

921 期中學語文教師復修課程小組設計介紹 159

Action Research Report Summaries by ILE English Refresher Course Participants:

1. An Aesthetic Dimension Module for Key Stage Three 164
2. Implementing Process Writing in a F. 3 Classroom 171
3. A Writing Programme for Primary 2 177
4. Language Enrichment Through Audio and Visual Materials 187
5. Learning English in an Interesting Way Through English Newspapers in Lower Secondary Classes 191
6. Widening Students' Interest in Reading English Newspapers Through Classroom Activities 194
7. Improving Discussion Skills Through Feedback 200
8. Raising the Level of Participation in Discussions in Senior Forms 206

Vivienne Yu The Hong Kong Extensive Reading Scheme in English (HKERS)—Report on the First Year of Implementation 210

前言

第九期《語文教育學院學報》共有學術論文十七篇，分為中文、英文兩輯。除學術論文外，還有「匯報」和「通訊」兩項，內容是有關語文教學設計的簡報或語文資訊，目的在使《學報》既能維持向來重視學術水平的傳統，又能與中、小學的語文教師較為接近。

本期中文論文共有九篇，排列次序，原則上按作者的姓氏筆畫作先後：筆畫少的在前，筆畫多的在後。九篇論文的內容，可約略分為幾類。有關語文教學的文章有兩篇：文琴的《思維品質與語文教學》，強調了培養思維品質的重要，認為語文教師既要增強「思維意識」，又要在聽說讀寫訓練過程中，對學生有計畫、有步驟地進行思維訓練的滲透和強化；秦湘的《寬泛教學——相對精細而言的教與學方式》，提出了這樣的主張：為了幫助學生從口頭和書面的材料中提取信息的規則和方法，掌握理解、表達技巧，養成良好的理解、表達習慣，教師在精細教學的過程中，必須同時進行寬泛教學。有關詞語方面的文章有三篇：李家樹的《從「齊整」「整齊」「歡喜」「喜歡」說起》，是一篇談論詞匯運用的文章，內容主要討論以並列結構構成雙音節詞的顛倒使用問題；陳啟英的《在雙語教學中應對不同文化進行比較》，指出在雙語教學中，詞語教學要聯繫社會心理和文化背景，同時要向學生分析、對比、挖掘、揭示詞語的內涵意義；陳基藩的《「短語」還是「句群」》，是一篇探討語法單位的文章，作者的意見是：把小於句子大於詞的語法單位稱為「詞群」，比稱為「短語」更有優越性和生命力。周繼聖的《簡論詩歌朗誦中的形象樹立問題》，提出了朗誦者必須在朗誦中樹立獨特和諧的形象；要實現這一點，朗誦者應具備下列三條件：判斷作品形象性的能力；對作品形象的感受能力；朗誦者表現感受的能力。有關語文水平評估的文章有三篇：張日昇的《香港中文閱讀水平研究初步報告》，內容主要分三部分：(甲)研究方法，(乙)香港中文閱讀水平在國際上的地位，(丙)香港中文閱讀水平與社會語言態度的關係；張旭的《語文水平的評估與實現》，主要就如何建立語文水平、如何評價語文水平、語文教育應該怎樣釐訂目標等問題，提出一些看法和設想；謝世涯、蘇世禎的《以完形程序法探測新加坡學生掌握華文的能力》，內容是報告了他們怎樣用測試方式，來探測新加坡中學畢業生的字詞辨識能力和閱讀理解能力。

本期英文稿共有八篇，主要內容是從不同角度來討論有關課程改革的問題。這些論文包括：夏理思 (John Harris) 的《課程改革的支持》；安德魯 (Stephen Andrews) 的《香港大學教育學士課程的開辦》；徐碧美 (Amy B.M. Tsui) 的《ESL師資培訓教室話語分析》；梁瑞琼 (Lily Leung) 的《語文課程改革中的以目標主導思考規範的決定》；祈敬暉

(Christopher F. Green) 的《ESL教師培訓課程中語文改進單元的精神與設計》；伯利 (Roger Berry) 的《英語中關係分句的教與學》；傅理立 (John Fullilove) 的《擺動的尾巴——考試制度對課程內容的影響》，范理衞 (Peter Falvey) 的《英語教師、科技與未來》。

FOREWARD

The ninth issue of ILEJ contains seventeen articles, nine written in Chinese and eight written in English. The articles are followed by a section of reports and summaries which reports on action research projects designed by ILE refresher course participants and recent and ongoing activities in and around the Institute. Besides maintaining a good standard in the journal's academic and professional discussions, we also aim at establishing a close link with primary and secondary teachers of English and Chinese. The Chinese section contains nine articles which are arranged by the number of strokes in the characters of the authors' surname. The articles deal with a variety of topics. The two articles concerning language teaching are from Wen Qing and Qin Xiang. Wen Qing emphasizes the importance of developing the quality of thinking. Teachers should promote the concept of thinking and should carry out the training of thinking gradually in the teaching of reading and writing. Qin Xiang introduces the concept of extensive teaching. There are three articles about vocabulary. Li Jia Shu's article is a discussion on the differences between 'qi zheng' (齊整) and 'zheng qi' (整齊); 'xi huan' (喜歡) and 'huan xi' (歡喜). It is a discussion of the utilization of vocabulary. Chen Qi Ying points out that in a bilingual situation, the aspect of social psychology and cultural background should be considered when teaching vocabulary. It is suggested that various methods can be used to explain the internal meanings of the words. Chen Ji Fan's article discusses the units in syntax. He recommends that the unit which is smaller than a sentence should be called 'ci qun'. Zhou Ji Sheng points out that in order to establish a special and harmonized image, the recitator should have the strength expression and impression of the image of the recital materials. There are three articles concerning the assessment of language standard. Cheung Yat Sing studies the standard of reading in Chinese. Zhang Xu's theme is on how to establish and evaluate the standard of language. Chia Shih Yar and Soh Kay Cheng report on how they predict Singapore students' Chinese comprehension by using cloze procedures.

The articles in the English section follow the theme of curriculum renewal from a variety of points of view. *John Harris* offers some challenging thoughts on in-service training for teachers in the context of a major curriculum initiative. Although based on his experience with teachers in England working on the implementation of the National Curriculum, his paper, as he points out, has much that is relevant to the changes current and to come in Hong Kong. *Stephen Andrews* looks at the impact of Education

Commission Report No. 5 on the development of new B.Ed courses at Hong Kong University. He describes both the content and the structure of the new degree programmes and highlights the enormous challenge set by the Report in upgrading the status of primary teachers.

No curriculum change will work without skilled teachers to implement it. Classroom interaction is a crucial area of teaching and learning whatever the content of the cirriculum. *Amy Tsui* shows in an eminently clear and well illustrated article how teachers' insights into classroom interaction can be deepened and made more systematic by a judiciously selected and mediated analytical framework—in this case the Initiation/Response/Feedback framework first proposed by *John Sinclair* and Malcolm Coulthard. *Lily Leung* sees the issue of Language Curriculum Renewal (LCR) as a problem that needs defining with some precision before solutions can be proposed. She offers a framework for achieving such precision and then considers the processes for making appropriate decisions about change. *Christopher Green* presents a rationale and design for a language improvement component developed to meet the needs of teachers on post-experience Refresher Courses. *Roger Berry* also deals with a highly specific aspect of curriculum renewal—the teaching of the relative clause. He shows that the problem is evident not so much in mistakes made but in the widespread avoidance of such structures in the writing of English language learners in Hong Kong.

Hong Kong, as some critics argue, presents a case of the exam tail wagging the education dog. *John Fullilove* focuses on how the public examination of English language affects the content, teaching methods and learning strategies of the classroom.

In the final article *Peter Falvey* considers the impact of Information Technology on the teaching of English in Hong Kong schools. He suggests practical ways to help teachers overcome their fears of the computer and describes some of the advanced facilities that can be expected eventually to make an impact on ELT.

The last section is devoted to reports on small-scale pieces of Action Research carried out by participants on Refresher Courses at the Institute of Language in Education. This section is particularly encouraging since it shows reflective thinking and good classroom practice going hand-in-hand with a developing understanding of how to make curriculum renewal (in this case TTRA) a living reality in the classroom. This is true also of the interim report on the Extensive Reading Scheme by *Vivienne Yu*. This project is already having a great impact on the participating schools. We anticipate further reports of good progress.

An Appreciation

This edition of ILEJ is the last one to be co-edited by Madeleine Lau, who has been promoted and posted to another section of the Education Department. She has done more than anyone to develop the Journal to its present highly regarded status. We are pleased that she has agreed to continue to contribute to its further development as one of our group of editorial advisers.

思維品質與語文教學

文琴
山西高校聯合出版社

一位受歡迎的電視節目主持人，不僅以其高雅的氣質、美好的形象、流暢的語言、自如的動作吸引觀眾，而他(她)恰如其分的應變，天衣無縫的銜接，更引人注目，使整個節目珠聯璧合，觀眾得到完美的藝術享受。他們的成功除其它種種因素外，個人的素質，尤其是良好的思想品質是極其重要的條件。一位傑出的外交官，一位優秀的教師，一位有作為的企業家，一位能幹的律師……，他們的成功也無不如此。

一個人的素質包含多方面，文化素養、道德人品、知識結構、智力能力、思維品質等等。這多方面相互滲透，互為補足，而思維品質則起著促進或制約的作用。本文不準備就其關係來展開論述，僅想就思想品質與語文教學這個題目談談自己的見解，以期與同行們取得共識。語文教學以往通常提抓好聽說讀寫訓練，近些年大家在教學實踐中逐步認識到聽說讀寫這個系統整體是以思維為核心的，要提高教育的整體水平，提高每個學生的智力和能力，思維訓練、思維品質的培養與形成是十分重要、不容忽視的。我想從思維品質與語文教學這個側面進行探討，無非是希望在語文教學實踐中能有意識地強化思維訓練和思維品質的培養，以開發學生的智能潛力，全面優化學生的素質。

探討思維品質與語文教學的關係，先要明確思維品質的內含。思維是人的心理活動過程，是通過語言對客觀事物或者是為了解決某一理論問題或實際問題而進行的分析、綜合、比較、抽象和概括，思維的形式是概念、判斷和推理。思維按其發展水平的不同，按其過程和形式的不同，可分為感知運動思維，具體形象思維和抽象邏輯思維。本文所言及的思維品質即指思維的條理性、周密性、靈活性、深刻性、創造性和批判性等。至於說到思維品質、思維能力、思維水平，筆者認為其實質是一個，只是從不同的角度反映思維的過程和結果。良好的思維品質，或很強的思維能力，或很高的思維水平並不是生而有之，而是靠後天的培養和訓練。

思維借助內部語言進行。思維水平的提高靠語言的內化，而語言能力的提高則是由語言的外化開始的。剛學講話的孩子，就有語言逐步外化的過程，孩子漸漸長大，一天天成熟，要學會思考和處理問題，就有了語言又逐步內化的過程。由內而外，再由外而內，周而復始，是提高語言能力、提高思維水平的過程。

語言和思維的密不可分，是思維品質與語文教學有著密切聯繫的原由，當然思維品質的培養與形成絕不是單單只依靠語文一門課，其它課程特別是數學課對思維品質的形成也起著重要作用。然而，語文學科是基礎工具課，語言教育是其主要內容，提高語言的理解能力和表達能力是語文教學的重要任務。語言又是思維物質外殼，因此，語文教學對思維水平的提高，對思維品質的形成更為直接和重要，正如哲學家培根說的，「閱讀使人充實，會談使人敏捷，寫作與筆記使人精確，史鑒使人明智，詩歌使人巧慧……邏輯與修辭使人善辯。」因此，在語文教學中應該強化思維訓練。

加強思維訓練，培養良好的思維品質，這既符合優良的教學傳統，也適應現代化社會和教育發展的要求。兩千多年前孔子就提出「不憤不啟，不悱不發」，主張讓學生多思考，不到苦想而想不出，不到想說而說不出的時候，不要去開導他。孔子思想的繼承者後來又提出「道而弗牽，強而弗抑」，認為啟發而不做結論才叫善教。古希臘思想家蘇格拉底也採用「問答式」來激發學生積極思考，探求真理，可見古代中外教育家都把啟發思維放到極其重要的位置。今天是科技高速發展信息時代，要提高綜合國力和國家的文明程度，需求智能型人才。現代教育理論認為，教師的中心任務主要是引導學生充分注意知識的發生和發展，努力在思維與知識之間給學生創造一種不平衡，促其去探求答案，在獲得新知識的同時提高智能，提高思維水平。

在語文教學中強化思維訓練，首先必須強化每個語文教師的「思維意識」，力求懂得一些心理學、思維學知識。必須意識到語文教學的全過程，也是思維訓練的全過程，培養良好的思維品質不僅是教學方法的改進和課堂結構的改變，而是教育思想的轉變。思維訓練需要從整體上進行全盤的計劃和周密的安排，需要結合青少年心理發展的規律，在語文教學的整個過程中分階段有步驟地進行。筆者認為有沒有這種「強化意念」是至關重要的。

在語文教學中如何強化思維訓練，培養良好的思維品質呢？

某校根據中學生心理發展的特點統籌安排，分別在高、初中一、二年級開設系列思維訓練課，有層次有步驟地進行思維訓練。初一年級進行概念、判斷等思維訓練，重點培養形象思維的準確性和豐富性。初二年級結合說明文教學，進行思維順序的訓練，培養思維的條理性。高中階段著重進行以發散思維和求異思維為核心的訓練，培養思維的創造性。根據我國心理學關於初二年級是思維發展的關鍵時期的研究成果，該校對思維系列訓練又進行了調整，初一年級進行初級思維訓練，初二年級進行創造性思維訓練，高中階段著重培養抽象思維和辯證思維能力。筆者認為，中學階

段是青少年思維迅速發展的時期，抽象邏輯思維開始形成，逐步定型，走向成熟。成熟前思維發展變化的可塑性大，抓住這一關鍵時期進行全面、系統的系列思維訓練，對智力的開發、對人才的成長具有重大意義。這種按青少年思維發展規律，緊密結合語文教學內容，由低級到高級，由簡單到複雜，由形象到抽象的訓練程序，確實給人以啟發。目前能這樣做的，從全國來看還是鳳毛麟角。不過，有意識地在閱讀和寫作教學中，通過聽說讀寫加強思維的單項或多項的訓練，探索培養思維品質的途徑卻大有人在。

閱讀教學過程中，學生的思維是多種多樣的，有形象思維與抽象思維，有求同思維與求逆思維，有分析思維與直覺思維，有順向思維與逆向思維，教師必須溝通多種渠道，在信息的相互交換中去啟迪、誘發、激勵學生的學習。有的教師為強化思維訓練，注意抓好五個環節。第一環節入題，力求新穎生動，為整堂課思維的開展奠定良好的基礎。第二環節提示，為思維定向，整體或疑難點的提示、入題、提示是思維的醞釀，定向階段。第三環節質疑，組織學生提出疑問，既依賴思維，又能使思維指向集中，從而促進思維的開展。必要時，教師還可設疑，誘發學生開動腦筋，積極思維。第四環節研討，教師的作用主要是導向、鼓勵、點撥、啟發學生尋求思路、方法和結論。質疑、研討是思維的開展和高潮階段。第五環節總評是強化階段，著重分析分歧較大的問題，闡明原因，進一步強化學生的思維。還有的教師則利用課堂上的每一個環節展開思維訓練，在引導學生探索課題與內容的關係時，緊扣課題組織進行更換題目，試擬題目，扣題構思等練習，提高學生闡釋和概括的思維能力。在講解詞語時，根據漢字的表義特點，組織辨字釋詞練習、擴詞、擴句練習、置換句中詞語的練習，不僅鞏固了基礎知識，加強了知識深度，而且學到了科學的學習方法，能夠觸類旁通、舉一反三，同時，鍛鍊了思維的靈活性，培養了發散思維。而在分析課文時，可有內容聯想訓練，表現手法變量訓練，質疑探究訓練，在這些練習中，教師可相機引導，積極培養學生思維的批判性和創造性。

另有一些教師的某一思維形式有側重地進行訓練，如對超前思維、對立思維、模糊思維、檢索思維等思維形式的單項訓練。超前思維具有靈活性、批判性、創造性的特徵，有經驗的教師往往採用推理、豐富想象的訓練方式，注意引導學生做好超前準備，在學生自讀時設計一些思考性問題引導學生，讓學生邊讀邊想，將原有知識與經驗進行加工組合，既加深對課文的理解，又達到了提高超前思維能力的目的，同時積極引導學生自己發現問題自己解決問題，對立思維在推斷詞語大意中有重要作用，教師即通過推斷詞語大意的練習，訓練學生的對立思維。例如，學生不理解「彰

善癉惡」的「癉」是甚麼意思，教師從「善、惡」是反義詞相對，可推斷出「彰、癉」也是反義詞相對，「彰」是動詞，意表揚，即可推斷出「癉」也是動詞，意思和「彰」相對，即批評、斥責。以此類推，像左提右絜的「絜」，黨同伐異的「黨」，計窮力竭的「竭」，革故鼎新的「鼎」，等不易理解或容易混淆的詞語，都可以從相對的字詞中推測，揣摸出它的意思。這種訓練對立思維能力的練習，可以培養思維的靈活性。

還有的教師進行快速閱讀，快速作文的探索。不論是信息的輸入，還是信息的輸出，「快速」都能修改和完善大腦思維活動的程序，有利於開發學生思維的潛能，有利於形成思維的高效和靈活。

有的教師為了探索深層思維能力的培養，曾嘗試把深層思維具體化為寫作議論文的說理方法，像小中見大，聯想類比，由表及裏，探求因果，正反說理，辯證分析等，每次訓練前針對訓練內容和目的，結合課文和時文範例進行講解，讓學生模仿練習。訓練的核心是思辯，思辯是議論能力的「內核」，議論能力的高低決定維思辯能力的強弱，這多種說理方法的訓練，增強了思辯，也促進了思維辯證性，深刻性的形成，深層思維能力得到了提高。

教學實踐的經驗和人才成功的反饋都表明，口頭表達能力的訓練，對學生思維能力的提高更為有效。口頭表達的訓練形式是多種多樣的，討論會、辯論會、演講，即興演講、即興發言等等。辯論會是近年來受廣大青年喜愛的形式。分隊辯論很有特點，一是對同一命題有正反兩個方向的思考，二是要作即興發言，即興發言要根據現場情況，本隊立場，以及對方發言內容快速綜合分析，理出頭緒，形成觀點，邊想邊說，在思維和語言幾乎同步的狀況下作有條理的表述，這種訓練形式強度很大，具有明顯效果。其它形式的口頭表達訓練中，也是要迅速打開思路，思維高度集中，快速運轉，瞬間把信息處理的結果表達出來。日積月累能有效地培養學生思維的敏捷性、條理性、周密性、深刻性、廣闊性、靈活性、邏輯性等多種良好品質。

前面談到，語文教學較其它課程對思維水平的高低和詞滙豐富程度有直接聯繫，一個語文教師若不重視學生詞滙的積累，那就勢必影響學生思維的開掘。在課堂上教師如果採取「一言堂」「滿堂灌」的作法，學生的思維非但不能得到開發，難免將受到抑制。這就是說，語文教學對思維的開發和良好思維品質的形成，其作用不是單方面的，需從正反兩方面加以分析，有著正反兩方面的作用。在教學實踐中，當然應當揚正抑反。

那麼，究竟如何在語文教學中強化思維訓練，培養良好的思維品質呢？於上所述，筆者認為，開設系列的思維訓練固然很有開拓意義，鑒於目前師資條件尚不具備，局部的進行尚可，大面積推廣則不現實。思維訓

練零敲碎打地搞，不行；時有時無，也不行。從實際出發，還是應該增強語文教師的「思維意識」，在語文教學聽說讀寫訓練過程中，有計劃、有步驟地進行思維訓練的滲透和強化。若此，語言和思維水準當相輔相成，相得益彰，良好的思維品質亦會相伴而成。

筆者希望有更多的受歡迎的電視節目主持人、傑出的外交官、優秀的教師、有作為的企業家、能幹的律師等眾多的人才湧現出來，而他們成才的重要因素是得益於語文教學。

從「齊整」「整齊」「歡喜」「喜歡」說起

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在漢語語詞單音節向雙音節發展的過程中，以並列結構構成的雙音詞，它的詞素結合得還不穩固，經常可以顛倒使用，而意義上沒有甚麼不同。例如「齊整」「整齊」，就是由「同義詞素」採取位次顛倒的辦法形成的同義詞，當初是完全等義的：

入魏郡界，村落齊整如一。(《三國志·鄭渾傳》)
歎其軍陳齊整。(《三國志·袁渙傳》)
馬為整齊而斂諧。(《淮南子·覽冥訓》)

都是「有秩序、有條理、不淩亂」的意思。又如「歡喜」「喜歡」：

少齊在門，夫子歡喜。(《易林·家人之屯》)
接歡喜，合殷勤。(《史記·樂書》)
人鬼歡喜。(《後漢書·陳蕃傳》)
郊天告廟，神靈歡喜。(《韓昌黎集·元和聖德詩序》)
劉玢好《易》而不能精，與輅相見，意甚喜歡。(《三國志·管輅傳注》)
聞者北游，喜歡無量。(《文選·應璩與三從弟書》)
今日相樂，皆當喜歡。(《樂府·善哉行》)

都是「快樂、高興」的意思。詞素位次雖然變化了，詞的結構關係卻不改變，整個詞義也沒受影響。

這類詞素位次不夠穩定的詞，在現代漢語裏都叫做「同素詞」。同素詞的詞素不夠穩定，因而容易出現結構變體，並分化為一組組的等義同素詞。①古漢語中還保留着這種分化的痕迹，試看以下一段文字：

韓琬少負才華，長安中，為高郵主簿，使於都場，以州縣徒勞，率然題壁曰：「筋力盡於高郵，容色衰於主簿；豈言行之缺，而友朋之過歟？」景龍中，自亳州司戶應制，集於京，吏部員外薛欽緒考琬，策入高等，謂琬曰：「今日非朋友之過歟？」(劉肅：《大唐新語·舉賢》)

上文是「友朋」，下文是「朋友」，可見這類詞出現結構變體之容易。有時為了叶音押韻，也利用詞素位次的調整，來增強語言的音樂性：

余既不難夫離別兮，傷靈修之數化。(《楚辭·離騷》)

乘回風兮載雲旗，悲莫悲兮生別離，樂莫樂兮新相知。（《楚辭·九歌·太司命》）

故鄉隔兮音塵絕，哭無聲兮氣將咽；一生辛苦兮緣離別，十拍悲深兮淚成血。（蔡琰：《胡笳十八拍》）

號泣手撫摩，當發復回疑；兼有同時輩，相送告別離。（蔡琰：《悲憤詩》）

同是屈原、蔡琰的文章，為甚麼這裏用「離別」，那裏用「別離」呢？結合上下文不難看出，這是為了叶音押韻的需要。「離別」是常用詞，變為「別離」而長期保存下來，就成為一組等義同素詞了。

以並列結構構成的雙音詞，由於詞素可以顛倒而分化為一組組的等義同素詞。這些同素詞當初是完全等義的，到了現代漢語就起了變化。

「齊整」「整齊」一類的，依然是等義的，如「長久」可以說「久長」，「緊要」可以說「要緊」，「緩和」可以說「和緩」，「替代」可以說「代替」，「塵埃」可以說「埃塵」，「感情」可以說「情感」，「山河」可以說「河山」，「樣式」可以說「式樣」，等等。②

「歡喜」「喜歡」一類的，當初是完全等義的，後來「喜歡」派生出「喜愛、愛好」的意思，並基本上只使用於這個派生義。於是在使用派生義上便和「歡喜」成了近義詞。「搖動」和「動搖」原也是一組等義同素詞，如「那長老原是一頭水的，被那呆子搖動了……」（《西遊記》第三十八回）；「枝柯怕動搖。」（《紅樓夢》第五十回），都是「搖擺活動」的意思。今天「動搖」變成「不穩固、不堅定」的意思，總用來說明人的意志、立場，「搖動」仍是原義，只用於對物。

其它例子如「平和」「和平」、「氣力」「力氣」，變化大致一樣。「平和」「和平」當初都是「溫和、不猛烈」的意思，後來「和平」專指沒有戰爭的狀態，跟「太平」「清平」同義。「氣力」「力氣」當初都是綜合氣魄體力來說的，如「年紀大了，氣力（力氣）不如以前了」，後來「力氣」變成跟「脾氣」「膽氣」「勇氣」等詞同類，與「氣力」不同。③

這類以並列結構構成而詞素位次不夠穩定的同素詞，在語法上也有區別，如「生產」「產生」、「擔負」「負擔」，詞義相同又都是動詞，但是「生產」「擔負」常當作名詞使用，不應與「產生」「負擔」混同起來。

其實在意義上也有區別。「展開」是補充關係，「開」表示「展」的結果，所以後邊不能帶上「下去」；「開展」是並列的，含有持續的性質，所以後邊可以帶上「下去」。「到達」的賓語通常只限於地點，「達到」的賓語比較廣泛，多半是抽象性的名詞，如「理想」「目的」「要

求」「水平」「標準」等。在「我們希望公司今年的營業額可以達到去年的水平」這樣的句子裏，只能用「達到」，不能用「到達」。④

詞素相同而位次不同的詞不一定是等義詞，反而意義在顛倒之後跟沒有顛倒的相差很遠。例如「實現」顛倒成為「現實」，意義絲毫沒有關聯。「故事」跟「事故」、「計算」跟「算計」(謀畫的意思)、「女兒」跟「兒女」也是這樣。⑤

以並列結構構成而詞素位次不夠穩定的同素詞，之間的等義、近義、異義關係非常錯綜複雜，為了避免用詞不當，都是須要辨別清楚的。另外，還有些是規範化的對象，如「鬧熱」「橫蠻」「道地」等，因為已經有了比較固定的「熱鬧」「蠻橫」「地道」，都要盡量棄用。⑥

附註：

① 參武占坤、王勤：《現代漢語詞彙概要》(呼和浩特：內蒙古人民出版社，1983)，頁169。

② 這類等義同素詞的構詞方式，有些語法書管它叫做「互注造詞」。參孫常敍：《漢語詞彙》(長春：吉林人民出版社，1956)，頁246。

③ 「歡喜」「喜歡」一類的同素詞，也是「互注造詞」，不過，由於其中一個詞派生了新義，又算得上是「分化造詞」了。參前揭書，頁247-9。

④ 在語法和意義上有區別的並列結構同素詞，自然屬於「分化造詞」。其它以修飾結構構成的同素詞如「水井」「井水」、「人情」「情人」、「白雪」「雪白」、「黑漆」「漆黑」等，意義更明顯不同。

⑤ 「現實」跟「實現」一類的同素詞，實際上不是同一造詞的顛倒，而是不同的造詞。

⑥ 「鬧熱」等都是方言，須要規範。

《簡論詩歌朗誦中的形象樹立問題》

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詩歌是語言的藝術。詩歌朗誦是用口頭語言再現詩歌情思的表達形式。黑格爾說過，作為語言藝術的詩歌「能比任何其他藝術都更完滿地展示一個事件的全貌，一系列事件的先後承續，心情活動，情緒和思想的轉變以及一種動作情節的完整過程。」①據此可以說，詩歌朗誦是一種藝術地「展示」的口頭表達過程。

詩歌朗誦過程中的詩歌是時間的藝術。它用有聲語言，按照先後次序，把事物的形象展示在聽眾的想像之前。既然是有先後次序，朗誦就是一個綫性的語言的表達序列。既然是想像中的形象，這種形象就沒有可嗅、可觸、可視的性質。

有聲語言的綫性特性，使它在描摹物體的美特別是物體形象的和諧方面受到很大的限制。萊辛曾把繪畫和詩歌作過對比，他說：「物體美源於雜多部分的和諧效果，而這些部分是可以一眼就看遍的。所以物體美要求這些部分同時並列；各部分並列的事物既然是繪畫所特有的題材，所以繪畫，而且只有繪畫，才能模仿物體美。」但是，詩歌「只能把物體美的各因素先後承續地展出」，「這些因素，如果按先後次第去安排出來，就不可能產生它們在按並列關係去安排出來時所能產生的效果；在把它們歷數出來之後，我們縱使專心致志地回顧，也無法獲得一個和諧的形象。」②

筆者以為，萊辛的表述略有一點「智者的失誤」。繪畫不一定都是用「雜多部分的和諧效果」來表現物體美的。有很多繪畫祇使用簡練的綫條來構圖(如漫畫)，或者留下大量的空白來補托畫面的主體(如某些中國畫)。這些繪畫作品中的物體美不可能是「一眼就看遍」的，必須借助想像才能樹立起完滿、和諧的形象。至于萊辛所說的「在把物體美的各個因素先後承續地展出」之後，「在把它們歷數出來之後，我們縱使專心致志地回顧，也無法獲得一個和諧的形象」，這裏的「形象」指的是繪畫作品投在欣賞者心靈上的映象，詩歌語言當然不可能在心靈上造成這樣的映象。但是在一定的條件下，詩歌，確切地說，詩人口裏詩歌，朗誦時的詩歌，是可以在聽者的感性認識中樹立起一種獨特的和諧形象的。這種形象不是心靈對實物的「拍攝」結果，也不是實物構件在心靈中的機械組合。這種形象是詩歌朗誦者用想像和語言創造出來的，在理想的狀態下，它樹立在

朗誦者和聽眾的知覺中。作為朗誦行為的主導一方，朗誦者必須首先在自己的朗誦中樹立起獨特和諧的形象來。要實現這一點，朗誦者應該具備哪些條件呢？

筆者認為有三個必要條件：判斷作品形象性的能力，對作品形象的感受能力以及朗誦者表現感受的能力。

眾所週知，所謂形象，指的是文藝作品根據現實生活各種現象加以選擇、綜合所創造出來的具有一定思想內容和審美意義的具體生動的圖畫。文藝作品的形象主要是人物形象，其次也包括社會的、自然的環境和景物。作為文學作品的詩歌無疑是用語言來創造形象的。不一定所有的語言材料都能準確、鮮明、生動地塑造文學形象；不一定每一篇詩作都能使人想像出「具有一定思想內容和審美意義的具體生動的圖畫」。因此詩歌朗誦者首先必須判斷清楚某篇詩歌作品是否具有形象性；如果有，是否能夠被朗誦言語鏈接受。所謂朗誦言語鏈是指朗誦者的發話到聽者的受話的全過程。如果朗誦者所選擇的作品語言艱深晦澀，超出了主流聽眾的理解能力和感受能力，那麼這些聽眾就會自動停止受話，切斷言語鏈，朗誦者就等於作了無用功。這種情況在朗誦古代詩詞曲賦以及翻譯較差的外國詩歌時都可能發生。某些詩歌朗誦者常常假設聽眾可能讀過或聽過自己將要朗誦的詩作，這種假設的保險系數不一定很高，一旦聽眾從未讀過或聽過，而該篇詩作又晦澀難懂，那麼碰壁就在所難免了。鑒於此，筆者主張，朗誦者在判斷一篇詩作的形象性的時候，必須同時考慮語言的可接受性問題。假如詩作的語言有可能使朗誦言語鏈中斷，那麼，或是割愛，或者請作者修改，不能自己給自己的朗誦進程設置障碍。尤其需要指出的是：現在有很多詩歌不是聽的詩歌，而是看的詩歌，有些詩甚至要反復看若干遍才能領會詩人的宏旨。筆者建議，朗誦者最好不要把自己的青睞贈送給這樣的詩作；同時也建議詩人們多寫一些方便聽的詩歌。

判斷某篇詩作的形象性，首先要發現其中的顯性形象和隱性形象。顯性形象是詩作直接描寫、刻劃的對象。隱性形象則是詩作未加描寫但又存在於詩句中的形象。詩作所描寫的人物或物體都是顯性形象，這很容易發現，例如馬致遠的《天淨沙·秋思》中有八個顯性形象：枯藤、老樹、昏鴉、小橋、流水、人家、夕陽、斷腸人。隱性形象的發現則要費些思索。仍以這首小曲為例。假定「斷腸人」不是作者，那麼作者就是一個隱定形象；假定「斷腸人」就是作者本人，那麼隱性形象起碼包括作者佈滿憂傷的臉和茫然失神的眼睛。又如俄國葉賽寧的詩「夜」：「河水悄悄流入夢鄉。幽暗松林失去喧響。夜鶯的歌聲沉寂了，長腳秧雞不再歡嚷……」這裡的隱性形象顯然是漫步或仰臥在林間空地上怡然自得的詩人。

對於詩歌朗誦者來說，發現隱性形象甚至比發現顯性形象還重要。隱性形象往往是詩作敍事、抒情的主體，而朗誦者又往往是以主體的身分進

行表達的。如果朗誦者不能在心目中樹立起主體的形象，那麼他在朗誦時就很難投入，甚至會給人留下事不關己的印象。

判斷某篇詩作中包含幾個形象很容易作到，判斷有幾幅畫面可就不那麼容易了。有的詩全部詩句衹構成一幅畫，各個顯性形象成為它的細部或局部。有的詩可以分幾組，形成一套連環畫。朗誦時，對「單幅圖」，要照顧細部、局部與整體或全局的聯繫；對「連環畫」，則還要照顧各幅「畫」之間的聯繫。

如果說朗誦者判斷形象或畫面的數量還是一種鳥瞰的話，那麼感受形象或畫面的內蘊就是一種朗誦者與詩的融合。

朗誦者對作品形象的感受是一種設身處地的想像。朗誦者把自己變成作者，要求自己像詩人那樣去觀察、描寫人物、事物，像詩人那樣喜怒哀樂，去體味客觀對象的美與醜，去思考、挖掘各種形象之間的主觀或客觀聯繫……對作品描寫刻畫的具體形象，朗誦者通常使用兩種手法去想像：一種是感受對象物的屬性，一種是化身為對象物。

感受對象物的屬性比較容易實現。實物的外形、色彩、氣味、硬度、運動狀態，人物的身材、服飾、音容笑貌，環境的狀況、氣氛……都有自己的特定屬性，只要仔細思考，就不難發現或確定。這種發現或確定可以為朗誦時的形象塑造打下堅實的基礎，例如，日本新川和江的詩《歌》：「最初懷抱着孩子，從母親唇邊流出的歌，是這個世界第一優美的歌。它的撫慰，使遠處大海洶湧翻卷的鬃毛，變得柔順，它使星星點頭，使旅人回目。沉寂的山谷，被風遺忘了。蘋果樹，乾瘦的枝頭，也燃起紅亮的燈。不是如此，何必養育孩子？這，可愛的無邪；這，可愛的天真！」從這首詩裡可以感受到「母親」的幸福自豪，歌的自然、淳厚、富有感染力，海浪由桀傲不馴變得柔順服貼，星星由冷漠倔硬變為點頭微笑，憂郁的旅人頓生希望，枯萎的蘋果樹又紅花爭妍了……朗誦者只有感受到這些屬性，才能調動口語手段準確生動豐滿地塑造豐滿的形象。

化身為對象物，可以簡稱為「化象」。化象對詩作者來說是一個形象思維的創造過程；對朗誦者來說則是兩個過程：鑒賞和創作。

化象是文學創作的心理過程，它是典型的形象思維。作者把自己融進作品環境中去，與自然物神交，幻化成作品中的人物甚至實物。法國作家福樓拜曾經生動地介紹過他創作時的心理狀態：「寫書時把自己完全忘卻，創造什麼人物就過什麼人物生活。」「比如我今天就同時是丈夫和妻子，是情人和他的姘頭，我騎馬在一個樹林裡遊行……我覺得自己就是馬，就是風，就是他們倆的甜蜜的情話，就是使他們的填滿情波的眼睛的太陽。」郭沫若在談論他創作《女神》的體驗時也介紹過類似的情形：他衝出圖書館，在草地上翻滾，就好像躺在母親的懷抱裡，享受母親的愛撫

……至於與自然物的神交，在詩歌創作的過程中更是屢見不鮮。德國詩人艾興多夫(Josef von Eichendorff)的《月夜》，就是一篇妙用「物我合一」手法創作出來的佳作。「青天好像靜靜地吻過大地，她現在花容燦爛，夢沉沉地懷思。微風吹過原野，麥穗溫柔地波動，森林輕輕地低語，明星佈滿了夜空。我的心靈廣闊地舒展開它的羽翼，飛過靜靜的原野，彷彿向家園飛馳」。朗誦者可以想像到，詩人時而化成一棵花草，和大地美人一起接受青天的親吻；時而變成一股清風，拂過原野，搖曳麥穗，與森林傾談，與明星作伴；最後詩人的心靈也飛升起來，回歸到永恒的自然中去了。

總之，任何一位真正的詩人在塑造形象時都會使用化像的手法。那麼，朗誦者的化象是否和作者一致呢？由於經驗和修養的緣故，朗誦者在鑒賞詩作時可能像作者那樣去思維，也可能與作者的思維有所不同，但化象的方法是一定要使用的。否則不可能產生深層次體驗，而體驗不深，朗誦時形象就樹立不起來，或者顯得乾癟、蒼白。常常聽到有些朗誦愛好者感嘆：不知道為什麼，沒朗誦出味來！他們以為只是語言技巧問題，其實關鍵在於不會使用化象的方法去體驗、去想像。

朗誦者在化象鑒賞的基礎上進行朗誦前的二度創作。此時要作雙重的化象處理，朗誦者既化為詩人又化為詩人的對像物。在這樣一種「入迷」的狀態下，朗誦者再使用適當的有聲語言及態勢語言，就完全有可能推出一件詩歌朗誦佳作來。

朗誦者對詩作的形象有了深切的感受，卻不一定能如願以償地把它表現出來。成功的關鍵何在？有人以為成敗取決於發音是否標準，音色是否悅耳，節拍是否清晰等等。這些有可能影響詩歌朗誦的質量，但還不是起決定作用的因素。郭沫若的普通話並不標準，但他的朗誦讓聽眾歡騰；趙樸初的聲音並不悅耳，但他的朗誦令觀眾傾倒。至於節拍，也不是塑造形象的重要手段。那麼取得成功的關鍵何在呢？

綜合許多朗誦名家的成功經驗，筆者認為可以概括為幾點：聲音彈性的控制、氣息強弱疾徐的控制、語流旋律的控制以及語速、節奏的控制，這些都是朗誦外部技巧的基礎，稍有常識的朗誦愛好者都不可能不知道，但是要達到較高的水平，就很不容易。而朗誦名家之所以能夠出神入化，也正是由於他們的外部技巧達到爐火純青的緣故。

近年來筆者曾多次聆聽過十幾位朗誦高手的表演，每次都為他們富有彈性變化的聲音所傾倒。朗誦演員們在自己的本色聲音的基礎上，根據塑造形象的需要，恰當地設計音色，在言語中樞和情感意識的支配下實現音色，產生了聲情並茂的藝術效果。以姚錫娟、殷之光等名家為例，從他們的朗誦中可以明顯地聽到十幾、幾十種音色以及各種音色之間的過渡、變化。諸如頭音、喉音、胸音、前音、後音、實音、虛音、洪音、暗音、鼻

音、氣音、長音、促音、破音、顫音、笑音、泣音、吸氣音、切齒音等等。這些名家在音色變化、過渡方面的技巧更是令人拍手叫絕。姚錫娟能在作品情感細微而又頻繁的變化之處，準確自如地變化音色，各種音色之間的過渡圓轉自然，絕無刀砍斧鑿的痕迹。其他名家絕技，恕不詳述。

塑造形象當然要表現作者、作品人物和朗誦者本人的思想感情及其流動或運動、思想感情的色彩主要靠氣息變化來表現。關於氣息變化與思想感情色彩的關係，張頌有過概括的論述。例如「氣徐聲柔」表愛，「氣足聲硬」表憎，「氣沉聲緩」表悲，「氣滿聲高」表喜……等等。③誠然，這些並不是金科玉律，不過也反映了一般的表達規律。

詩歌朗誦時的情感情緒時而狂濤撲岸，時而微波蕩漾，時而放馬平川、時而攀登絕壁。用以表現的語流的旋律綫也就相應地或是斜升的直綫，或是略微起伏的波紋綫，或是高亢的平綫，或是大起大落的斷續綫……從語音學原理來看，這些語流旋律綫是由音節群的聲調、重音、次重音、輕音等聲音物質構成的。從發聲學原理來看，旋律綫，是音高、音強、音長等三要素有機結合的產物，它是連斷起伏取決於聲帶的合開張弛與氣息的強弱疾徐。朗誦名家們正是利用他們控制聲帶、氣息的技巧在朗誦的語流中創作了一條或幾條形狀各異的旋律綫，在語流旋律中把各種形象的神氣、風骨以及作者對形象的豐富情感展示在朗誦言語鏈中，它牽動聽眾內心的旋律綫，從而引起情感上的共鳴。

至於節奏變化在塑造形象中的作用，問題比較複雜。張頌把節奏歸納為六大類型：輕快型、凝重型、低沉型、高亢型、舒緩型、緊張型；並且正確地論述了節奏與基調的關係：「基調作為全篇作品總的思想感情的色彩和份量，作為理解與表達的和諧統一，必須通過節奏更好地顯露出來。節奏的類型與轉換方法，當然應該符合基調的統一和變化。同時，節奏的情狀如何，又會反過來給基調以重大影響。」④本文完全贊同張頌的觀點。把他的這個觀點用到詩歌朗誦中來也完全可以說明節奏在形象創造方面的作用。既然如此，本文就不再疊床架屋了。

綜上所述，要在詩歌朗誦過程樹立起完美的形象，朗誦者必須具備深厚的功力。他應該善於發現詩作中的形象類別，準備感受各種實物、環境、氣氛的代表屬性，運用化像的方法深切感受詩人、詩中人物的思想及其流動或運動，然後選用恰當的有聲語言去表現。只有這樣，才能創作出激動聽眾情懷的朗誦佳作來。

附註：

① 黑格爾《美學》第3卷下冊第五頁。
② 萊辛《拉奧孔．第16章．詩畫界限》第181頁。
③ 和④張頌《朗讀學》第13、14章。

寬泛教學——相對精細而言的教與學方式

秦湘
復旦大學

人類為維持機體的正常生理功能和勞動能力，需要從食物中取得各種營養素。營養物質的攝入不足，需要量增加，損失過多，吸收不良或不能充分利用，都可能造成營養缺乏的狀況。飲食習慣的不盡合理，食物結構的過於精細，營養成分的搭配不當以及某些維生素、粗纖維和粗製食品的匱竭，也會引起各種特殊的病症。出於同樣的機理，人們為維持自身正常的思維功能和交際能力，也必須從語文學習中吸收全能的營養。通觀語文運用中的各類不適應症，一般地也都與語文知識的貧乏，吸收面的過細過窄以及語文技能的不熟練、不完備直接相關。

長期以來，我們強調貫徹「少而精」的教學原則，精簡了一些不必要的、不切實際的、煩瑣重複的教學內容。在語文教學的實踐過程中，我們已經積累了有關精細教學的大量豐富經驗，並且形成了一整套精雕細刻的具體方法。教師已經習慣於用這樣的方法來教，學生也已經習慣於用這樣的方法來學。誠然，精細教學的優點應該予以充分的肯定。它可以為學生提供必要的語文知識、背景知識、典範的語文材料和語文實踐技能，也可以指導學生如何去吸收、掌握和運用有用的語文知識和技能。這對於培養學生深刻準確的理解能力，嚴密精當的表述技巧和奠定牢固扎實的語文基礎，具有至關重要的決定作用。但是，如果沉緬於精細的教學方法，則有可能束縛學生的思路，使他們習慣於只有通過分析、思辨才能理解、掌握和運用知識和技能。他們的視野和知識面得不到擴大，快速高效的語文技能得不到充分的訓練，造成反應緩慢的致命弱點。精細教學可以讓學生掌握所學語文本身的規律，但是並不能讓他們掌握在實際生活與工作中如何運用所學語文的規律。也就是說，它可以交給學生一定的語文能力，但是不能交給他們在實際中把語文作為實際工具運用的交際能力。學生學到的主要是教學語文，而不是實踐語文。事實已告訴我們，用這種教學方式培養出來的學生並不能適應現代社會對於語文人材的迫切需求。因此，精細教學不能全面反映語文教學的性質，只是語文教學的一個方面。為了幫助學生學習從口頭的語言材料和書面的文字中提取信息的規則和方法，掌握熟練的理解和表達技巧，養成良好的理解和表達習慣，我們在進行精細教學的過程中，必須同時進行寬泛教學。

甚麼是寬泛教學？寬泛教學是相對於精細教學而言的一種以時間和數量為主要目標，以面廣量大為主要特點的教學方法。它通過實踐讓學生大面積地吸收各種語文知識，運用一定的技巧和手段對學生進行聽、說、讀、寫技能的大運動量訓練，反映的迅速是其中的關鍵。從一定的意義上來講，寬泛教學是精細教學的必要的延伸、擴展和補充。寬泛教學幫助學生在實踐中掌握和運用精細教學中所學到的語音、詞匯和語法知識，通過反復接觸大量的語言文字材料和多樣化的使用形式，擴充詞匯量，熟悉理解和熟練表達各種類型的口語和書面語。寬泛教學也是對技術和速度的培養，幫助學生學習和操練各種技巧，養成流暢自如的表情達意習慣和及時迅速的思維反饋能力。寬泛教學同時是語文背景知識的補充。語文材料離不開背景知識，寬泛教學可以幫助學生通過語文材料的大面積接觸，開闊他們的視野，學到有關自然科學和人文科學的豐富知識。總起來說，可以概括為這樣一句話：訓練方法，提高速度，擴大知識面，增加詞匯量。

精細教學和寬泛教學是語文教學方法的兩個方面。語文教學應該有精泛之分，又應該精泛並舉。只有精以濟泛，泛以濟精，精泛相輔而行，才能培養出高水平的人材。但是，由於認識上和傳統習慣方面的原因，我們一直沒有很好地重視這個問題。事實上，無論是從現代化的要求還是從語文教學的規律來看，寬泛教學的必要性都是十分清楚的。

現代的社會一切都講求效益，崇尚速度。生產、經濟和科學技術的發展突飛猛進，傳播媒介高效神速，生活節奏也越來越快。求多、求快、求新、求變成了現代人的普遍心態。現代化的世界向語文教學提出了很高的要求，語文教學怎樣適應變化了的客觀實際？怎樣才能培養出既具有較強的語言文字能力，較寬的知識面，又能夠靈活處理問題的人材？有不少學生能成段地背誦精彩的名言，能模仿寫作一些漂亮的句段；但不能正確地理解長篇理論文章，不能流暢地撰寫有關的工作文件和簡短的評論文字，不能用得體的語言進行各種業務談判。許多以漢語作為第二語言的學生，不能大體理解漢語廣播、電視的內容；不會作寒暄以外較有內容的交談；不會進行較為正式的會談；不能及時迅速地瀏覽一般的報章雜誌，不能借助詞典閱讀文學作品和學術論文；不會書寫通順的信函、合同與報告。學生們在學校裏能順利地結束學業，合格地通過考試，但是畢業以後卻要重新學習，再度適應，有時候往往需要經過一個相當長的過程。事實告訴我們，單一的精細教學培養出來的學生不能很好地為社會實際服務。

語言是一種特殊的社會現象，有它自身許多特殊的地方。就拿現代漢語來講，它在語音、詞匯、語法等方面就都具有一系列的特點：樂音多，節奏性強，聲調有表意作用。詞匯豐富，構詞方式靈活多樣。詞序安排相當固定，量詞數目大。而語文學習又是一種複雜的智力活動，只有經過反

複不斷的操練，才能逐步增強思維能力，並且熟能生巧，真正掌握語言的特點。傳統的習慣方式容易忽視練習的數量，容易把學生的注意力僅僅集中在詞句和語法的規範上。假如首先強調數量，這就能一下子增加學生的訓練強度，從而使他們處於較為緊張的狀態；在最大的限度上調動他們的主觀能動性，激發他們的潛在學習願望。

質的提高一定要以量來保証。在進行寬泛教學時，必須強調數量，必須按照學生的水平層次作出數量的規定，以密集的方式進行技能訓練。在教學的每一個階段，都要對不同的訓練項目提出明確的定量要求。這個量包括時間、速度、字數、篇幅以及精泛比例等不同的方面。同時，也可以採用一些具體的檢測方法進行檢測。

傳統的教學方法先由教師詳細地傳授知識，強調的是應該「如何聽」、「如何說」、「如何讀」、「如何寫」，而不是「聽」、「說」、「讀」、「寫」的實踐。學生處於一種被動的地位。教師講了以後，學生只是為了應付教師而去「聽」、「說」、「讀」、「寫」。因此，學得很苦，質量很差，數量也很少。以聽力為例，教學的傳統做法是教師選用一篇聽力材料，讓學生逐字、逐句、逐段地聽，仔細反復地聽，然後再由教師進行詳盡的分析講解。當然，這也可以作為一種方式。但是，這種方式容易忽視聽的速度和數量，一學期或者一學年下來也聽不了多少內容。同時，這種方式容易使學生的注意力僅僅放在詞句和語法的理解上。教師講得很辛苦，到了下次再聽時，學生又可能產生許多問題。學生覺得反正教師會給自己作具體解釋的，所以聽時容易放鬆要求。其結果往往是教師講課講得很緊張，而學生聽課卻聽得很輕鬆。聽力是這樣，口語、閱讀和寫也同樣是這樣。

運用寬泛教學進行聽力訓練，首先要規定聽力材料的語速。一般來說，選擇每分鐘二百字的速度比較合適。每次上課都堅持用這個速度作定時定量的訓練，並且逐步增加訓練的難度和強度，使學生進入積極的學習狀態。在這樣的訓練中，對於一些學生聽不懂的細小之處可以暫時放過。聽力材料的語調要自然，不要誇張和強調。聽不懂的地方不要停下來解釋或再次重複。當然選用的材料必須適合學生的水平層次，也可以略高於學生的實際水平，開始的時候，學生會感到不習慣，會有種種不安。但堅持下來，習慣了以後，就會產生意想不到的效果。對於這樣的訓練，可以作一些檢查，也可以不作檢查等學生適應以後，一個階段，還可以讓學生聽一般人的談話，還可以讓學生聽略帶方音的不太標準的語音等等。在課外，則要求學生收聽、收看廣播和電視中的天氣預報、時事新聞及文學、戲劇、電影節目。對有些內容要求能聽懂大概，有些只要求能夠知道屬於哪個方面就可以了。

同樣地，運用寬泛教學進行口語訓練也要有時間和數量的保証。每次上課每個學生都必須作三分鐘連續的說話練習。這種練習可以有隨意和不隨意兩種形式。隨意的方式內容不論，國家大事，個人小事，天文地理，文化歷史，甚麼都可以，不作具體規定。要求學生運用學過的詞匯與句式連貫地進行口頭表達。不隨意的方式有命題說話、看圖說話、專題對話、專題討論等形式。在一定的範圍內學生可以自由地表述和交流。開頭一個階段，學生可能有些拘束或不知所措，但在實踐中會逐漸地產生一種有話非說出來不可的慾望，問題在於必須堅持練習。對於其中的細小錯誤，可以不予糾正，但語態要求自然，語言要求流暢。

寬泛的閱讀訓練首先也要有速度的限定，即根據學生的水平在不同的學習階段規定本階段每分鐘必須讀完的字數。每次閱讀之前，都要告訴學生這篇文章有多少字數，得在多少時間內讀完。閱讀的速度要逐漸加快，閱讀的量也要逐漸加大。教師可事先作些示範，教會學生閱讀的技巧和方法，如怎樣抓中心詞，怎樣擴展和猜測詞義，怎樣聯想和舉一反三，怎樣跳越障礙等等，然後由學生自己讀。讀完以後，不懂的地方可以提出來，由教師進行少許解釋。教師也可以對學生進行一些檢查，但不要搞得很細，只要求基本讀懂就可以了。閱讀的面要盡量地寬，各種類型的文章以及報章雜誌的大小標題、廣告啟示、圖片表格的文字說明，都可以列入閱讀的範圍。平時，學生還要注意養成隨便翻翻的閱讀習慣。

寬泛的寫作訓練也有隨意和不隨意兩種方式。隨意的方式具體的做法是每次上課都由教師發給一張三百或五百字的方格稿紙，要求學生在三十分鐘的時間裏以最快的速度寫出一篇隨想文章。教師不出題目，也不規定範圍內容，學生想寫甚麼就寫甚麼，想怎麼寫就怎麼寫，目的是練筆頭。學生不必過多地考慮用詞造句和篇章結構，但必須寫滿稿紙。對於這樣的文章，教師基本上不作修改，只需大致地了解一下。不隨意的方式有看寫、讀寫、聽寫，說寫等多種形式。例如「看寫」，就是看圖寫話的意思，可以事先由教師精選一些容易引起聯想的漫畫。寫作時要求學生看了一幅畫以後做兩件事：一是寫出這幅畫的內容是甚麼，也就是對這幅畫的理解；二是寫出自己對這幅畫的看法，也就是由這幅畫想到了甚麼。學生可以選擇感受最深、聯想最豐富的地方落筆。他們不再是按照教師規定的框框來做文章，而要開動腦筋，發表獨立的見解，這對於思維和分析能力的鍛煉提高是極為有利的。

「短語」還是「詞群」

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現行的《中學教學語法系統提要(試用)》(簡稱《提要》)是在《暫擬漢語教學語法系統》(簡稱《暫擬》)的基礎上修訂而成的。《暫擬》將漢語語法單位局限到句子為止，認為漢語有三級語法單位——詞、詞組、句子。詞是最小的語法單位，句子是最大的語法單位。《提要》則增補了語素和句群，並將詞組改稱短語，將語法單位延伸到句群。這樣，漢語就有了五級語法單位——語素、詞、短語、句子、句群。漢語最小的語法單位是語素不是詞，最大的語法單位是句群不是句子。這既符合漢語的實際情況，又可使學生有條理的表達自己的思想，提高理解和運用語言的能力。但是，對第三級語法單位是否稱為「短語」的問題，筆者有點不同的看法。本着學習和求實的態度，現提出來探討，請大家指教。

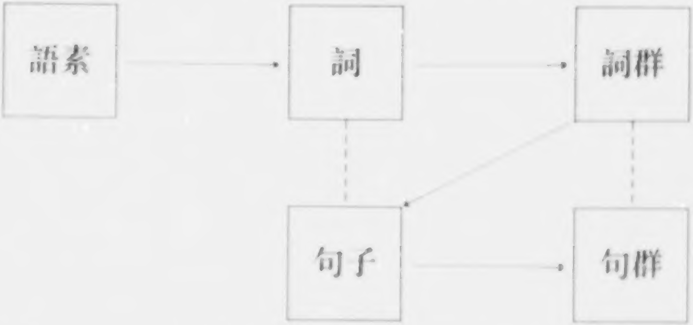
在科學研究和學術討論中，人們必定要用到許許多多的術語。術語是個科學概念。每個術語代表着有關科學技術的一個概念。概念是反映客觀事物的一般的本質的特徵的。因此，術語必須含義明確，才能把事物的一般的本質的特徵如實地反映出來。《提要》將詞與詞的組合稱為「短語」，又叫「詞組」，把這兩個並提，意味着它們沒有本質上的區別，只是叫法不同，用哪個都可以。《暫擬》使用「詞組」，這個叫法已廣為推開，大家用得較為習慣。《提要》提出使用「短語」，顯然是側重在要推行「短語」這個叫法的。筆者認為，「詞組」還能在一定程度上反映這個語法單位的特點，顧名思義，詞組是由詞組合起來的單位。但是，「短語」的提法實際上就不夠恰切，不如採用「詞群」比較科學。

「詞群」是漢語語法學習和研究的一個重要內容。「詞群」是構成句子的基礎。漢語的大部分句子是由詞群加上一定的語調和語氣構成的。掌握詞群的結構關係，就能較容易地掌握漢語句子以及句群的結構類型。

「詞群」是漢語裏詞與詞的語法組合的造句單位，是意義上和語法上都能搭配起來還不成句的一群詞。「詞群」在漢語句子裏的作用相當於詞而本身又是由詞組合的大於詞的語法單位。

一、從邏輯性上看，漢語五級語法單位是一個完整的系統，各語法單位之間有緊密聯繫和相對應的統一的規律。最低一級語法單位「語素」是構詞單位，是最小的語音語義結合體，也是語言的最小的單位，是構成其

他四級語法單位的基礎的基礎。第二級「詞」與第四級「句子」相對應，第三級「詞群」與第五級「句群」相對應。它們兩兩相對應，一級比一級大。「句群」是最高的語法單位，指前後銜接連貫的一群句子。一個句群有一個明晰的中心意思。它們的互相關係可用下圖來表示：



上圖「- - - -」表示語法單位之間的嚴謹對應關係，「→」表示語法單位由低一級到高一級的順序。這表明這個體系符合同一律的邏輯規律：如果將由詞組合起來比詞大一級的語法單位叫做「短語」，而將由句子組合起來比句子大一級的語法單位叫「句群」，在邏輯概念上就不統一、不一致，也不符合漢語本身的內在語法規律。當然，將前者叫「詞組」，後者叫「句群」，也不符合同一律。「短語」，英文語法叫做phrase，也曾譯為「仂語」、「結構」、「詞組」。如果採用「短語」這個名稱，容易被認為是人為地拿來「拼湊在一塊」，不是從漢語本身統一的規律推出來的。因此，要用「詞群」更站得住腳。

二、從科學性上看，「短語」這個名稱，容易被人誤認為詞與詞的組合，「短」的才算為「短語」；長的就不能算做「短語」。實際上漢語中的複雜的「短語」不少，長的「短語」也最常見。因此，「短語」的名與實極不相符，不能真正反映詞與詞之間全面而複雜的組合規律，缺乏科學性。初中語法教學經常舉最簡單的例子，如「經濟建設」，「我的家鄉」，「在北京開會」，「他是開車的」等等。這樣簡單的例子用得多了，學生也以為「短語」確是「短」的。但是，再舉實例：①「我國工人階級的先鋒戰士、大慶油田的英雄代表、鐵人王進喜」，②「嚴格區分和正確處理兩類不同性質的矛盾」，是不是「短語」，不少學生就無法理解了。

三、從習慣性上看，三十多年來，我國中小學以及許多大學，由於《暫擬》使用「詞組」這個名稱，廣大學生和中青年以及老年人較為

熟悉，較為習慣，有群眾基礎。而對「短語」這個名稱倒覺得陌生，在廣大的中學生中尚沒有普及，至今，仍有不少人感到用得還不習慣。現在，由於《提要》採用「句群」這個名稱，大家容易理解和接受，用得習慣。在這樣的情況下，「詞群」這個術語，由於與在群眾中廣泛使用的「句群」相聯繫，當然將會被廣泛使用開來，更容易養成習慣。特別是「詞群」的種類和句子的種類相類似，「詞群」的種類與合成詞構成種類相類似，都有對應規律，「詞群」被廣為採用就更有優勢了。

四、從標準性上看，有人認為，語法術語是名家提出來的就應該作為標準，作為選用的依據。比如「短語」這個術語是由我國著名語法學家黎錦熙先生於一九二四年在《新著國語文法》一書中首先提出來的，應該作為標準。他說：「兩個以上的詞聯合起來，還沒有成句的，叫做『短語』。」實際上，黎先生所說的「短語」，並不包括可以分出主語和謂語兩種成分來的詞與詞的組合，這種詞的組合，他叫做「子句」或「副句」。從漢語語法規律本身的實際出發，「短語」這個名稱不能真正反映「短」，正如黎先生本人在上述這本書開頭第一章「注五」中所說的：「短語也有很長的：因為『語』是言語的通名，所以把這不成句的『詞之聯合』叫做短語」。既然「短語也有很長的」，就不宜用「短」來概括「長」和「短」兩個方面的事實和規律，確有「以偏概全」的毛病。難怪解放幾十年來，「短語」這個術語在大中專院校裏沒有被廣泛應用，恐怕也與此有關。「短語」這個術語對簡單的三兩個詞的組成還可以對付，對複雜的長的就顯得無能為力了。採用「詞群」就不會有此毛病。兩個或三個、四五個的詞按一定方式(或用虛詞或用語序)組合成小於句子大於詞的語法單位稱為「詞群」，站得住腳，就是十幾二十個詞組合成小於句子大於詞的語法單位稱為「詞群」，也完全無問題，都行得通。

五、從可行性上看，有人認為，「詞群」這個提法不大行得通，因為從字面上看不出是有規律的組合，容易被誤解為「許多詞亂擠在一塊」，屬於「烏合之眾」。這實在是大可不必耽心的。既然「句群」這個名稱已正式被大家接受為漢語最高一級語法單位，根本上沒有被認為是「許多句子烏合之眾」，那麼，「詞群」也可得到正式的認可，作為第三級語法單位的名稱，絕不會發生誤解，反而是更易記憶，易推行。

綜上所述，顧名思義，詞群是在意義上和語法上都能搭配起來還不成句的一群詞。就是說，在意義上要能夠搭配。我們知道，無論哪種語言，實詞的數量大大超過了虛詞，在詞與詞的組合中，實詞是大量的，成為構成「詞群」的基本材料。漢語裏的實詞是開放型的詞，一般不能完全開列出來。虛詞是封閉型的詞，幾乎能夠開列出來。因此，可以這樣說，所有的實詞都能構成詞群，實詞和部分虛詞也可以構成詞群。但是，實際上詞

與詞的組合不是任意性的，必須在意義能夠搭配的情況下，才能組合，如動詞和名詞可以組合成「述賓詞群」或叫「動賓詞群」。「執行政策」、「學習雷鋒」等，可以成立；而「學習講臺」、「打聽課本」等，就不能成立。同時，漢語詞群的組合要以語序或虛詞為主要語法手段。在意義能搭配的情況下，同樣的詞由於排列順序不同就產生不同的結構關係的詞群，如「好辦法」是偏正詞群，「辦法好」是主謂詞群。用不同虛詞或使用甚麼樣的虛詞，也會構成不同結構的詞群。如「學校和工廠」是聯合詞群，「學校的工廠」是偏正詞群。前者指兩個單位，後者指一個單位「工廠」。

六、從規範性上看，不同語法範疇，要用不同術語，所用語法術語應有明確分工，要能反映不同系統和區別。從句子成分的角度提出的是「語」，「語」即成分，如主語、謂語、賓語、述語、定語、狀語、補語、中心語，還有插入語，都以「語」為標誌表示「成分」，這樣的提法是一致的。這已被大家所普遍採用。從語法單位的角度提出的術語，如果也用「語」為一個標誌，比如「短語」，就會混淆了句子成分和語法單位的界限。如用「短語」來充當句子成分的各種「語」——主語、謂語、賓語、述語、定語、狀語、補語、中心語，那就不行了。從全盤考慮，從規範化的高度來看，取「短語」作為漢語語法單位的名稱，與其他四級語法單位名稱相比較，顯得格格不入，損害了漢語語法單位的整體性、一致性。而「詞群」這個名稱作為語法單位，與其他四級語法單位融合成一體，就比較規範，不會搞亂句子成分名稱的一致性。所以，這不光是單純術語名稱問題，而是漢語法單位規範的問題，也是堅持從漢語實際找規律，而不硬搬外語語法來套用漢語語法的嚴肅問題。

「詞群」作為句子內部的語法單位，就會產生了某種詞類的性質、形成某種造句的功能。從功能上看，詞群可分為名詞性詞群，如「我們的學校」、「蔚藍色的天空」；動詞性詞群，如「熱烈歡迎」、「提出問題」；形容詞性詞群，如「非常高興」、「很漂亮」。它們分別具有名詞、動詞、形容詞的句法功能。這種分類較概括。如果從詞與詞組合的內部結構關係看，詞群可分為主謂詞群，如「人民幸福」、「身體健康」；動賓詞群，如「看報紙」「遵守紀律」，介賓詞群，如「從北京」、「對於我們」；聯合詞群，如「又高又大」、「廣州、上海、天津」；偏正詞群，如「很喜歡」、「已經開始」；動補詞群，如「高興極了」、「好得很」；數量詞群，如「一群」「三個」；方位詞群，如「車站旁邊」「院子之中」；連動詞群，如「先說後寫」、「上城看電影」；兼語詞群，如「派人去找」、「讓我考慮」；能願詞群，如「能唱歌」、「願意學習」；趨向詞群，如「走出去」、「闖進來」；復指詞群，如「我們大

家」、「老李同志」。各種詞群都可以在句子結構的不同層次上充當成分。從結構來分類較為細緻。結構分類這麼細緻，最適應層次分析法。因此，從漢語語法規範性上看，將詞與詞的有機組合成小於句子大於詞的語法單位，採用「詞群」來表示，比較有優越性和生命力。

在雙語教學中應對不同文化進行比較

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在日益廣泛的國際交往中，雙語教學越來越顯示其重要地位，它逐漸成為一門新型的獨立學科。語言是人類的交際工具，它滲透在人們的每一項活動之中，特別跟政治經濟，文化思想，生活習俗，更有着密切的聯繫，彼此互相滲透，互相促進。雙語教學作為一門學科，它的理論基礎是語言學，可又涉獵極廣，與社會學、心理學、人類文化學、民俗學、教育學均發生聯繫，當然它又有自己獨立的特點。因為在教學中，它涉及兩種語言的對比運用，而習得者在學習中又情不自禁地習慣用自己的母語、社會心理和文化習俗來理解另一種語言，這就會造成誤解和歧義，形成雙語教學中的障碍，為了取得良好的教學效果，迅速消除這一障碍，自然是我們雙語教學中的研究課題之一。其中，語音和語法很重要，但就幾年來的對外漢語教學中，深感詞匯語義教學難度更大，因為它數量多，涉及面廣，加上習得者的社會背景、心理素質，文化習俗不一樣，誤解和分歧比較多，是教學中的難點，為此，就這一問題談一點體會認識。

首先，要根據不同的習得者，對一些常用詞進行分類。如有的詞，是人類共有的行為和客觀事物、自然現象在語言中的反映，不同國際各個民族的人都具有，反映在語言的詞匯中其基本意義均相同，只是語音不同，遺詞造句時語法不同。如吃、喝、說笑、走、跑、天、地、山、水、蟲、魚、鳥、獸、花、草，樹木等。而有的詞是某個民族特有的，其他民族沒有，如漢語中的龍、鳳。有的詞表層意義相同，可由於文化背景和社會心理不同，深層意義卻不相同。如表示紅色的詞，在漢語中具有熱烈、喜慶、歡樂、革命等內在的聯想意義。而英語 Red 或 Scarlet（紅色）則有戰爭、流血、恐怖、淫蕩等詞義。又如喜鵲，漢語中認為是吉祥、喜慶的鳥，所以說「喜鵲叫，客人到」或「喜鵲叫，喜事到。」法語 BAVARD COMME UNE PiE（喜鵲）卻認為是亂呱嗒，多嘴多舌的人。漢語中的鶴，是長壽的象徵，法語 Cigogne（鶴）在俗語中指「瘦長的女人」grue（鶴）俗語引申為「蠢人」「蕩婦」「娼妓」。漢語中的鹿，其內在聯想比喻義是輕快、敏捷、膽怯，而英語 deer（鹿）常用來形容無足輕重。法語 BiCHE（母鹿）卻用來形容行為不端，輕浮的女人。這一類詞的內涵意義卻相差很大。有的詞卻是同中有異，異中有同的詞。如「豬」在漢

語、日語、英語、法語中，其內涵的聯想意義是骯髒、懶惰、貪吃。英語中的Pig（豬）在俚語中還用來說密探、警察、蕩婦。法語COCHON（豬）還用來形容脾氣壞、固執。又表示色彩的詞「黑色」，漢語、英語、意大利語，其內在聯想義是不幸、悲哀。中國人辦喪事要戴黑袖套，把烏鴉看做是不吉祥的鳥。羅馬人把發生悲劇的日子叫做dies atri（黑日子），除此之外，英語中的黑色還意味着恐怖和神秘，他們把巫術稱為Black magic（原義是黑色的魔術），另外英語中的黑色還含有庸俗低級，惡棍之義。這些內涵義又是其語言中所不具備的含義。對常用詞進行分類後，教學中可根據不同習得者的情況，對比分析，採用不同的教學方法。

對第一類詞，即各民族表層義及內涵義基本一致的詞，則側重於語音教學，以及在語法中的不同作用。對只有某一個民族特殊具有的詞，要聯繫社會文化背景，除教讀音、語法作外，還要講詞的內涵義、引申義。如「龍」字是漢民族的象徵，它有吉祥、飛騰、欣欣向榮，興旺發達等詞義，由它組成的詞是褒意的。如龍鳳呈祥，龍騰虎躍，龍飛鳳舞，龍章鳳姿（形容神采非凡），龍跳虎臥，龍盤虎踞，龍肝鳳膽（形容珍貴的食物）。又如中國人講的「紅娘」，只有了解中國著名的古典戲劇《西廂記》，才知道它是促成劇中男女主人公鶯鶯與張生一對情侶美滿結合的重要人物，後來在漢語中就成了熱心促成別人美滿姻緣人物的代稱。這一類詞對外國學生來說是不理解的，只有講清文化背景，才能懂得它們的內涵意義。對那種表層意義相同，而深層意義不相同的詞，更要注意講清深層的內在含義。如中國人常講「個人問題」，指的是「戀愛婚姻問題」，這是中國人對戀愛婚姻家庭方面傳統內向心理的表現，就像中國人把自己的妻子稱做「內人」「家裏的」「××的媽」，這對西歐比較開放的習得者來說，如果不講清楚這種傳統的社會心理，他們是很難想象到的。再如「針」，因為它的特點是細長，中國人喜歡用它來形容細小的東西，或比喻心眼小，氣量狹窄。可是在印度，女子以豐滿為美，如果用針去形容一個女子那是極大的侮辱。如果對這一類內涵意義不同的詞不掌握各自的社會背景是很容易發生誤解，產生歧義。

至於對那一類深層意義同中有異的詞，更要作較為詳細的對比分析。如兄、弟、姐、妹這樣的稱謂詞，世界各民族語言中均有，可漢語卻分得很細，稱呼也比較複雜。日語、英語、法語、德語中兄弟姊妹稱謂既指同父母的同胞兄弟姊妹，也指非同父母的，即父親的兄弟姊妹和母親的兄弟姊妹的子女，即中國人所說的堂兄（姊）堂弟（妹），親堂兄堂弟，以及姑、舅、姨的表兄弟姊妹。這一稱謂的特點，反映出中國的長期封建社會是以血緣為基礎、嫡庶為主，按血緣、嫡庶關係的遠近親疏劃分等級差別，決定權勢、地位、財產的繼承權。整個封建國家的政治制度就建立在這樣的

基礎上，因此稱謂詞才這樣的複雜。不講清這一點，對習得者來說是搞不清中國的同胞兄弟姊妹、堂兄弟姊妹、表兄弟姐妹之間的關係。再如，舊時英語對男人的親暱稱呼是old cock，字面意義是「老公鷄」，相當於漢語中的「老兄」。另外還把經驗不足的小伙子和姑稱做(spring) chicken，字面意義是(春天的)小雞，相當於漢語的「毛頭小伙」和「毛丫頭」，這都含有親切的意味，但漢語中的雞，因為和俗語中男性生殖器的稱呼有關，因此由「雞」字組成的一部分詞含有不雅的內涵意義。如「野雞」指妓女，「雞奸」指同性戀，為此漢語很忌諱用「雞」來稱呼人，或給人取名的。但它也不完全意味着是貶義詞。如「雞鳴起舞」表示刻苦奮發有為。「一唱雄雞天下白」預示光明，都給人積極進取的感受。但形容字跡潦草時，英語和漢語是相同的。英語說hen track(雞的足跡)，漢語說「字寫得像雞爪」。而法語COQ(公雞)常用來比喻十分驕傲的人，這一點與漢語相同，或形容善於勾引女人的人，漢語沒有這個意思。POULE(母雞)則常形容睡得很早和喜歡孩子在身邊打轉的母親。用「牛」喻人，在各民族的語言中多有這個現象，這跟牛與人的勞動生活關係極為密切分不開。反映在不同的語言中，其內涵意義是豐富的，相同相異的關係也比較複雜。如比喻人說大話、誇口，漢語說「吹牛」，英語用bull(公牛)。形容人健壯，特別是男子，英語和漢語都喜歡說「像牛一樣地健壯」。當然漢語還用「牛」來形容人有吃苦耐勞的精神，「老黃牛精神」，形容人的脾氣固執，漢語叫「老牛筋」。此外形容人肥胖難看，英語用COW(母牛)。而法語卻用VACHE(母牛)來形容凶狠的女人。日語卻把妓院裏招攬客人的叫ぎゅう(牛)即妓夫。這些帶貶義的「牛」字內涵意義，那些對視牛為聖物的印尼和尼泊爾學生來說則是無法理解的。對這一類詞，就不能就詞講詞，一定根據不同對象，不同情況，對比分析它們在不同語言中的不同用法，使不同民族的習得者能從文化背景中了解其異同的關係，較明確地掌握這類詞的內涵意義。

除了詞匯外，還要注意一些諺語、成語，這類短語的內涵意義更豐富、更含蓄隱晦。意思一樣的諺語，而不同的民族卻用不同的語言方式表示。如形容人膽怯，漢語用「膽小如鼠」，英語用 chicken-hearted （字面意義是雞心的）。說明人要有勇敢冒險精神才能取得成功，漢語說「不入虎穴焉得虎子」，俄語說ВОЛКОВ БОЯТЬСЯ В лес не ХОДИТВ意思是既然怕狼就不要進入樹林。比喻人虛偽的慈悲，漢語說「貓哭老鼠假慈悲」英語用Crocodile tears意思是鱷魚的眼淚。描寫跟不懂道理的人講道理，漢語用「對牛彈琴」，日語說「對馬彈琴」。形容人善於根據形勢，隨機應變，漢語說「看風使舵」，日語說「換牛乘馬」，諸如此類的例子是很多的，如果我們搜集積累，在教學中加以對比講解，能使學生迅速掌握它們。

在運用這些方法的時候，應注意詞義的多義性和多向性。例如：法語中RENARD（狐狸）既有狡猾的意思，又可用它來形容，能幹靈活，善於辦事的人，這是褒貶同辭。英語中的Cat（貓科動物）可以比喻心地惡毒的人，偷偷摸摸的人或形容愛抓人的孩子，還可以用它來贊揚生命力強以及願為別人承擔風險的人。詞義有褒、有貶，也表示中性。漢語的老虎也如此，可形容凶猛、狠毒，也可贊揚勇敢威嚴的人。再如「黃色」這個詞在中國是王權的象徵，常用它來形容高貴、光明、充滿希望；「黃袍加身」形容官運亨通，有權有勢；「金色的路」「金色的夢」形容美好，前途光明；可是「人老珠黃」又指衰敗。因此在講解中盡是全面搜集，防止片面性。

綜上所述，雙語教學不能不聯繫各民族的社會心理和文化背景，因此在教學中要分析對比，尋找相同點和差異性，挖掘、揭示詞匯的內涵意義。美國語言學家羅比內特在《對外英語教學》一文說：「語言的使用反映着一定的文化語言與文化的這一關係，構成了第二語言習得的一個重要方面」這一分析是很中肯正確的。語言與文化相結合能使雙語教學收到事半功倍的效果。

香港中文閱讀水平研究初步報告

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前言

1988年香港應國際教育成績評鑑協會邀請，參加為響應聯合國頒佈1990年為掃盲年而進行的一項全球合作研究計畫，探討各國(或各地區)教育制度與學生成績的關係，提供科學數據給參與研究的國家地區，比較和檢討教育政策、課程設計等，藉以改善教學質素，掃除文盲，提高閱讀水平，進而豐富人民文化生活，加速國家地區的整體經濟發展。這項研究計畫預期五年完成，自1988年開始籌畫以來，進展順利，全部數據已於1991年收集整理，目前正屬於數據整理和報告編寫階段。有關這項研究的初步結果已於1992年6月3日在海牙新聞發布會中公佈。正式研究報告書將於1993年分別以國報報告、地區報告、分題報告等形式陸續發表。

這項研究計畫的統籌工作由設於德國漢堡大學的國際協調中心負責，比較教育學家Neville T. Postlethwaite教授主持。程序委員會成員包括：新西蘭閱讀學家Warwick B. Elley教授，瑞典心理學家Ingvar Lundberg教授，澳洲語文教學專家Francis Mangubhai博士，美國教育學家Alan C. Purves教授，德國電腦程序設計家Audreas Schleicher先生，澳洲統計學家Ken Ross博士，美國閱讀學家John Guthrie等人。

參與這項研究計畫的香港地區負責人是筆者，研究中心設於香港理工學院中文及翻譯系，研究人員包括香港大學 Keith Johnson 博士、教育署潘漢雄先生、冼周的兒女士、語文教育學院李學銘博士、理工學院許如龍先生、陳榮石先生、陳瑞端女士及其他研究助理人員，等等。研究經費由語言運動、香港大學、香港理工學院、大學及理工撥款委員會等單位捐助。

本文內容主要分三部分：(甲)研究方法；(乙)香港中文閱讀水平在國際上的地位；(丙)香港中文閱讀水平與社會語言態度的關係。

研究方法

一、閱讀水平

就本研究而言，閱讀水平首先被界定為：了解及運用社會所需的或個人認為有價值的各類文字的能力，而本研究所進行測量的文字有三類：記

敍文、說明文、實用文。這裏所說的實用文並非一般所指的公函、報告等或稱應用文的文字，而是指圖表、說明書、廣告、地圖等，用簡短的文字，或配合圖象符號，或以非綫性單向排列方式，提供完整而有結構的資訊的讀物。

閱讀水平在一般正常的教育制度中是會隨着生理年齡而提高的，因此我們決定研究兩項以年齡界定的閱讀水平：九歲閱讀水平和十四歲閱讀水平。雖然各國地區的入學年齡和教育制度的差異對研究的結果會產生一定的偏差，但如果在解釋研究結果的過程中同時對這項因素加以考慮，則用生理年齡作為標準仍然是一個可行而有效的方法。

二、研究對象

全球參與本研究計畫的國家地區計有：比利時(法語區)、博茨瓦納、加拿大(英屬哥倫比亞)、塞浦路斯、丹麥、芬蘭、法國、東德、西德、希臘、香港、匈牙利、冰島、印尼、愛爾蘭、意大利、荷蘭、新西蘭、尼日利亞、挪威、菲律賓、葡萄牙、新加坡、斯洛文尼亞、西班牙、瑞典、瑞士、泰國、特立尼達和多巴哥、美國、委內瑞拉、津巴布韋。

研究對象有兩群：(一)所有全日就讀而當學年第八個月第一週時年齡介乎9:00至9:11歲的學生，統稱母體甲；(二)所有全日就讀而當學年第八個月第一週時年齡介乎14:00至14:11歲的學生，統稱母體乙。

三、受試

測試實施於1990—1991年舉行，全球參與研究的學校、教師、學生數目分列如下：

	學校(所)	教師(人)	學生(人)
母體甲	4 353	4 992	93 039
母體乙	4 720	5 526	117 020
總　數	9 093	10 518	210 059

香港參與的學校和學生，屬母體甲的共169所，都3 333人，屬母體乙的共158所，都3 160人。根據教育署提供統計數字，母體甲是小學四年級，母體乙是中學三年級。國際學校不入研究之列。

四、抽樣

香港抽樣使用分層隨機法，首先按地區分為港島、九龍、新界三區，每區再按資源分為官立、津貼或補助、私立三類，每類再按成績分為上、

中、下三等。每區、每類、每等的受試人數按母體比例抽樣，以求乎合國際程序委員會的統計要求。這項工作由教育署教育研究組負責完成。

五、測試設計

試題由參與國家地區提供，以英語為工作語言，由國際擬題小組收集、審議、制定預試統一篇章及攷題，分發給各國地區翻譯為本土文字，然後舉行預試。母體甲的預試試卷有認字題48條；記敍文10篇，攷題71條；說明文9篇，攷題65條；實用文20篇，攷題107條。母體乙的預試試卷有認字題44條；記敍文10篇，攷題81條；說明文13篇，攷題88條；實用文21篇，攷題122條。母體甲與母體乙重叠的攷題36條，以便研究兩者的延續性。各國預試的數據都送往德國國際協調中心作統一分析，然後召開全體大會，根據分析結果，去蕪存菁，制定正式測試試卷，其內容如下：

	記敍文(試題)	說明文(試題)	實用文(試題)	認字題
母體甲試卷	23篇(22條)	2篇(21條)	23篇(23條)	40條
母體乙試卷	30篇(29條)	27篇(26條)	34篇(34條)	無

測試時間，母體甲試卷須於75分鐘完成，母體乙試卷須於85分鐘完成。測試完畢後，受試須填寫兩份問卷，一份有關閱讀活動，另一份則有關受試的個人及家庭經濟背景資料。受試班的中文老師及學校校長分別要填寫不同的問卷，老師方面是有關學歷、教學經驗、教學方法等問題，校長方面是有關行政、資源、政策等問題。

香港參與母體甲和母體乙預試的學校各15所，受試人數前者為1 136人，後者為1 087人。

統一試題最備爭議的問題是翻譯。譯成不同語文的攷卷是否真的完全等同，恐怕沒有人敢肯定。根據測試結果分析，同屬印歐語系的語言彼此之相關系數可高達0.9以上，而中文跟英文比較，相關系數為0.7，也算是個令人滿意的數字。

香港中文閱讀水平在國際上的地位

香港小學四年級(即母體甲)和中學三年級(即母體乙)的測試成績，與國際成績的比較，現根據未加權數據分別表列如下：

	記敍文(%)	說明文(%)	實用文(%)	總分(%)*
試卷滿分	22(100)	21(100)	23(100)	66(100)
最高平均分	17.7(80.5)	15.6(74.3)	18.0(78.3)	51.3(77.7)
國際平均分	13.9(63.2)	12.4(59.2)	14.9(65.0)	41.2(62.4)
最低平均分	8.0(36.4)	8.0(38.1)	7.8(33.9)	23.8(36.1)
香港平均分	13.9(63.2)	12.9(61.4)	17.4(75.7)	44.2(67.0)

香港小學四年級(即母體甲)成績與國際成績比較

* 認字成績不列入表內

	記敍文(%)	說明文(%)	實用文(%)	總分(%)
試卷滿分	29(100)	26(100)	34(100)	89(100)
最高平均分	23.1(79.7)	19.0(73.1)	28.9(85.0)	71.0(79.8)
國際平均分	19.9(68.7)	17.0(65.3)	25.0(73.4)	61.9(69.6)
最低平均分	7.3(25.2)	6.5(25.0)	10.0(29.4)	23.8(26.7)
香港平均分	20.4(70.3)	18.8(72.3)	28.0(82.4)	67.2(75.5)

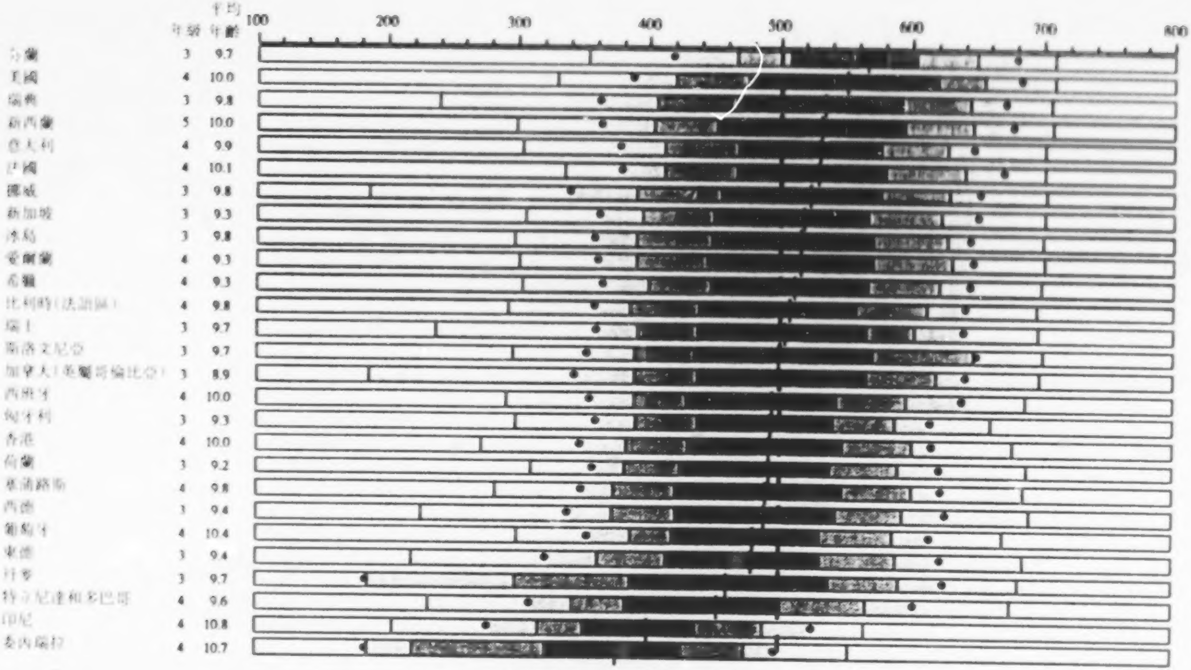
香港中學三年級(即母體乙)成績與國際成績比較

從上兩表看來，香港小學四年級和中學三年級的閱讀水平都在國際平均水平之上，但距離成績最好的國家地區還是很遠，而小學四年級的成績更不如中學三年級。用積極的態度來看，從小四到中三這一段語文教育是比較成功的，學生有顯著的進步。至於小四成績為甚麼不如中三，是課程設計問題？是教學法問題？是學習閱讀方塊文字的先天性問題？是語言環境問題？還是一些我們根本沒有認識到的問題？這是一個很好的研究課題，給有志提高中文水平的語文工作者去鑽研解答。

在測試的三類文體中，香港學生表現得相當突出的是實用文。小四的成績與表現得最好的國家地區比較只差 2.6 個百分點，中三也是一樣。但是記敍文的成績，中小學都較差。小四只達到國際平均水平 63.2，而中三僅超越國際平均水平 1.6 個百分點，遠遠落後於最高成績的國家地區。說明文的小四成績微微超越國際平均水平 2.2 個百分點，但中三成績則突飛猛進，距離成績最高的國家地區只差 0.8 個百分點。從小四到中三的整體語文教學有長足的進步，表面看來全賴說明文教學的成功。

從以上的分析。香港學生在語文學習上的成長並不全面。在記敍文方面的積弱，説明文方面的進步，以及實用文方面的成功，説明了學生並不是資質上不能學好語文，方塊漢字也沒有先天性的缺憾使學生學不好，只是我們對記敍文教學有了疏忽。這種疏忽的誘因是課程設計、語文環境、還是社會要求等等，還有待進一步研究。

香港與各參與國家地區成績排列，參閱以下圖表。表一至三是母體甲的三類文體成績，表四至六是母體乙的三類文體成績。香港在母體甲的記敍文、説明文和實用文中，分別排名18，15和2；在母體乙的記敍文、説明文和實用文中分別排名21，4和2。



表一：母體甲記敘文的 Rasch 成績分佈

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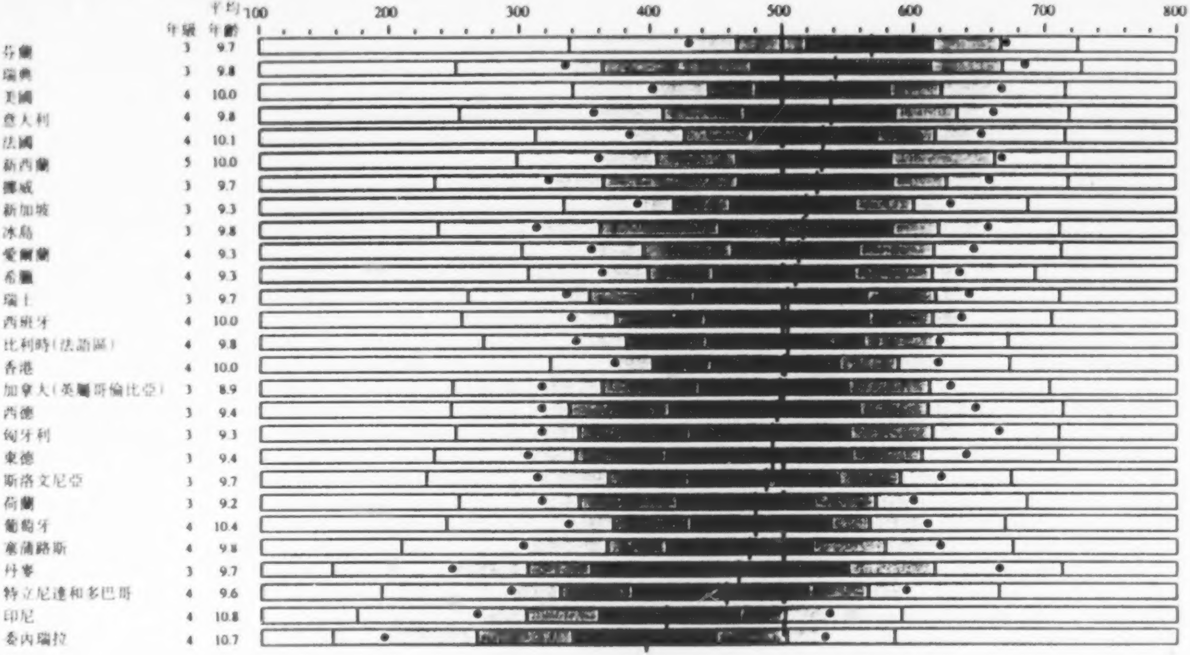

表二：母體甲說明文的 Rasch 成績分佈

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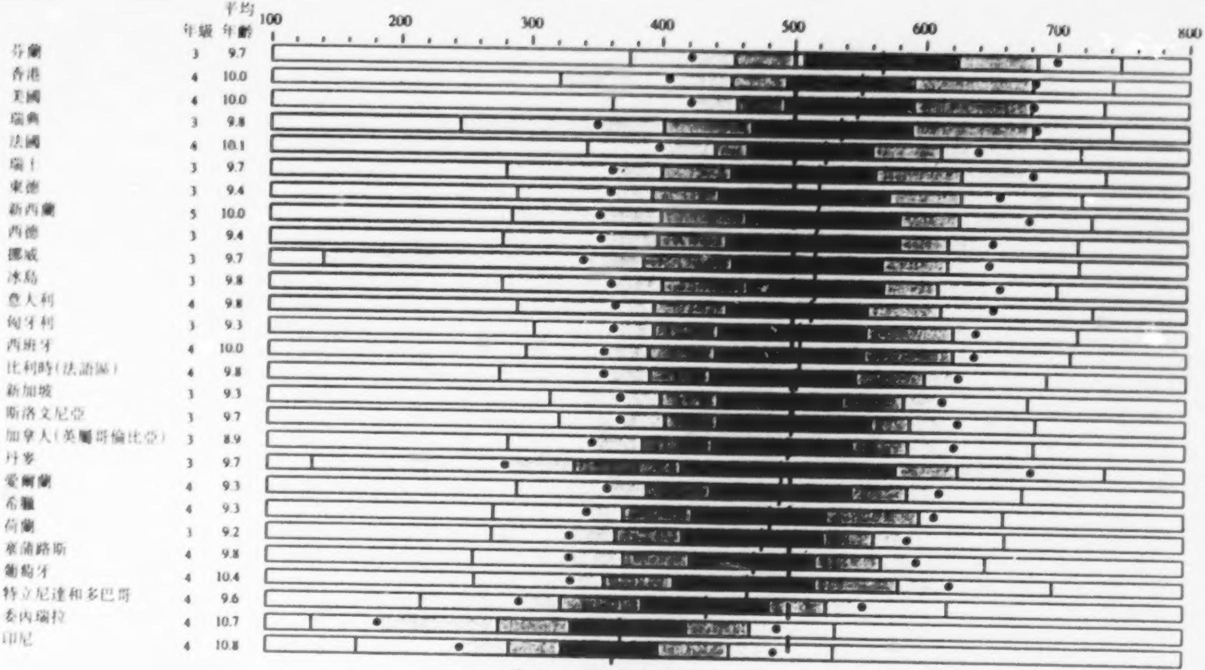

	年級	平均年齡
芬蘭	3	9.7
香港	4	10.0
美國	4	10.0
瑞典	3	9.8
法國	4	10.1
瑞士	3	9.7
東德	3	9.4
新西蘭	5	10.0
西德	3	9.4
挪威	3	9.7
冰島	3	9.8
意大利	4	9.8
匈牙利	3	9.3
西班牙	4	10.0
比利時(法語區)	4	9.8
新加坡	3	9.3
斯洛文尼亞	3	9.7
加拿大(英屬哥倫比亞)	3	8.9
丹麥	3	9.7
愛爾蘭	4	9.3
希臘	4	9.3
荷蘭	3	9.2
塞浦路斯	4	9.8
葡萄牙	4	10.4
特立尼達和多巴哥	4	9.6
委內瑞拉	4	10.7
印尼	4	10.8

表三：母體甲實用文的 Rasch 成績分佈

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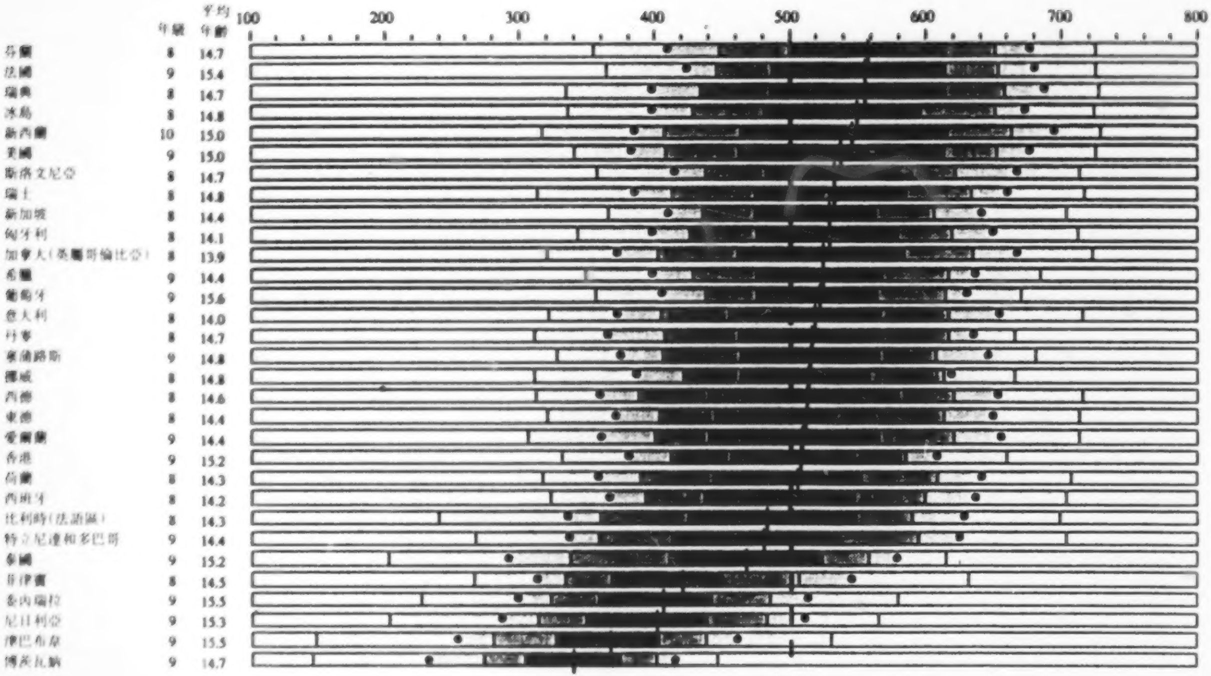

表四：母體乙記敍文的 Rasch 成績分佈

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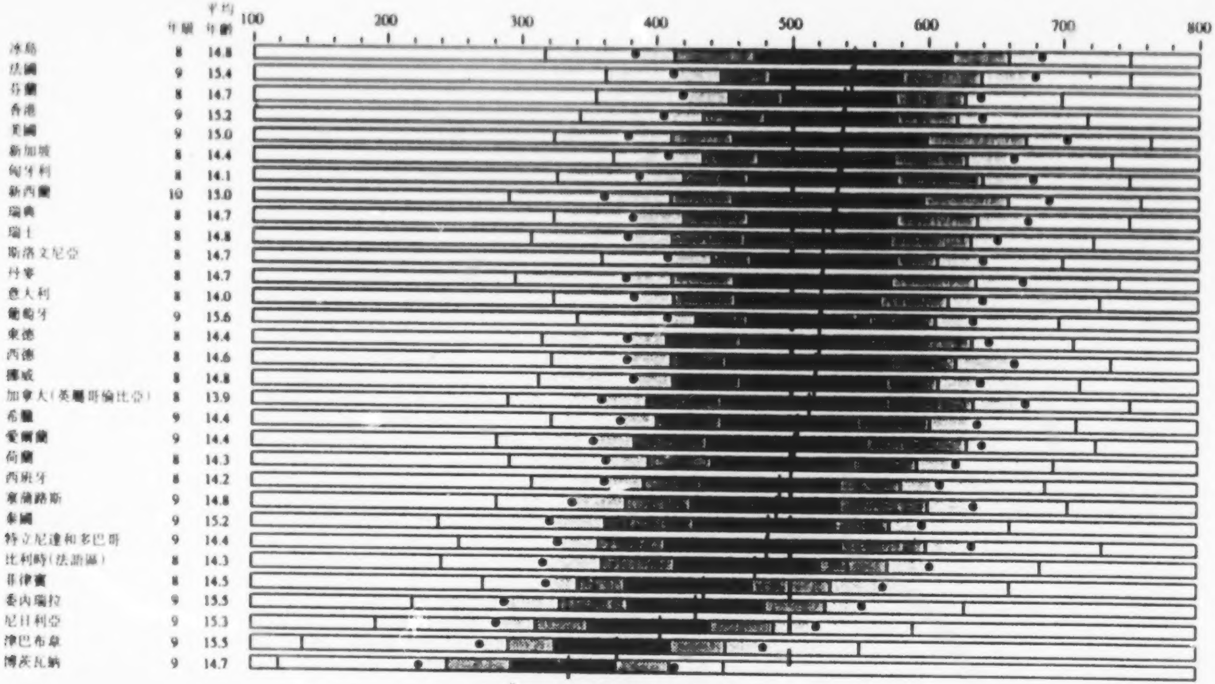

表五：母體乙説明文的 Rasch 成績分佈

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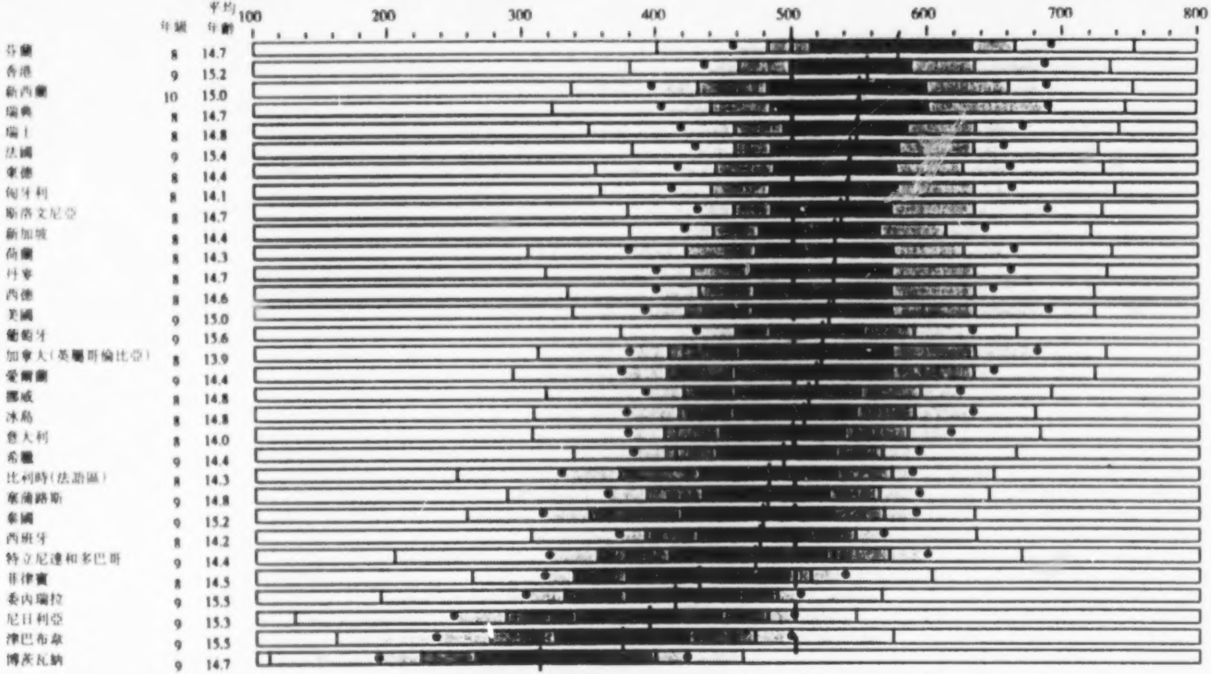

表六：母體乙實用文的 Rasch 成績分佈

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香港中文閱讀水平與社會語言態度的關係

香港參與這項國際研究計畫時，除了按規定測量母語——中文閱讀水平外，還對英文進行了同樣的平行研究。英文在香港社會是第一外國語，小學四年級和中學三年級的英文水平當然是不如中文，也達不到國際平均水平，但比某些英語作為母語的國家地區略優，其成績現簡列如下：

		記敍文(%)	說明文(%)	實用文(%)	總分(%)
母體甲	最低平均分	8.0(36.4)	8.0(38.1)	7.8(33.9)	23.8(36.1)
	香港平均分	6.9(31.4)	7.9(37.6)	10.6(46.1)	25.4(38.5)
母體乙	最低平均分	7.3(25.2)	6.5(25.0)	10.0(29.4)	23.8(26.7)
	香港平均分	12.9(44.5)	11.5(44.2)	20.7(60.9)	45.1(50.7)

小學四年級的英語閱讀水平只高於全球最低水平2.4個百分點，但是中學三年級的水平已把差距提高至24個百分點，距離國際平均水平(69.6)只差18.9個百分點，有很大的進步。值得注意的是學生在記敍文和說明文兩方面的表現一致，英文記敍文教學看來比中文成功。

語文水平很大程度上決定於社會的語文價值觀。香港以中文為母語，英文為第一外國語，社會對這兩種語文的態度以及對學生在這兩種語言能力上的期望無可避免地會影响到語文的整體水平。例如社會如果對某語文水平的要求和對學生的期望不高，這語文的整體成績實際上是不可能提高到那裡去。超越社會期望的整體水平只是語文工作者一廂情願的雄心壯志和幻想，未必可以在現實世界裡逐步實現。

為了研究香港社會的語言態度和中英文水平的關係，我們組織了兩個語文能力評訂小組：一個是中文的，有成員22名；另一個是英文的，有成員21名。小組成員都是來自不同行業而對招募中三畢業生從事該行業的語文要求有一定認識的主管人員。他們首先把本研究計畫的中三(母體乙)試題通讀一遍，然後評定正常閱讀能力的中三學生在解答這份試卷時應有的表現，也就是他們的得分應當是多少。甚麼是正常閱讀能力呢？我們假定中三學生可以分為三類：低閱讀能力，正常閱讀能力和高閱讀能力。介乎低能力和正常能力之間的稱為準正常閱讀能力；準正常閱讀能力的學生可以完成所有或大部分低能力的閱讀工作，但對所有或大部分正常能力的閱讀工作會有極大困難。介乎正常能力和高能力之間的稱為準高閱讀能力；準高閱讀能力的學生可以完成所有或大部分正常能力的閱讀工作，但對所有或大部分高能力的閱讀工作會有極大困難。正常閱讀能力的中三學生的

表現應當是介乎準正常能力和準高能力兩者成績之間。中文語文能力評訂小組和英文語文能力評訂小組先經個別獨立判斷，繼而集體討論商議，先後反覆修改研究三次，得出以下結論。

		記敘文		說明文		實用文		總分(%)	
		準正常能力	準高能力	準正常能力	準高能力	準正常能力	準高能力	準正常能力	準高能力
中文	小組期望成績	19.3	25.0	17.5	22.7	26.5	31.5	63.3(71.1)	79.2(89.0)
	學生實際成績	20.4		18.8		28.0		67.2(75.5)	
英文	小組期望成績	11.8	26.7	10.7	23.8	21.9	33.0	44.4(49.9)	83.5(93.8)
	學生實際成績	12.9		11.5		20.7		45.1(50.7)	
試卷滿分		29		26		34		89(100)	

從上表看來，社會對中英語文閱讀水平的期望到超過學生所達到的水平。中文方面，學生的成績比社會對準正常能力的期望略高(4.4個百分點)，但距離平均正常能力(80.05%)還差4.55個百分點，差別總算不大。英文方面，學生的成績跟社會對準正常能力的期望很接近，只高出0.8個百分點，但距離平均正常能力(67.05%)相差16.35個百分點，距離準高能相差43.1百分點，社會對學生的期望似乎完全不切實際，甚至可以說是強學生之所難。如果把社會對中英文水平的期望比較一下，在準正常能力上，中文比英文高；在正常能力上也是一樣，中文是80.05%而英文是67.05%，至於差距是否太少還有待研究；但在準高能力上，社會期望學生的英文比中文好這一點，似乎不合情理。總的來說，英文在香港雖然只是第一外國語，但卻受到社會超越比例的重視，甚至盲目的教育投資，以追求滿足近乎幻想的期望。在同一社會環境下，中文無可避免地相應受到忽視，社會期望降低，學生水平恐怕也難以提高。

語文水平的評估與實現

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引言

語文水平是對一個人語言習得和運用能力的總的評估。雖然一個人在幼兒時期便已開始學習語言的活動，但這種學習是很初步的，並且往往限於口語。一生沒進過學校的人，他在運用書面語方面的能力有可能達到甚至超過同時代大學文科的學生，但那畢竟是少數。一般說來，在教育已相當普及的今天，一個人語文水平的獲得主要是在學校。

事實上，不是所有經過正規學校教育的人都能取得同樣理想的語文水平。在這種客觀存在的差異中，包含着許多複雜的因素。智力、學前啟蒙以及後來在接受學校教育過程中的不同的勤惰表現，無疑也是造成水平差異的客觀因素。但就一般的語文教育而論，屬於受教育者自身的種種因素常常不予考慮，就是說，這些與教學行為無直接關聯的因素不被作為評估和實現語文水平的依據。

本文不準備用許多篇幅討論有關語文水平的種種理論問題，而只想結合國內漢語語文教學的實際情況，就如何建立語文水平的觀念，如何具體地評價一個人的語文水平，以及語文教育應當怎樣根據社會的實際需要來規定自己的目標等問題，談一點看法；在此基礎上，進一步就語文水平的實現提出一些設想，以供有關方面的專家參考。

1. 語文水平的觀念與評估

1.1 在日常生活中，人們對「語文」這個詞並不陌生，不過很少有人探究它的內涵。一般詞典把語文解釋為「語言和文字」①，這並不確當。事實上，在大多數場合，它是用來指語言和文字的結合，着眼點在它們的實用性方面。通常所謂語文水平，則是指一個人在已熟悉某種語言的基礎上，在書面語範圍內瞭解他人的言語作品和創造自己的言語作品的能力②。

1.2 在語文教育的立場上，我們可以把一個人語文水平的獲得從兩個階段或者兩個層次上來認識。這兩個階段是：知識準備階段和語文運用階段。

1.2.1. 知識準備階段的任務之一——實際上也是這一階段的最基本的任務——，是在相對集中的時間內完成識字教育。但是，並非要求受教育者必須掌握所習語言的全部的書寫符號，譬如漢語，而只是要求完成常用漢字的認讀，因而有時也稱為脫盲教育。

在這方面，相對於別的一些語言，譬如英語，漢語識字教育的完成要容易些，所需用的時間也可以少些。這與語言文字的特點有關。使用拼音文字的語言，因為「字話一律」，有多少個詞就得有多少個詞形，它的常用字量往往要多到幾萬，學校裏完成識字教育難度很大。現在的美國，中小學通過語文教育利用八年的時間，只完成口語和通俗文學用語的識字教育，專業用字尚須以後到有關學科裏去一個一個地認記。而漢語，因為主要採用二次構詞法進行複合構詞，能以「生詞熟字」的奇妙效果大大地壓縮字量。新詞出現時，除少數不得已而創造新字的情況外，總是盡量使用原有的單字來組成複合詞。據國家出版局抽樣調查統計，我們現在最高用字量只有6 300多個，其中最常用字560個，常用字870個，次常用字1 033個，共計2 400個。這2 400個字，佔一般書刊用字的99%，就是說，對我們而言，只要學會這2 400個字就可以脫盲，剩下的1%的字完全可以借助字典加以解決。國內的語文教育，一般採用集中識字的辦法教兒童認字，經驗證明，用小學六年級的時間完成二、三千字的識字教育是不成問題的。③

1.2.2 掌握一定數量的字詞，是一個人取得初級語文水平的標誌。我們注意到，學校在實施識字教育的同時，總是伴隨進行閱讀和寫作能力的訓練。近年來，國內出版了許多全部是兒童作品的讀物。其中雖然不乏教師或家長代為修改、潤色的成分，但從總體特徵上看，兒童在識字教育階段所能或所望獲得的語文水平已經明顯地表現出來了。

進到中學以後，學校的教學任務發生了變化，在實施語文教育的同時，它要注意知識結構的合理性而增設更多的有利於學生總體發展的課程。通過語文課鞏固小學六年的識字成果並繼續提高學生的認字量，其他如代數、幾何、歷史、地理、物理、化學、生物等課程，則在更廣泛的意義上，幫助學生開拓視野和增益知識。

一般說來，學校在中學階段灌輸給學生的語文的和非語文的教學內容，可以大部分地轉化為學生自身的知識儲存。語文教育應當對此有正確而充分的估計。不僅非語文課程的教學過程中包含有語文教育的成分，而且不同種類的非語文課程同樣能對語文教育起到豐富和潤化的作用。非語文課程所授知識的獲得，在某種意義上說，是通過語文水平來體現的。目前，國內高等學校招生考試的語文試卷，無論深度和廣度，都達到了相當水平。一個考生若能在這張考卷上獲得80–90分，說明他在中、小學12年教育中獲得的語文知識達到了語文教育所期望的水平。

2. 語文水平的評估

2.1 上文的討論還沒有完全解釋清楚語文水平的內涵問題。平常所謂語文水平高或語文水平低，多是憑藉個人的知識或經驗進行主觀性的評價。這種評價是不夠科學的。我們覺得，要想對一個人所已取得的語文水平做出客觀而正確的評價，須得避免從一時一事的成敗得失做出以偏概全的判斷，也要避免以個人或少數人的好惡而做出隨意性的褒貶。要研製出一套切實可行的標準，以求所有被評估對象能在一個十分客觀的環境裏得到公正的裁判。

2.2 漢語語文水平評估標準——或稱指標——的設立是個很重要的問題。漢語是一種歷史悠久、方言異常分歧的語言。顯然，只通過中小學的語文教育便可達到完全掌握並能精於運用的程度，是不很現實的。就中國傳統文化而言，六經之外，古籍浩繁，沒有一定的古漢語知識和歷史知識，閱讀起來就很困難。加之漢語方言的歧異，人們很難駕馭這個包含着許多變體——其間分歧之大常不亞於某些不同的語言——和活動在十幾億人口頭上的東方語言。從實際出發，特別考慮到現時代門類繁多、知識擴展的特點，一個人不可能而且也沒有必要精通所有學科，只能做到專精一、兩個領域，這樣，我們具體地評估一個人的語文水平也就可以實事求是地規定相應的指標。

2.3 既要考慮漢語自身的特點，也要考慮一般人的習慣認識，我們可以把語文水平評估指標建立在如下幾個方面：

(1) 對古典文學名著的瞭解情況
(2) 對文言詞語的掌握情況
(3) 閱讀古籍的能力
(4) 古音知識
(5) 一般的語言文字知識
(6) 對現代漢語拼音方案的熟悉情況
(7) 有關漢字的知識
(8) 詞語知識
(9) 遣詞造句的規範程度
(10) 作文能力
(11) 漢字書寫的規範程度

自然，這幾個方面的內容還需要進一步分出更詳細的項目，以作為具體評估的理性依據。未必每個人都會在相同的項目即水平指標上有大致相同的表現，因而能夠取得相同的語文水平；被認為有大致相同的語文水平的人，應當允許他們有各自不同的水平指標特點。為了實現語文水平評估的科學化和定量化，在已明確所論語文水平的對象語言的前提下，我們可

以根據模糊數學(Fuzzy mathematics)確定隸屬度的辦法，把不同評估對象對於水平指標的符合數代入下列數學模型，從而求得每個人語文水平的「值」：

$$\mu(\chi) = k_1 \frac{m}{M} + k_2 \frac{m}{N}$$

式中，μ稱為模糊集合的隸屬函數，χ代表所要評估的對象。M、N稱為「權」，表示兩類不同的水平指標數；因為不同的指標在反映被評估對象語文水平的意義上不可能是完全等同的，最能反映一個人語文水平的那些指標和某些比較地不太重要的指標，在決定「權重」(k)時理當有所區別($k_1 > k_2$，且$k_1 + k_2 = 1$)。m，n分別表示被評估對象對於這兩類水平指標的符合數。根據這個公式所求出的數值的不同，就表現或反映出了不同被評估對象語文水平上的差異。

順便指出，M、N以及相應k_1、k_2的值多少帶有人為規定的性質，但這並不影響語文水平評估的總體上的允當性。譬如，最近，我們曾經利用上述公式對不同單位的10個秘書小姐的語文水平進行評估，所得結果同時也符合一般人只憑觀察而做出的主觀評價。

3. 語文水平的實現

知識準備階段伴隨有非語文教育，這對任何一個想獲得語文水平的人或者實行語文教育的部門來說，都是一種事實。而在有意識地實施語文教育的過程中，隨着知識的準備(即儲存)，同時也就開始了語文運用的活動。所以說，理論上可以而且應當分出知識準備和語文運用兩個階段，以便有重點地實施不同的語文教學內容，而在客觀上把這兩個階段的內容常常結合起來進行，則是語文教育的現實。實際上，實現一定的語文水平，這從語文教育的立場看來，兼須把語文運用納入一定的教學和測試環節。

3.1 還有，語文水平指標的設立，不完全是從純語文教育的角度來考慮的，因為社會所需要的語文水平，往往包含着某些並不反映語文的實質性水平的因素。例如把書寫的規範程度作為水平評估的一個方面的指標，就屬於這種情況。理論上，字寫得好壞應當與語文水平無涉，但在一般人的心理效應或社會效應上，卻無疑是要納入考慮之中的。

3.2 由以上的分析看來，實現語文水平的總體措施必須兼及這三個方面：

(1) 語文教育部門所貯存的語文知識總量。
(2) 實施策略。
(3) 水平或效果檢測。

任何一個語文教育部門都不會是死水一潭，因此它所貯存的語文知識總量經常處在變動之中。要保證所有接受語文教育的人能夠在一定時間內最大限度地接受語文知識的教育，語文教育部門應當把提高自身的語文知識貯存量作為經常性的工作。要保證所有教師和從事教學管理、教學研究的人員必須接受過正規的高等學校教育，並且具備參與教學工作的良好的素質。與此同時，保證教學設備的充分與先進性，也是語文教育部門自身知識素質的重要體現，可稱為第二師資。

實施語文教育，是通過正常的教學環節，使原貯存於師資之中的語文知識達於受教育者，並且成為受教育者所擁有的東西。這是不言而喻的。可是如何實現這一目標，人們的認識往往不很一致。有人強調教學方法，認為方法對頭可收事半功倍之效。有人對此論不以為然，認為關鍵的問題是教育者是否擁有足夠的知識量並且全部地輸送給教育對象。我們認為，知識量的貯存固然可以顯示語文施教部門的實力，但卻不能保證在教學過程中大部分地輸送到受教育者一方。只有經常研究並改進教學方法，增強教育者自身的責任感，才有可能使這一知識轉化過程變得通暢或減少一些阻礙。

水平的檢測不僅是語文教育部門藉以瞭解受教育者語文接受程度的必要手段，也是對自身施教效果的一種評估。過去曾有人反對對受教育者實行考核，認為考試是一種消極的辦法，考試的成績也未必全然體現水平，特別是不能據此對受教育者將來的從業能力做出正確的預測。這種觀點有其正確性的一面。但是我們覺得，考試作為整個教學過程中的一個檢查、督進環節，試卷上的分數固然不一定反映每個人的實際水平，但畢竟可以作為水平評估的重要參考。很難設想，在歷次考試或考核中成績都屬劣等的人，會在實際上具有很好的語文水平。所以我們覺得，考試之法或可改進，也可以從形式上進行改造，但是不宜廢止。

3.3　語文教育的目的是培養具有不同語文水平的人投身和服務於社會。因此，在規定教學內容、計劃教學程序、設立水平考核或評估指標時，都須考慮社會需要這一重要因素。前面我們說過，有些評估指標可能並不直接反映語文水平，但在服務社會的意義上卻不能不把某些內容結合於水平一道考慮，因而使語文水平的內涵超出了原來的範圍，在實現語文水平的方式上也就必然會使人想到學校以外的途徑。

所謂學校以外的途徑不只是指語文運用而言，而語文運用也不只是指具備一定語文水平後的實踐。語文知識的準備與語文知識的運用是結合進行的，語文教育部門在培養語文水平的總體佈局上一開始就應當考慮到社會這個因素，使每一個教學環節都直接聯繫於社會，這或許是實現語文水平並使之見於實用的肯綮所在。但同時我們也要指出，作為語文教育部

門，除根據社會需要而培養不同層次的語文水平之外，例如適應政治、文化、藝術等部門需要的較高層次的水平——我們稱之為社會期望水平，適應一般企業、店舖或家庭需要的水平——我們稱之為一般程度水平等等，還需要把目光投向未來，培養具有一定理論和研究能力的更高層次的水平——我們稱之為教育目標水平。教育目標水平並不排斥實用，不過它的實用性在於自身的提高，在於使這一體現時代、體現全社會語文素質的水平保持在領先的高度上。這一水平的實現，在語文規範化的意義上，對於社會期望水平和一般程度水平具有領導作用，因此它是整個語文教育的最終目標。

附註：

① 中國社會科學院語言研究所編《現代漢語詞典》頁1398商務印書館，1979，北京。

② 語言學稱個人造意而得，表達其體思想的語句為言語作品。這裏用來泛指所有書面語形式的文章著作。

③ 段生農，論語言文字特點與識字教育，載《教育研究》，1983，7-8，北京。

以完形程序法探測新加坡學生掌握華文的能力

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一、目的與對象

本文的目的，在探測修完中學課程以後的新加坡學生，對已經學習過的華文單字、詞匯和成語的識辨能力，進而探求他們的閱讀理解能力。

就新加坡而言，修完中學課程而華文程度達到相當滿意的學生，才能升上高中，因此，本測驗即以高中二年級的學生為對象，他們分別來自三所初級學院的148位學生，以及兩所高級中學61位學生，合共209位，這五所學府的華文成績，一向在中上水平。

二、試題的類別與擬製

測驗題目的擬製，共分四項：辨字測驗、選詞填充、成語選擇和定位填充(完形填充、綜合填充cloze test)。各項測驗題的擬製與題數如下：

(一)辨字測驗：以新加坡教育部頒布的《中學華文課程綱要》(第二語文)附錄《中學華文字表》的3 000個單字為依據。該字表按漢語拼音字母的次序排列，擬製試題時，即以該字表的順序為選擇單字的依據，每間隔20個字選用一個字，如第20個是「尺」，第40個是「多」，第60個是「骨」，直到第3 000是「佐」。這項測驗共擬題150題。

(二)選詞填充：以《聯合早報》發表的《用字用詞調查報告書》中《早報常用詞表》的15,610個詞語為根據。該詞表也是按漢語拼音字母次序編號排列，擬製試題時，是以每間隔200個詞語選一個。因在第一項的辨字測驗裏所選用的單字，往往也是一個單音詞，在選詞填充裏，就不再選單音詞。此外，如遇人名、地名或專有名詞等則不選，例如芭堤雅、巴解、百匯廣場、鶴翔莊、美以美等都不選，此類詞語約有三千個，扣除以後，作為這項測驗所根據的詞語，約3,105個。共擬製80題。

(三)成語選擇：也是以新加坡教育部《中學華文課程綱要》(第二語文)附錄《中學成語表》的150個常用成語為命題依據，每間隔5個成語選一個，如第一個是「愛不釋手」，第5個是「包羅萬象」，直到第150個是「坐井觀天」。這項測驗共擬製30題。

以上三項，都是以多項答案選擇法擬製試題，而且都是提供四個備選答案，讓學生選出一個正確的答案。

(四)定位填充：共選八篇短文，每篇短文各有20個空白供學生填寫詞語，留空的方法是每間隔6個詞語刪除一個，這些詞語可能是各單音詞或多音詞，也可能是一個成語，學生總共須填滿160個空白。這八篇短文的來源與內容大意如下：

(1)行業新聞：選自《聯合早報》，報導一個酒店集團的首腦在展覽會上發表講演，談及旅遊的增長和員工的升職、訓練、徵聘等事項。

(2)社會新聞：選自《聯合早報》，報導一個女工險些被色情販子推入火坑，後來又僥倖逃出魔掌的新聞。

(3)體育新聞：選自《聯合晚報》，敍述世界游泳錦標賽的一位決賽選手，談及花樣游泳的發展以及訓練選手的情形。

(4)文娛消息：選自《影視周刊》第365期，描述一位多才多藝的藝人，從事音樂創作的經驗和感想。

(5)國際新聞：選自《聯合早報》，寫波斯灣戰爭前後，菲律賓如何擔心石油的漲價和短缺，以及在沙地阿拉伯服務的員工的問題。

(6)報章社論：選自《聯合早報》，論析新加坡，柔佛和峇淡在三角成長的經濟合作概念下，新加坡應如何加強競爭優勢，以及如何加強與鄰國合作的問題。

(7)小說：摘錄自瓊瑤的《我是一片雲》，寫宛露二十歲後始知段太太其實是她的養母，以及她見了生母後在感情上產生的變化與矛盾。

(8)摘錄自慧如的《兩個大同的世界》，描寫作者游覽日本，觀賞櫻花的喜悅之情。

以上八篇短文，第一、二篇可歸入本地新聞，第三、四篇可視為消閑娛樂，第五、六篇可劃入國際時事，第七、八篇則是文藝作品。其中本地新聞和消閑娛樂，可看成是學生所熟悉的事務，而國際時事和文藝作品則是學生所感到生疏的事務(可見表一測試成績歸類)。

三、認字辨詞的能力

本節將分析學生(指高中二年級學生，下同)認字辨詞的能力。從表一「測試成績」看來，單字、詞語和成語三項測驗的信度都很高。平均可靠性指數達0.94。

以單字來說，在150個試題中，平均答對104.5題，達69.7%。根據標準測差① (STANDARD ERROR OF MEASUREMENT)演算，學生認識的生字可從69%至78% ($P<0.01$)。換言之，在3,000個單字，估計一般學生可掌握2,100至2,300個。②

從詞語這項來看，在80個試題中，平均答對58.9題，高達73.6%，成績相當理想。根據標準差測演算，估計學生分辨詞語的能力，可從62%

至85% ($P < 0.01$)。即在1萬3 105個詞語中，學生可掌握8,125至11,139個。

再從詞語測驗來看，在30個試題中，平均答對22.1題，高達74%，成績也很理想。根據標準測差演算，估計學生掌握詞語的能力，可從56%至92% ($P < 0.01$)。即在150條成語中，一般學生可掌握84至138條。

根據以上的分析，學生認字辨詞的能力，可列成簡表來表示。

項目	字詞總數	識辨能力(估計)	百分比(估計)
單字	3,000	2,100 至 2,350	69% 至 78%
詞語	13,105	8,125 至 11,139	62% 至 85%
成語	150	84 至 138	56% 至 92%

就上述三項測試的整體成績而言學生認字辨詞能力所以能達到這麼理想的成績說明以下幾個事實。

(一)是語文老師認真指導的結果。華文第二語文的上課時間，每星期雖然平均只有170至200分鐘的時間，但在老師孜孜不倦、諄諄善誘之下，終能完成教學目標。

(二)是學校採用的教材，字詞的覆蓋率相當高，滿足了訓練學生認字辨詞的要求。

(三)是學生慣於接受多項選擇式題型的結果。因為上述三項測驗的試題，都提供了四個備選的答案，有固定的範圍，有線索可尋，學生只要集中思考就可選答案了。

四、辨字認詞與閱讀理解能力的關係

學生是怎樣利用已掌握的語文知識去進行閱讀呢？換言之，學生的閱讀理解能力，有多少成分是借助單字、詞語和成語的辨識能力呢？從表二的相關系數演算，估計對本地新聞的理解，大約44%是借助單字，41%是詞語，15%是成語。其他對消閑娛樂、國際時事和文藝作品的理解能力，也可依此類推演算(各項相關系數的平方)，並列成簡表如下：

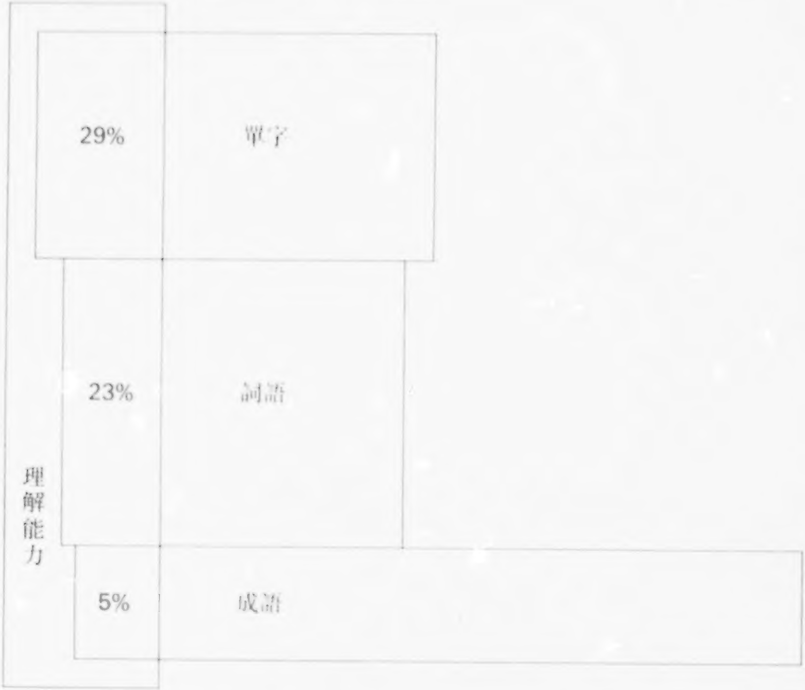
理解能力	借助認字辨詞的百分比(估計)		
	單字	詞語	成語
本地新聞	44	41	15
消閑娛樂	44	34	18
國際時事	30	33	16
文藝作品	19	26	23
中數	37	34	17

由上表得知，學生對四個項目的整體理解能力，估計平均大約37%是借助單字，34%是詞語，17%是成語。

不過，借助單字、詞語和成語進行閱讀，其中單字與詞語之間，單字與詞語及成語之間，是有關聯而又是重疊關係的。

根據表三「回歸分析」(Regression Analysis)來看，可預測學生對熟悉事務(包括本地新聞與消閑娛樂)的理解能力，有40%是依靠單字，15%是詞語，而和成語無關。對生疏事務(包括國際時事和文藝作品)的理解能力，有7%是憑借單字，22%是詞語，9%是成語。至於總體理解能力，29%是借助單字，23%是詞語，5%是成語。

現將單字、詞語和成語對總體理解能力的有效成分用長方圖表示如下：



由上圖可看出學生閱讀理解能力，共有57%借助單字、詞語與成語，尤其單字和詞語，是關鍵的要素，成分最高佔52%，依靠成語的成分則最少，只佔5%。另有43%的理解能力是未知數，這該憑借甚麼成分呢？確實有待考查。這可能與學生的生活經驗、語言或家庭背景、文化知識、閱讀技巧、書寫能力、作答態度等有關。

五、從完形填充探測閱讀理解能力

前面說過，通過多個備選答案的方式進行測試，學生認字辨詞的能力高達相當理想的水平。如果不提供備選答案，而是讓學生從下文去推斷領會其意思，並通過文字書寫下來，其表現是怎樣的呢？

表一「測試成績」虛線以下的「理解能力」，就是通過筆頭書寫的完形填充的成績。以下四個項目：本地新聞、消閑娛樂、國際時事和文藝作品，共有160個詞語要學生填寫，平均成績是7.78，約等於19.4%，成績很不理想。其中成績較好的是本地新聞，在40個空白中，平均能夠填寫的

詞語達10.7個。其次是消閑娛樂，達7.6個，這兩項是學生較熟悉的事項，所以成績還好一點。

另兩項學生不熟悉的事務，即生疏事務的國際時事，40個空白中，只能填寫5.3個，這說明學生平時很少關心時事。最後一項文藝作品，也只能填寫7.5個，這也可以看出學生平日很少閱讀文藝作品。

就上述四項完形填充測驗的整體成績而言，其閱讀理解能力平均只達20%。若以20%的理解能力去閱讀報章書刊，是否能夠了解有關篇章的完整內容或大意呢？在新加坡，還沒見過有關這方面的研究報告，無從考查。

不過，根據西方學者的研究報告，英文篇章的閱讀理解能力，可以從完形填充的三個等級去衡量讀者的水平，這三個等級的劃分大致如下：

55%-60%　獨立閱讀水平
40%-54%　輔導閱讀水平
35%-40%　低下閱讀水平

所謂獨立水平(Independent Level)，顧名思義，意指無需旁人指導，就能大致讀懂原文；而輔導水平(Instructional level)，意指尚需旁人略作指導，或給提示，或給線索，或略作解釋才能讀懂原文；至於低下水平(Frustration level)，當然是指在一般閱讀水準以下，無法讀懂原文。這次考核，高二學生的理解水平，只及輔導水平的一半，以此類推，要他們閱讀報章雜誌，恐會如履薄冰，困難重重了。

六、結語——有待商榷的一些問題

前面說過，本文的主要目的有二：一為探求高二學生認字辨詞的能力；二為窺測他們的閱讀理解能力。測量結果，學生認字辨詞的能力堪稱理想，總成績達72.4%，其中辨認單字達69.7%，辨識詞語和成語分別是73.6%和74.0%。這是通過四個備選答案的多項選擇題進行測驗所得出的成績。

然而，不用選擇題，而是通過書寫詞語的完形填充來測量他們的理解能力，表現卻迥然有別，平均成績只有20%，屬劣等水平，原因何在？如何補救？值得商榷。

眾所周知，新加坡學生平時的練習或測驗，諸如辨字測驗、詞義測驗、詞語解釋、詞辨練習、選詞填充、配詞練習、選擇適當的虛詞、連接句子、填寫適當的句子、解釋句子畫線的部分、理解測驗、理解問答等等，名目可真不少，但這些練習或測驗，由小學、中學而至初級學院，十之八九是以多項選擇式命題，學生不是勾1、2、3或4，就是圈A、B、C或D。如此勾勾圈圈的選擇題，往往助長學生猜題，已是不爭的事實。有

人做過測驗，在同一個項目中，學生只選A或B，命中率達四分一，甚至沒有任何華文知識背景的淡米爾族和馬來族學生，答對率可達26%至41%(梁：1990)[3]。因此，通過選擇題的練習或測驗，儘管項目頗多，但是否能夠按部就班訓練學生的四會能力，有待商榷。

這次的完形填充測驗，是採用填詞方式而不是單字(單詞)，難度較高，所以成績只有20%。若是填寫單字，其表現如何呢？有待另行測驗。不過，可暫拿中學生的測驗做參考，其成績是27.09%(吳：1988)[4]，可見無論填寫詞語還是單字，成績都不理想。

完形填充是一種引導、訓練學生利用上下文之間的關聯理解整篇文章的方法。學生要在留空處填入意義上、語法上正確的字或詞，須集中注意力進行推理判斷，而這種推理判斷，又離不開詞匯、語法和篇章結構等知識。因此，完形填充是一種用來檢驗學生的理解能力和應用能力的有效方法。近年來，在英語教學的世界中，在對外漢語教學領域裏，完形程序法已成為教師訓練與考核學生語言的一個重要環節，我國中小學的華文教學、測驗與考試，是否要引進完形程序法，以提高華文的理解能力和運用能力，也是值得商榷的一件事。

附錄

表一　測試成績(N＝209)

測試項目	題數	信度	平均數(標準差)	百分比
認字辨詞				
單字	150	0.96	104.5 (24.9)	69.7
詞語	80	0.94	58.9 (14.8)	73.6
成語	30	0.91	22.2 (6.8)	74.0
理解能力				
本地新聞	40	0.77	10.7 (5.6)	26.8
消閒娛樂	40	0.67	7.6 (4.2)	19.0
國際時事	40	0.66	5.3 (3.6)	13.3
文藝作品	40	0.74	7.5 (4.7)	18.8

表二　相關系數

理解能力	認字辨詞		
	單字	詞語	成語
本地新聞	0.666	0.637	0.384
消閒娛樂	0.664	0.581	0.426
國際時事	0.547	0.576	0.407
文藝作品	0.437	0.513	0.487
中數	0.606	0.579	0.417

表三　回歸分析

準則	預測變異(%)				
理解能力	單字	詞語	成語	總變異(%)	多元回歸係數(R)
熟悉事務*	40.42	15.44	−0.88	54.98	0.7415
生疏事務*	6.56	21.75	8.86	37.17	0.6097
理解總分	28.45	23.35	4.18	55.98	0.7482

*熟悉事務包括本地新聞與消閒娛樂。

*生疏事務包括國際時事與文藝作品。

附註

① 標準測差計算用公式：$SEM = S\sqrt{1-r_{tt}}$。公式中的S是標準差(Standard deviation)，而r_{tt}是信度，信度以KR21為準。

② 掌握程度的推算法用公式：$X \pm 2.58$ SEM，再換成百分率。

③ 參見梁榮基：《利用多項選擇來測定學生語文能力的利弊》，載《世界華文教學研討會論文集》第689-692頁，新加坡華文研究會，1990。

④ 參見吳英成：《以克漏字測驗探討新加坡的華語教學問題》，載《第二屆國際漢語教學討論會論文選》第107-113頁，北京語言學院出版社，1988。

SUPPORTING CURRICULUM CHANGE

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In this short article I shall offer some suggestions of ways in which teachers can best be supported in the process of curriculum change. The article is not intended to reflect 'received wisdom' from research; it is an impressionistic account which draws on my own experiences in U.K. over the last seven years. I believe that these may have some relevance to the situation in Hong Kong as Targets and Target-Related Assessment (TTRA) is introduced stage-by-stage into the territory's primary and secondary schools.

My own experience of supporting curriculum change has been gained through involvement with two national curriculum initiatives in U.K. – the National Writing Project (NWP) and the Language in the National Curriculum Project (LINC). I shall give most attention to LINC since the circumstances of the introduction of the National Curriculum most closely parallel those of TTRA.

The National Writing Project

The experience of leading a local part of the NWP – based in Sheffield and called the Sheffield Writing at the Transition Project (which produces the happy acronym SWATT!) – fed into the LINC Project in significant ways.

The NWP was set up in 1985 as a collaboration between several Local Education Authorities (LEAs) and the School Curriculum Development Committee (SCDC). In each LEA there was a high degree of autonomy in determining the focus of the local project. In Sheffield we opted to look at continuities/discontinuities in pupils' experiences of writing as they moved from primary to secondary phases of schooling. The decision to take this focus was based on negotiations with local advisors and a steering committee on which teachers were represented – an important factor since it gave teachers a sense of ownership from the outset of the project.

The initial stage of the work was to investigate the nature of the transitional experience. We collected data and analysed this to reveal what we considered to be significant aspects of pupils' writing experiences as they moved from primary to secondary school. The findings are fully reported in Harris, Horner and Tunnard (1986). Among the most significant findings are:

- attention to the processes of writing was very rare at both primary and secondary stages;
- a very low proportion of writing at secondary level was in the pupils' own words;

- pupils rarely had the opportunity to formulate and express opinions in writing;
- science writing at secondary level consisted of only copied instructions or dictated notes;
- there was little writing other than narrative at primary level, apart from 'topic' writing which was commonly copied.

These findings did not, in fact, surprise us since they had been highlighted in various HM1 reports published in the late 1970s (see, for instance, DES 1978 and 1979). Nevertheless, the fact that our findings were based on locally collected data argued for proceeding in a sensitive way because of the implications that current practice was inadequate; and this, we felt, would be threatening to teachers.

A further factor led us to proceed with caution; and that was the very low morale of teachers at the time. In 1985/6 teachers were engaged in a long drawn-out pay dispute accompanied by industrial action in the form of a work-to-rule. They were also suffering from a systematic, but unprincipled, attack on their professionalism led by Government spokespersons including the Prime Minister and Secretary of State for Education. This attack was clearly motivated by a political agenda which included the undermining of the power of trade unions but also by an ideological agenda that sought by ridicule to redress what were perceived as the excesses of the 'liberal' educational establishment. It was not difficult for us to conclude that in such circumstances what teachers needed was support rather than further threats.

Our strategies for coping with this situation were to create open discussion of our findings, which meant we did not address groups of teachers with the assumption that what we had found about current practice was wrong; rather to present our findings, and invite reactions. Sessions were organised with a minimal factual input to allow as much time as possible for small group discussions and feed-back. The project team acted very much as facilitators of the discussion. Thus teachers were able to formulate their own reactions and then identify which aspect(s) of our findings, if any, they wanted to address in developing their own classroom practice.

As the project progressed we were able to offer support in several ways to the teachers who had opted to undertake development in their own classroom—

- team teaching (including planning) in which members of the project team worked with an individual teacher in his or her classroom for a short period of time on a teaching programme determined by the teacher – we found that this teamwork was particularly valuable in unlocking the paralysis that so often grips people when contemplating change;
- the establishment of groups of teachers working on the same or adjacent areas so that they could meet (after school or, occasionally, on half-day release) to exchange experiences, approaches and materials. These groups eventually produced pamphlets which the

project team edited, published and distributed to all schools in the area;

- the establishment of networks to link up teachers with similar concerns who were unable to join a group but wished to have continued contact with colleagues;
- the devising and publication of an in-service pack of activities and materials that would enable teachers to continue their professional development in their own school context, with the possibility of the involvement of either all their colleagues or of a number of colleagues. This, of course, would vary depending on the school. We worked in primary schools with a total staff of less than twenty and in comprehensives with a staff of over a hundred. In comprehensives, we were keen not to work only with English departments. Since we were looking at writing we wanted the focus to be on all subjects that involved writing.

On a small scale, then, this local part of the NWP established the following approaches to supporting curriculum change:

- negotiation with teachers to create priorities;
- establishing groups of teachers in schools to support each other;
- establishing wider networks of teachers also to support each other;
- production and publication of materials by the groups of teachers;
- materials for continued professional development that were designed to foster an active-learning approach.

This last item – the active-learning or activity-based approach to in-service development – was extended to other parts of the NWP and the workshop materials produced across the country formed one of the end-of-project publications (NWP 1989).

LINC – The Language in the National Curriculum Project

By the end of the NWP in the summer of 1988, the legal foundation of the National Curriculum had been put in place through the Education Reform Act of the same year. The framework for assessment, the 'Black Report' (DES, 1987), was also already in place. Teachers were in a mood of sullen resentment at this quite unprecedented political interference in education. They were quite unprepared for the imposition of a curriculum, hitherto the concern of local authorities, headteachers and, to a considerable extent, individual teachers (except, of course, in secondary year 4 and beyond where the examination syllabus dictates the curriculum). They were not consulted, initially, over the National Curriculum proposals; access to in-service training was adversely affected by changes in the funding arrangements. There were also proposals, particularly affecting primary teachers, for introducing, as compulsory areas of the curriculum, subjects such as science and technology, which the vast majority of generalist primary teachers felt ill-equipped to teach.

In this difficult context, practices of the teaching of English were also called into question, first by the Kingman Report (DES, 1988) and then by

1245

the draft proposals for English the National Curriculum – finalised in the official document of March 1990 (DES, 1990). It was a period of rapid change, of persistent rumour, of high communal anxiety and much individual stress. The teaching of English was generally perceived by teachers as an area of the curriculum that needed little change and, therefore, little support. With the publication of the reports on English, however, the situation changed dramatically. It became apparent that teachers needed to know about the forms and structures of English. This may seem strange to readers in Hong Kong, but in U.K. linguistics or language study has not formed part of, nor has it informed, mother-tongue English teaching which has been concerned, principally, with literature, creative writing and social and personal development through a thematic or topic-based approach. Thus, what had appeared to be one of the few 'safe' areas was suddenly revealed as yet another minefield.

This was the situation when the LINC Project was established, directly funded by DES, to ensure that all primary teachers and all secondary teachers of English were trained in the knowledge of the English Language specified by the Kingman Report. I was asked to act as joint coordinator for a consortium of the five local authorities in the South Yorkshire and Humberside area of England – along with a colleague I was seconded on a half time basis from my duties as Head of Academic Development in the School of Education at Sheffield City Polytechnic. Professor Ron Carter of Nottingham University was appointed as the National Coordinator.

The DES planned (and funded) the LINC Project on the 'cascade' model – i.e. at the first stage of 'training' local authority appointees were to receive a year's full-time training in those areas of linguistics identified by the Kingman Report as needed by all teachers. These appointees (one per local authority), in turn, would give five days of training to language coordinators/ consultants in each primary school in the authority while the regional coordinators gave a similar training to the Heads of English Departments (Panel Chairpersons) in all the secondary schools in the consortium. Language coordinators would then be expected to train all the staff in their schools using some of the regular allocation of school-based curriculum or 'Baker' days (5 per annum). Heads of English were to do the same for their departments; no provision was made for teachers of other subjects.

It was, in fact, a proposal of considerable ineptitude; and it also carried messages of imposition, of the inadequacy of teachers and of a heavily transmissive mode of in-service training. Added to that was a widespread feeling that the proposals of the Kingman Report, whatever their merits as a linguistics course, were not mediated for teaching purposes in an appropriate way. This was a view held not only by teachers but by a large number of linguists.

However, from these inauspicious beginnings the LINC Project became well-regarded by teachers and local authority advisors. It received what is believed to have been a favourable report from HM1 (Her Majesty's

Inspectorate) – this cannot be verified because publication of the report was suppressed by Kenneth Clarke, then Secretary of State for Education. The materials produced by the project are widely sought after, not just in U.K., but world-wide, including in Hong Kong – again despite a ban on publication by the Government. The 'reader' produced by the project team nationally has headed the publishers' educational sales list for over a year (see Carter (ed.), 1990). It is an extraordinary turn-about in fortune; and, it seems to me, the approach to supporting curriculum change merits attention, the more so once this turn-about is appreciated.

I suggested at the beginning of this article that the experiences of working on the NWP influenced the LINC Project. Apart from myself, there were six other LINC regional coordinators, out of the total of twenty four, who had previously worked on the NWP. Since there were significant differences between the two projects a major issue was how far the approaches that had proved to be successful on the NWP could be transferred to LINC. The difference included:

NWP	*LINC*
Voluntary participation; supporting desirable developments in the writing curriculum;	obligatory participation; supporting statutory curriculum requirements for the teaching of English;
small-scale with only a selection of LEAs involved and only a small proportion of teachers within those authorities.	large-scale and intended to involve every primary teacher and all secondary teachers of English in England and Wales.

As this project developed, however, it became apparent that because of these differences and particularly because of the statutory nature of the National Curriculum it was all the more important to include and refine some of the approaches to in-service that had been pioneered during the NWP. It should, of course, be borne in mind that the LINC approaches and perceptions were developed through, literally, thousands of in-service sessions – some highly successful, some disastrous and many somewhere in between these extremes!

Lessons from LINC

I shall devote the rest of the article to making observations on ten aspects of the LINC approach. These points, which are not listed in any order of priority, are:

1. Don't attempt to cover everything at once – avoid lectures and set up as much group work as possible;
2. Engage as fully as possible with teachers' current experiences and practices as points of departure;
3. Never dictate about what must be done – avoid, at all costs, an authoritarian stance;

4. Accept that you will be the target of hostility and be prepared to cope with it;
5. Be honest and open about difficulties;
6. Give due regard to teachers' existing knowledge and expertise;
7. Use activities that promote participation and active learning – support these by commentaries where appropriate;
8. Help teachers to identify important issues, give guidance but don't prescribe solutions;
9. Use authentic illustrative materials;
10. Involve teachers in the development and trialling of materials.

1. *Don't attempt to cover everything at once*

   It is a common fault with teaching and with in-service work in particular, that pressures of time and the desire for comprehensive coverage lead people to abandon good principles of teaching. With major curriculum initiatives this is particularly the case. The developers will naturally feel that every nicety of phrasing, every detailed point is important – often because they will have debated and revised such points many times in the development stage – but teachers are not engaged in the same way and will simply 'switch off' if they are bombarded by the fine details of frameworks, concepts and specifications, often in alien terminology, which take a lot of time to absorb.

   On the LINC project we had strong sense that we needed to 'cover' a vast amount of linguistics and all aspects of the requirements for English in the National Curriculum. Yet, it was quickly apparent that engaging in restricted and carefully selected areas enabled teachers to begin to fill in parts of the whole design for themselves. This really amounts to little more than saying that the transmission of great amounts of information is, ultimately, counter-productive. Enabling teachers, however, to develop an independence through which they take responsibility for their own continuing development within the context of a curriculum initiative is infinitely more helpful.

   It follows that group discussion is a more enabling approach than lecturing which tends to foster passivity and dependence.

2. *Engage as fully as possible with teachers' current experiences and practices*

   All curriculum change that is imposed runs the risk of 'de-skilling' teachers (i.e. making them feel inadequate, unprepared and incapable of coping). This is particularly true in a situation (as with the LINC project) where there is both a likely change in teaching styles and also new knowledge to be absorbed. If teachers are intrinsically motivated to acquire new knowledge and new aspects of professional practice, that is a positive outcome. The reverse, however, is more likely; and sensitivity to this issue is, therefore, of great importance. One must start from where teachers are in their existing perceptions of teaching.

3. *Never dictate about what must be done*

   This is really a simple point. If curriculum change is imposed by statute (as in the case of the National Curriculum), it is a self-evident matter that if, in in-service work, you dictate to teachers about courses of action you ally yourself with the regulatory powers. In an 'us and them' situation you become identified with 'them'. This usually leads to a pretty swift rejection of whatever you say or suggest. It is not necessary to 'curry favour'; a stance of neutrality is possible and is likely to be respected.

4. *Accept that you will be the target of hostility*

   Apart from a few restless souls, most people cannot cope well with change. Change produces stress and people express their sense of stress through hostility to whoever is immediately accessible and identified with the agents of change. Therefore, whether it is just or not, it is one part of the role of people supporting curriculum change to absorb the hostility. It is important to recognise that this is not personally directed, though it may often be hurtful. Many times on the LINC Project I have wanted to protest that "It's not my fault. I've just been told to run these sessions. Blame the Government!" However, experience has suggested that it is much better to make a minimum of comment, to allow opportunities for teachers to 'let off steam' and to avoid at all costs any type of confrontation.

   On the positive side, people who complained bitterly at the outset of the LINC Project were often those who wrote or spoke most enthusiastically in their evaluations at the end of the Project.

5. *Be honest and open about difficulties*

   When involved in supporting curriculum change the in-service provider is likely to feel caught between loyalty to the curriculum developers, on the one hand, and the teachers (the curriculum deliverers) on the other. This can lead to a glossing over of difficulties which will leave teachers dissatisfied. With the requirements for English in the National Curriculum, there were several areas of difficulty – hardly surprising in view of the speed of development. There is no point served in trying to hide such difficulties – pretending they do not exist does not eliminate them in reality. It is much more positive to acknowledge them openly, create debate and invite teachers to formulate their own solutions.

6. *Give due regard to teachers' existing knowledge and expertise*

   On the LINC Project there was a risk that knowledge about language would be perceived by teachers as a new area into which they had to be forcibly inducted – again, with the strong implication of an imposed agenda. With language, of course, there is an important distinction to be made between implicit and explicit knowledge. We all know a great deal about language implicitly because we are skilful users of language. We were able, in the course of the project, to utilise this implicit knowledge to good effect and to offer ways of making it more principled and systematic; and this is essentially what the study of linguistics is about. The same is true of teaching. Teachers have great funds of experience and expertise which should not be ignored, but should provide the points of departure in creating change. It is sometimes surprising how probing existing experiences brings to light dissatisfactions that suggest a readiness for change.

7. *Activity-based materials and the use of commentaries*

Probably the greatest success of the LINC Project has been the actual design of the in-service development materials. The process of developing these was lengthy - well over a year of drafting and revising, with many weekends locked in hotel rooms and many holidays passing unnoticed. However, the design is basically a simple one:

- identify a teaching/learning issue;
- present a relevant activity in which teachers can participate actively;
- follow this up with a commentary that highlights significant aspects of the experience and relates the perceptions to the development of classroom practice;
- offer suggestions for further, classroom-based follow-up work, in the nature of small-scale action research.

The nature of the activities in the LINC materials varies considerably. There are fairly obvious and conventional ones such as studying a sequence of writing as a text is created through a series of drafts; there are some games that highlight teaching points; there are readings for 'jigsaw' groupings. There are sets of texts with analytical frameworks which can be applied. Some activities would last for ten minutes; others could occupy a whole morning.

Commentaries are important to reinforce the workshop experience of the activity. These provide necessary guidance if teachers have to use the materials without an in-service provider being present. Thus, the commentaries need to be able to stand by themselves.

8. *Identifying issues without prescribing solutions*

Part of the aim of the activity approach was to enable teachers to come to see what were likely to be the major issues in implementing English in the National Curriculum. A judicious mix of leading and pushing meant that, as far as possible, teachers came to identify crucial issues for themselves. Thus they were motivated to seek solutions. Again, group work enabled them to debate solutions rather than to sit passively and be told what to do.

9. *Use of authentic illustrative materials*

This may sound an obvious point. In fact, it is extremely difficult to support curriculum change with authentic materials simply because existing practice may not produce the desired examples. On LINC we overcome this very real problem only partially. We found that teachers who became involved early on with the project were able to supply examples of materials. In the initial stages, there were problems in not being able to obtain suitable examples of classroom work (children's writing, tape and video examples of talk and so on). It is, of course, vital to ensure credibility by the choice of appropriate examples. Teachers are very quick to denigrate anything that appears to them non-authentic. Interestingly, teachers have often praised the final materials for their authenticity. The officials who criticised the materials and eventually banned publication did so, in part, because they felt the materials contained unfortunate examples (of bad writing, sloppy speech, non-standard forms and so on).

10. *Involvement of teachers in the development and trialling of the materials*

    This is a crucial part of supporting curriculum change. If teachers are involved in the process of developing materials it gives them a strong sense of ownership and the materials the stamp of authenticity. It takes time and energy to organise, but the pay-off makes it worthwhile.

Conclusion

These, then, are some thoughts drawn from experience of ways in which we can support curriculum change. There are, of course, implications in terms of costs and in terms of the time-scale. However, in a context in which TTRA is being introduced with its emphasis on an active, task-based approach to learning, it would be ironic if the in-service support did not also incorporate an active-learning approach.

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AND SO TO B.ED – The University of Hong Kong Bachelor of Education programme

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Introduction

The Faculty of Education of the University of Hong Kong (HKU) has recently initiated a B.Ed. programme. Starting in 1991–92 with a 4-year part-time course for serving teachers in the area of special educational needs (known as the B.Ed. Children with Learning Difficulties), the programme will be extended in 1992–93 with the commencement of two similar courses. One of these will be specifically for teachers of Physical Education (the B.Ed. Physical Education and Sport Science). The other will be for teachers of a variety of subjects who work with students in the upper primary—junior secondary age range (the B.Ed. Primary/Secondary). There will be an intake for the latter from two subject areas each year: the first cohort will be teachers of English and Maths. Then, in 1993–94 (having been postponed from 1992–93 because of the Government's decision to cut back its proposed increase in tertiary places), a 4-year full-time B.Ed. in Language Education will be launched. When the course is fully operational there will be an intake each year of 30 prospective teachers of either Chinese Language and Literature or English. This paper will begin by sketching in some of the background to the creation of the HKU part-time B.Ed. programme and will go on to discuss in detail the programme to be offered to serving language teachers. It will then describe briefly the background to, and contents of, the full-time pre-service B.Ed.in Language Education.

The HKU part-time B.Ed.: the Background

For several years now, in one government report after another, there have been calls for an enhanced in-service training provision in Hong Kong to give non-graduate teachers the chance to study for additional qualifications in order that they might continue to develop professionally and also have the opportunity to prepare for future leadership roles within their schools. Graduate teachers have enjoyed the possibility of Certificate, Advanced Diploma, M.Ed., M.Phil. and Ph.D study for some time. The opportunities for Hong Kong's non-graduate teachers have by comparison been severely limited, although the desire of many such teachers for self-improvement is apparent to anyone involved in education and can be clearly illustrated by the large numbers who endure considerable financial expense and personal and family inconvenience to undertake 1-year full-time B.Ed. programmes in countries like the UK, at institutions such as Wolverhampton Polytechnic.

1252

This broad recommendation of improved in-service teacher education opportunities for non-graduates in general has frequently been accompanied by a particular reference to the needs of Primary School teachers, who have had no tailor-made degree programmes until very recently (the Chinese University's 4-year part-time programme, which began in 1988) and no salary reward for achieving graduate status. This specific point was emphasised by the 1982 Visiting Panel of experts whose views were published in the so-called Llewellyn report,

> ... steps must be taken to enhance the status of primary school teachers and extend career structures for all ... (Visiting Panel, 1982: 89)

and again,

> Primary school teaching in particular lacks prestige. This is aggravated by the fact that there are no degree courses to prepare Primary School teachers, nor even a separate salary scale for primary graduates. Such omissions should be rectified. (p90).

One of the recurrent suggestions for filling the perceived 'qualification gap' has been the introduction of B.Ed. programmes. A government report on the Hong Kong education system prepared primarily for the Visiting Panel and published in 1981 raised this possibility when speaking of the potential benefits of closer links between the Teachers' Colleges and the Schools of Education of the Universities,

> ... association with one or both of the universities would certainly be in keeping with overseas systems of teacher education which have proved generally beneficial to the students concerned, and [would] provide opportunities for the more able non-graduate teachers to improve their qualifications (in some cases, perhaps, acquiring B.Ed. degrees). (Hong Kong Government, 1981: 102).

The possibility of closer ties between the Colleges and the Universities has not been followed up as a priority issue in recent years. Indeed, the fifth Education Commission report has specifically come out against any such move, preferring to recommend instead the upgrading of the Colleges and the ILE into an autonomous Institute of Education (ECR5, June 1992: 59-60). The possibility of an in-service degree course for teachers has, however, been taken up in successive Education Commission reports. The first of these reports, published in 1984, came out strongly in support of the Chinese University's proposal to introduce a Bachelor's degree in Primary Education,

> We are aware that there is a proposal currently in hand to introduce a Bachelor degree course in Primary Education to promote leadership at the Primary School level. We endorse this proposal and recommend its early implementation. (ECR1, 1984: 58).

Two years later, the Commission's second report noted that this had been the only recommendation from ECR1 not accepted by the Government for implementation and set out the case for such a programme once more,

> A three-year part-time degree course is required to provide adequate opportunities for the holders of these highly responsible posts to

> develop their grasp of issues of both educational theory and educational management; and to provide more time for them to strengthen their leadership by trying out in their own schools the practical applications of their training. (ECR2, 1986: 106).

ECR2 recommended that the proposed Chinese University course be introduced not later than 1991. It also recommended, among other things, that there should be graduate posts and salary increments for graduates in Primary Schools and that there should be a B.Ed. programme for non-graduate teachers in charge of practical, technical and cultural subjects in secondary schools.

ECR3 remarked that at least some of its predecessor's recommendations had received the Governor's blessing,

> In February 1988, the Governor in Council endorsed our recommendations, subject to the availability of funds, in the following terms:
>
> (c) the Government should declare its support for the introduction of a Bachelor of Arts course in primary education for heads of primary schools and special schools;
>
> (d) graduate teacher posts in schools should be provided for the teaching of practical, technical and cultural subjects; (ECR3, 1988: 9–10)

This may not have been exactly a ringing endorsement of B.Ed. programmes, but it at least indicated the beginning of a move towards a broadening of the range of areas of the profession in which one could eventually expect to find graduates. The fourth Report (ECR4, 1990), rather than addressing issues of teacher education itself, identified the need to do so in a separate report, the long-awaited ECR5, which was finally published in June 1992.

There had been expectations that ECR5 would urge the government to move as quickly as practicable towards an all-graduate teaching profession. It also appeared likely that any such recommendation would be greeted sympathetically by the government. For instance, the former Secretary for Education and Manpower, K. Y. Yeung, had said in an address to graduating students of the HKU Faculty of Education (6th October 1990) that an all-graduate profession would be a desirable aim, though one which might not realistically be achieved in the 1990s. It seemed, therefore, that the government already saw a policy goal of this sort as a key element in any attempt at an overall upgrading of the teaching profession.

In the event, the recommendations in ECR5 were for about 35% of primary teaching posts to be upgraded to graduate status within 15 years. It was felt by the Commission that it was not realistic to consider a firm time-scale for the achievement of an all-graduate teaching profession. As a first step, a figure of 35% within 15 years was thought to represent both a realistic target and one which was sufficiently large to make a significant difference to the quality of education,

> We agree that this [an all-graduate profession] is a desirable goal, but it cannot be reached quickly. We believe that our proposals define a realistic first stage towards the goal. (ECR5, 1992: 6).

In any move towards the creation of an all-graduate teaching profession, the B.Ed. would be expected to have a central role to play, as it has in countries such as Australia and the UK. The arguments in favour of ultimately making teaching an all-graduate profession and, with that aim in view, introducing B.Ed. programmes on a wide scale seem overpowering if there is, indeed, any serious wish to raise the standards of teaching and teachers, enhance the status of teaching as a profession and improve the quality of teacher education. B.Eds. also have a vital part to play in breaking down unnecessary and unhealthy divisions within the profession and ensuring that qualifications are comparable between teachers working in different sectors.

> Distinctions between non-graduate/primary and graduate/secondary teachers are out-dated; their continuity is divisive and harmful to the status, esteem and function of teachers. They fail to acknowledge the demands made of all teachers in a modern, developed society which are, whilst different, no less challenging and significant for pre-primary and primary teachers than for their secondary counterparts. If concern for quality and high standards is to be more than rhetoric or lip-service then societies must expect all of their teachers to be well educated and professionally trained. (Cooke 1991: 21–22).

ECR5 undoubtedly took such views into account when making its final recommendations: that two types of degree course should be designed specifically for local primary teachers – one a four (year) part-time in-service course, the other a two (year) full-time pre-service course. Of the proposed in-service courses ECR5 said,

> They should equip trained and experienced teachers with the knowledge and skills needed for instructional and managerial leadership in primary schools, and could comprise at least the following components: education theory ... subject expertise ... education management ... and specialisms ... (ECR5, June 1992: 49–50).

It has been in anticipation of ECR5 and its expected recommendations that HKU's Faculty of Education has embarked upon the creation of its wide-ranging B.Ed. programme with the three specialist fields of study referred to in the Introduction. The next section of this paper will discuss the development of the 4-year part-time B.Ed. Primary/Secondary course with particular reference to the pattern of study for teachers of English and Chinese.

The HKU B.Ed. Primary/Secondary: the Content

The course is intended for practising certificated teachers who have been working in the profession for at least two years. A decision was taken at an early stage of planning not to limit the course to only one of the two levels: upper primary or junior secondary. The focus of the course will, therefore, be the full range of the school years primary 4 to secondary 3. Course participants will normally be serving teachers working within that range, although there will be occasional exceptions (for instance, head teachers and college lecturers).

In offering teachers of upper primary/junior secondary classes the opportunity to gain a first degree, the aim is to enhance the expertise of teachers within their present chosen sector and to enable them to take up leadership roles within the profession. It is intended, for instance, that this B.Ed. should provide a route for serving primary teachers to qualify for the anticipated graduate posts in that sector, as referred to, for example, in ECR5 (chapter 4). It is *not* the intention to provide a means whereby teachers of upper primary and junior secondary classes can convert themselves into senior secondary teachers, although it would not, of course, be possible to prevent B.Ed. graduates from applying for posts in a different sector.

In contrast with the other options of routes to a first degree currently available to the non-graduate Hong Kong teacher (such as the programme offered by Wolverhampton Polytechnic), the HKU B.Ed. is tailored to the needs of a relatively homogeneous group of course participants; it is sensitive to Hong Kong educational issues and it does not involve the inconvenience and expense of overseas study. For these reasons among others the demand for places is likely to be far in excess of the forty places available each year.

The specific aims of the course are as follows:

(1) to extend teachers' understanding of education as a human enterprise, its social context and its provision, with particular reference to Hong Kong;

(2) to improve teachers' understanding of the teaching-learning process, and to strengthen the quality of their work in classrooms or other educational settings;

(3) to enhance the capacity of teachers to engage positively in wider professional activities, especially curriculum development;

(4) to offer preparation for various leadership roles in schools;

(5) to extend teachers' personal education, particularly in subject areas that relate to the school curriculum.

The course consists of 32 modules, 8 per year, each module involving 15 hours' contact time. The academic year is divided into two 10-week semesters. Within any one semester a student will take 4 modules. Teaching will take place on two evenings each week.

The course will have a dual focus – the study of education and the study of an academic subject. More than two-thirds of the modules are in one of these two areas. There will be no supervised teaching practice as such, since a practicum will have formed a substantial part of the 2-or 3-year initial training received by all B.Ed. course participants in whichever college they attended. There will, however, be an opportunity to focus upon methodological issues in the more practically-oriented modules.

The three main components of the B.Ed. Primary/Secondary course are (1) *Educational Studies*, (2) *Subject Studies* and (3) *Pedagogical Studies*:

(1) As one would expect of a B.Ed., the course has at its core the study of education. 13 of the 32 modules are concerned with *Educational Studies*, 5 of them in the first year alone (Psychology of learning, Language and learning, the Hong Kong education system, Children with learning difficulties and Childhood and adolescence). The other 8 *Educational Studies* modules are Curriculum design and development, Understanding educational enquiry, Social perspectives in education, Concepts and values in education, Guidance and counselling, Assessment and evaluation, the Nature of teaching and learning and Personal and social education.

(2) At the same time, in order that course participants should be able to develop their personal academic education, they will take 10 modules of undergraduate-level *Subject Studies*. Two of the 10 modules will be Foundation modules in different subject areas, each giving an overview of the nature of that subject area. The remaining 8 modules will be specialised study within one of the two subject areas available to a particular cohort. Those taking *Subject Studies* in *English* will study the following modules:

(1) Introduction to language and linguistics (Foundation)
(2) Phonetics/phonology and the teaching of pronunciation
(3) Lexis and semantics
(4) Morphology and syntax
(5) Pedagogical grammar
(6) & (7) Introduction to spoken and written discourse
(8) Language and society
(9) First and second language learning

The *Subject Studies* modules for *Chinese language and literature* (likely to be on offer to the 1993-94 cohort) will be as follows:

(1) Modern Chinese language (Foundation)
(2) Classical Chinese language
(3) Developing reading and writing skills
(4) Modern Chinese literature (1917-1949)
(5) Contemporary Chinese literature since 1949
(6) Classical Chinese literature (the pre-Qin period)
(7)-(9) 3 from the following:
    (*a*) Classical Chinese literature (from the Han to Qing dynasty)
    (*b*) Children's literature
    (*c*) Putonghua and Cantonese
    (*d*) Psycholinguistic aspects of Chinese language
    (*e*) Language and communication
    (*f*) Chinese culture and language

(3) In order to enhance course participants' professional expertise in the classroom, and also to provide a direct contact between the

programme and their daily work, a sequence of five modules are devoted to *Pedagogical Studies*. These modules will cover the methods and practice of teaching in general with some specialisation in specific subject areas. They will focus on the school years Primary 4 to Secondary 3. *Pedagogical Studies* modules will recognise that course participants are qualified and practising teachers. While school-based activity may be part of the prescribed syllabus, there will be no element of supervised teaching nor any attempt to assess teaching performance.

In addition to the above, course participants will have the opportunity to take two elective modules. The equivalent of a further two modules is allotted to study towards completion of a dissertation.

The HKU B.Ed. in Language Education : the Background

The background to the development of the full-time B.Ed. course (now due to start in 1993–94) is somewhat different from that of the part-time in-service B.Ed., the origins of which can be found, as we have seen, amongst recommendations in government papers and Education Commission reports going back over several years. The history of the full-time B.Ed. is somewhat shorter, whilst the course itself represents an attempt to begin to address a separate problem – the shortage of well-qualified language teachers in secondary schools.

The 1989 'Report Of The Working Group Set Up To Review Language Improvement Measures' identified the problem quite explicitly:

> 4.1.3 It is estimated that 45% of teachers of Chinese in secondary schools are untrained and that 28% are not subject-trained;
>
> 4.1.4 It is estimated that 46% of teachers of English in secondary schools are not subject-trained.
>
> (Education Department, 1989: 60)

This would certainly seem to be borne out by recent experience with HKU's part-time in-service PCEd., where amongst the English Majors, for instance, a course participant who had actually majored in English in his/her first degree studies would be very much the exception.

ECR5 made a similar observation,

> We are concerned about the shortage of competent language teachers. Few tertiary graduates with language degrees become school teachers; so many senior secondary forms are taught English or Chinese by graduates of other subjects.
>
> (ECR5, 1992: 75)

The Commission went on to say,

> We envisage that there might be considerable interest in local language-teaching first degree courses.
>
> (ECR5, 1992: 76)

The 4-year full-time B.Ed. represents a first step towards attempting to redress the balance a little by providing pre-service degree-level training tailored to the needs of prospective language teachers. The course offers,

1258

in a single programme, the equivalent of a 3-year honours degree plus a 1-year post-graduate certificate of education of the University of Hong Kong. The main difference between the B.Ed. and the current conventional way of achieving Graduate Teacher status is that in the B.Ed. degree subject courses are integrated with professional courses and with school and classroom experience throughout the four years of the programme.

It is hoped that the introduction of this course will encourage high-quality students to commit themselves (psychologically, at least) to language teaching at the beginning of their undergraduate careers, so that each year (from 1997 onwards) the profession will benefit from an injection of fully-trained, talented and well-motivated personnel. The initial signs are encouraging – there were nearly 1300 JUPAS applicants for 30 places in 1993, suggesting that there is indeed considerable interest in local language-teaching first degree courses – although it remains to be seen whether the 1-year postponement of the starting-date (from 1992 to 1993) has a dampening effect on the interest leading to a reduction in the number and quality of applicants.

The HKU B.Ed. in Language Education: the Content

The full-time B.Ed. will have two separate streams. One stream will concentrate on the study and teaching of Chinese Language and Literature. The other stream will concentrate on the study of English Language, Linguistics and Literature and the teaching of English Language and Literature.

There are a number of similarities between this course and the part-time B.Ed. Students will, for instance, take roughly the same number of identically-titled Educational Studies modules. However, because students on the full-time course will have had no previous specialist subject study at tertiary level and no professional training or school experience/practicum, these three latter components of the course will receive much greater emphasis than on the part-time programme. In addition, and in contrast with the part-time programme, students on the full-time course will take modules in Language Proficiency and Computer Literacy in their 1st year.

The course will consist of 72 modules. Each module will last for the equivalent of 20 class contact hours (as opposed to the 15 hours for the part-time programme) and will usually be taken during one term. The course is broken down into 8 major sections. These sections are as follows:

(1) Language Proficiency	5 modules
(2) Computer Literacy (Wordprocessing skills)	1 module
(3) Main Subject Studies (Chinese or English)	27 modules (English) 28 modules (Chinese)
(4) Educational Studies	13 modules (English) 12 modules (Chinese)
(5) Professional Studies	8 modules

(6)	Dissertation	2 modules
(7)	School experience and practicum	11 modules
(8)	Overseas experience	5 modules

The Main Subject Studies for English Majors will be within the following areas: Phonetics, phonology and the teaching of pronunciation; Lexis, semantics and the teaching of vocabulary; Morphology, syntax and pedagogical grammar; Spoken and written discourse; Pragmatics; Language and society; First and second language learning; and Literature. For Chinese Majors their Main Subject Studies will be within the four broad areas of: Chinese language studies; Chinese literature studies; Chinese culture studies; and Linguistic studies.

School experience and the practicum will be spread over the four years of the course as follows:

Year 1	10 days	of visits to schools
Year 2	Term 1	3 weeks of school experience
Year 3	Term 2	8 weeks of teaching practice
Year 4	Term 2	8 weeks of teaching practice

It is also planned that (funding permitting) students will travel overseas in their second year for the equivalent of 5 modules (approximately one term) for cultural and language experience in the target language.

Conclusion

Given the numbers of non-graduate teachers needing to be upgraded to graduate status and given also the extent of the shortage of qualified language teachers in Hong Kong schools, it is clear that the HKU B.Ed. programme can make only a relatively small contribution in numerical terms to teacher output. It is to be hoped, however, that the HKU programme, together with that at the Chinese University, can perform a useful 'trail-blazing' role, and can provide a model for other institutions to evaluate and improve upon as they work upon the development of their own B.Ed. programmes in response to the challenge issued by ECR5.

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CLASSROOM DISCOURSE ANALYSIS IN ESL TEACHER EDUCATION

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Abstract

This paper discusses the place of classroom discourse analysis in ESL teacher education. It points out that it is very important to expose teachers to classroom discourse data and help them to develop a sensitivity towards the language they use in the classroom and its effect on student participation and learning. It then outlines some important aspects of the discipline and discusses how this will help teachers to understand better what is going on in their classrooms.

Introduction

Research on language classrooms began in the sixties with the aim of trying to find out which is the more effective language teaching method, audiolingual or grammar-translation. The inconclusive results led researchers to retreat from the investigation of methods to techniques[1]. However, research again gave no supporting evidence for a particular teaching technique. Politzer, who conducted a seminal study on a number of secondary school classes, concluded that "the very high complexity of the teaching process makes it very difficult to talk in absolute terms about 'good' and 'bad' teaching devices." (1970:43). Language classroom research, therefore, moved from looking at techniques to processes and from a prescriptive approach to a descriptive one. Studies in the past two decades have focussed on unravelling the complexities of classroom processes rather than on prescribing a particular technique or methodology for teachers.

The development in language classroom research shows that it is very important for ESL teacher educators to introduce teachers to classroom research in order to raise their awareness of the complexities of classroom language teaching and learning, and to encourage them to investigate their own classrooms. As Allwright and Bailey point out,

> The business of doing classroom research, of looking carefully into classrooms, can be extremely fruitful for the people doing the looking. And in many cases, the teacher who is already in the classroom, who already has the day-to-day experience of working with learners, is surely in a particularly privileged position to decide what needs to be investigated. (1991: 13-14)

This paper focuses on an important aspect of classroom-centred research, classroom discourse analysis, and discusses its relevance to English ESL teacher education.

Awareness Raising

Providing teachers with transcriptions of classroom data and asking them to make some general observations about the data is an effective means of raising their awareness of classroom dynamics. As Allwright and Bailey point out, "Transcripts show us, in ways that coded data and frequency counts often mask, how classroom interaction develops, as a dynamic phenomenon." (1991: 62). Some general guiding questions can be given to teachers to provide a focus for the discussion. For example,

(1) What kind of relationship did the teacher(s) have with the students?
(2) Was there active participation from the students?
(3) What kinds of interaction pattern can you observe?
(4) Was the teacher keen to get students to participate? Was she successful? Why?

In my experience of conducting classroom discourse analysis workshops with teachers, invariably, and quite understandably, they came up with impressionistic remarks. Some of the observations they made are:

"Teacher A is very strict and authoritarian but Teacher B is very friendly and caring.".

"Teacher A is very impatient. She kept firing questions at students and didn't give them a chance to respond.".

"Teacher B is very encouraging."

"I think the atmosphere in class B is more relaxed. But in class A, the students are afraid of the teacher. I think the teacher is very discouraging."

"The students in class A are very passive. They seldom volunteered answers.".

"The students in class B are more active. But their responses are also very short.".

"I think that the students' responses in Class B are very good.".

"Both classes are dominated by the teacher. But I think Class B is better."

After reporting the observations, teachers should be asked to give evidence to support the observations they have made. This requires that teachers examine the data more closely and see if their observations were well-grounded. In the workshops that I conducted, teachers were mostly able to provide good evidence. For example, to support the observation that Teacher B is more friendly, they gave the example of the teacher asking a student who came into the classroom after the lesson had started whether she was feeling better.

(1) [Class B/Excerpt 1]
(A student comes into the classroom)
T: Are you feeling better now, Lisa Ma? Any more vomiting?
P: No.
T: No. Alright.

To support their observation about teacher A being strict and authoritarian, they pointed out that she used a lot of imperatives, such as "Don't use the pronoun.", "Don't tell me I don't know.". She also gave negative feedback when students gave the wrong answer. For example,

(2) [Class A/Excerpt 4]

T: Now what did they do after their wonderful meal? What did they do after their wonderful meal? What did they do after their wonderful meal? (Nominate)
P: They told stories and sing songs by the—
•T: Sing song? Pay attention. Once again, not sing song, past tense please.
P: They told story and sung song.
T: Sung? No.

Teachers pointed out that by saying "pay attention", the teacher was reprimanding the student for making a mistake rather than rewarding him for making an attempt to answer the question. To support the observation that Teacher B was encouraging, they quoted the following example,

(3) [Class B/Excerpt 1]

T: Do you know the name of any architect who designs buildings in Hong Kong at all?
P: (raises hand)
T: Yes?
P: My father is an architect.
T: Oh, is that so? Well, tell me, do you know the name of any building which your father has designed?

They observed that the teacher, instead of just accepting the answer as correct, showed interest in it and followed it up by asking the student for further information about her father. This kind of feedback encouraged students to participate in class.

There were also times, however, when teachers could not substantiate their observations with evidence. One example is that they felt that the atmosphere in Class B was more relaxed but they could not specify what contributed to this impression. Another example is that they felt that there was a qualitative difference between the responses in both classes and yet they could not specify what constituted the difference. This is hardly surprising for teachers who were novices in classroom discourse analysis. Discussions of this kind serve as a very good basis for introducing to teachers the need to analyze classroom discourse systematically.

A General Framework for Analysis

A systematic analysis of anything requires an analytical instrument. The aim of introducing analytical instruments to teachers is to enable them to analyze their own classroom data. Therefore, it is not necessary to give a comprehensive coverage of *all* the instruments designed for classroom observation or analysis because some of them are for research purposes[2]. As Allwright and Bailey point out,

> Fundamental research needs fully developed, reliable observational instruments and analytical systems. Teacher training, on the other hand,

> can do very well with relatively crude instruments, ones that can be taught quickly to novice teachers and then used by them in their own teaching, without spending inordinate amounts of time transcribing and analyzing recorded data. (1991:11)

In other words, a simple general framework should be introduced instead of an elaborate one. Teachers confronted with pages and pages of transcription often feel at a loss because they do not know where to begin. A very useful starting point is to give teachers an idea of the how classroom discourse is structured. Sinclair & Coulthard's (1975) system provides an excellent framework for analyzing the structure of classroom interaction. They propose that classroom discourse can be analyzed in terms of the following hierarchical units for analysis: 'Lesson', 'Transaction', 'Exchange', 'Move' and 'Act'. A typical classroom Exchange is made up of three Moves: an Initiating Move (I) which asks for a response, either verbal or non-verbal, a Responding Move (R) which gives a response, and a Follow-up Move (F) which gives feedback on the response. The following is an example of how classroom data can be analyzed in terms of Exchanges and Moves. In the following excerpt, there are two Exchanges, each made up of three Moves.

(4) [Class A/Excerpt 4]
I T: Is it late in the afternoon now? (nominate)
R P: No.
F T: No.
I What is it? Is it in the afternoon now? No, when is it?
It is in the ...
R P: In the afternoon.
F T: No, no. Sit down.

Sinclair & Coulthard further analyzed Moves as consisting of Acts with the structure 'pre-head act(s)', 'head act' and 'post-head act(s)' with the head act carrying the main function of a Move. For teacher education purposes, it is not necessary to make fine distinctions among these three types of acts. All teachers need to do is identify the function of a particular Move. For example, the function of the second Initiating Move is to get the student to answer a question. The teacher asked a question followed by two modifications of the question and a clue to help the student to give an answer.

A Transaction is made up of a number of Exchanges. In a lesson where the teacher moves from one activity to another or from one teaching point to another, he/she often indicates the transition by using markers like "Right", "Okay", "Now", spoken with a high fall. For example, "Okay. I would now like you to turn to your workbook and work on the first three questions with your partner.". A number of Transactions make up a Lesson which is a pedagogical unit delimited by the ringing of the bell.

This framework helps teachers to see the structure of classroom interaction and how a lesson is organized.

Devising Descriptive Categories

Within this general structural framework, teachers can devise their own categories depending on the aspect of classroom discourse that they wish to focus on. As Allwright and Bailey point out "... as a starting point, categories devised by teacher trainees themselves may suffice very well to provoke fruitful thought and even helpful behavioural change." (1991: 13). To help teachers devise their own categories, an example of an analytical instrument and the rationale behind its design can be given. For example, in Tsui (1985), the Seventeen Category System is devised according to the aspects that the study wishes to focus on. In order to examine the verbal interaction pattern, classroom discourse was classified primarily in terms of 'Teacher Talk' and 'Pupil Talk', both of which were further classified into 'Initiate' and 'Respond'. By looking at the percentage taken up by each type of Talk, we can get a rough picture of the balance of talk between the teacher and the students, we can also see the direction of the interaction, that is, whether it is largely uni-directional, going from the teacher to the students, or whether it is multi-directional, going also from the students to the teacher and from students to students. For example, a very high percentage of Teacher Initiate and a very low percentage of Pupil Initiate would mean that the interaction is largely uni-directional.

In order to examine the language input provided by the teacher and how it affects the immediate output of the pupils, the category 'Elicit', whose function is to solicit a response from students, is further classified into 'display questions' and 'genuine questions'. Display questions are those which check students' knowledge whereas genuine questions are those to which the teacher does not have an answer. The purpose of differentiating these two types of question is to see whether they solicit different kinds of response from students (see Long & Sato 1983, Brock 1986, Nunan 1987). Display questions are further classified into 'factual', 'yes-no', 'reasoning' and 'explanation' questions on the basis that yes-no questions tend to solicit short responses of either yes or no, and reasoning and explanation questions tend to solicit longer responses. In other words, the classification of questions is made on both the quality and the quantity of the responses elicited. The category Respond in Pupil Talk is classified into 'Restricted' and 'Expanded Responses'. The correlation between the types of question asked and the categories of Pupil Respond solicited would show the effect of questions on the immediate output of students.

In order to examine the modifications of input and how they affect student response, the category 'Re-stating Elicit' is devised to describe questions which are not asked for the first time. Re-stating Elicits are further classified into whether they are mere repetitions or modifications of the previous question. An analysis of the relationship between these modification types and student responses would provide information about their effectiveness in getting students to participate. (For a detailed description of the system, see Tsui 1985).

In other words, the aim of presenting analytical instruments to teachers is not so much to persuade them to adopt any particular one, but rather to help them to come up with their own instruments which serve their own purposes. However, before teachers can devise their own categories, they must decide what aspects of classroom discourse they would like to focus on. In the rest of this paper, I shall discuss briefly some aspects which may be relevant and of interest to ELT teachers.

Questions

Studies on teachers' questioning behaviour show that questions constitute 20% – 40% of the major syntactic types in classroom talk (see Chaudron 1988). In most ESL classrooms, the majority of classroom interaction is generated by the teacher asking questions. For example, in Tsui (1985), it was found that nearly 70% of the classroom talk in two different English lessons consisted of the teacher asking questions, nominating a student to answer the question, the student providing an answer and the teacher giving feedback (see also Shapiro 1979). Questions are therefore a very important aspect of classroom discourse analysis. As Chaudron (1988) points out, questions may facilitate interaction by establishing the topic and allocating speaking turns, but they may also prevent the student from giving a lengthy response.

Different types of question and how they affect student participation has been the focus of investigation. Early studies in L1 classrooms make a distinction between 'closed' and 'open-ended' questions (Barnes et al 1969). A closed question is one which solicits a particular response from a closed set of choices and an open-ended question is one which accepts a whole range of responses. Closed questions range from ones like *What is the man in the picture doing?*, where there are only a limited number of acceptable responses, to ones like (2) and (4) given above where there is only one acceptable response, both in terms of content and form. In (4), the teacher herself limits the choices of the answer by providing the structure of the response *It is in the ...* so that all the student had to do was to fill in the word *morning*. Hence, in terms of language production, open-ended questions are more likely to get students to produce more lengthy responses.

More recent studies of ESL classrooms make a further distinction between display questions and 'referential questions' (Long & Sato 1983). The latter is referred to as genuine questions in Tsui (1985). This distinction is an important one given the emphasis on meaningful communication in the language classroom. A comparison of (5) and (6) below will help teachers to appreciate the different kinds of communication generated by these two types of questions.

(5) T: What's the time?
S: Ten o'clock.
T: Well done.

(6) Passenger A: What's the time please?
Passenger B: Ten o'clock.

Passenger A: Well done.

While (5) is a perfectly acceptable Exchange, (6) is not. This is because in social communication, as opposed to classroom communication, people do not go around asking questions to which they already have an answer. If they did, it often implies a challenge. For example,

(7) [Coulthard & Brazil 1981: 90]
Wife: What time did you come home last night?
Husband: about midnight.
Wife: No you didn't.

In addition, in social communication, the meaning of an utterance is subject to the negotiation between the speaker and the hearer. Consider the following example,

(8) [Tsui 1987:339]
A: So the meeting's on Friday
B: Thanks
A: No, I'm asking you
B: Sorry, yes, it's on Friday
A: Thanks

A's initial utterance was intended to be a question. But it was interpreted as a statement of information by B, as can be seen from B's thanking A for the information. A then clarified the function of his initial utterance as a question which was then responded to by B's apologizing for his misinterpretation. In other words, the meaning of A's utterance as a question asking for confirmation of the date of the meeting was *negotiated* between the two speakers. The negotiation of meaning is often absent in classroom Exchanges initiated by display questions in which the meaning of the question and what constitutes an appropriate response are predetermined by the teacher. If the student's response does not match what the teacher considers to be appropriate, it will be rejected or negatively evaluated (see Tsui 1987 for a detailed discussion of the differences between social discourse and classroom discourse). An analysis of the percentage taken up by each type of question among all the questions asked will inform teachers of the kinds of communication that are generated, or at least that the teacher attempts to generate, in the ESL classroom.

Two caveats should be made here, however. Firstly, what looks like a referential question may not be intended as one by the teacher. For example,

(9) [Tsui 1985: 19]
Teacher: Do you think that em was it exciting that night? Mm? Do you think that it was very it was exciting? Right, (nominate) what do you think? It was, it was—
Student: It was very exciting.
Teacher: It was very exciting. Right, yes. Sit down.

In (9), we can see that the teacher's referential question asking for the student's opinion was intended to be a display question. This can be seen from the structural clue *It was*, provided by the teacher (see Tsui 1985, 1992 for further examples). Conversely, the teacher's referential question is sometimes taken as a display question by the student. Long (1975) gave the following example taken from a lesson where the structural pattern *I've got a* – and a short affirmative answer were practised.

(10)[Long 1975:213]

T: Have you got any brothers and sisters, Pedro?
S: Yes, I have.
T: You have, good. How many?
S: Er no er I no ...

Here, the student, Pedro, took the teacher's referential question as a display question to check if he had mastered the structural form. It was only when the teacher followed up his response by asking *how many* that he realized that it was intended to be a referential question. Hence, when analyzing questions, it is important not to use the surface form of the question as the sole criterion for classification.

Secondly, although it has been found in some studies in classroom research that referential questions promote longer and syntactically more complex responses (see Brock 1986, Nunan 1987), this is not necessarily the case. In fact, Long et al's (1984) study found that although referential questions elicit slightly more student utterances, display questions tend to elicit more student turns. Wu (1992), in a study of four ESL teachers' questions, found that in terms of eliciting responses, referential and open-ended questions tend to be less effective than display and closed questions in getting student responses. In the four lessons that he studied, although a large number of referential and open-ended questions were asked, only one elicited an elaborate response. Wu maintains that this is due to the cultural background of the students. Chinese students in Hong Kong generally tend to avoid volunteering answers and when they are called upon to respond, they prefer to give short answers. This, according to him, is because they do not want to give the impression that they are showing off[3] (see also Wong 1984). Although Wu's claim has yet to be substantiated by further research, it is certainly true that the type of question asked by the teacher is not the only factor that affects the kind of interaction generated in the classroom.

Modification of Questions

In the above section, we mentioned that there are factors other than question types which affect students' verbal contribution in class. One of the language-related factors is how teachers modify their questions when they fail to get an answer. White and Lightbown (1984), in a study of three secondary ESL teachers, found that about 40% of their questions received no response and up to 64% of their questions were repetitions of the previous questions, with as many as nine repetitions of the previous question. In Tsui (1985), it was found that the teacher who often simplified the questions was much more successful in getting student response than the one who merely repeated the questions. In other words, whether the right kind of modification has been made of the question is very important and it is necessary that teachers are aware of the various means of modifying questions.

Generally, we may say that there are two major kinds of modification; one is question-oriented and the other is response-oriented. The former modifies the question itself. There are various ways of doing it. Firstly, the modification can be semantic, which includes paraphrasing and lexical substitution. The following is an example.

(11)[Tsui 1992:55]

T: I suppose if you were on the street and somebody comes up to you and says to you, we – can you tell me the way to a certain theatre, maybe you would know it, but maybe you wouldn't even. But if somebody says can you tell me who designed that building, would you know?
Ss: ∅
→T: Do you know who designed any building at all?
Ss: ∅
→T: Do you know the name of any architect who designs buildings in Hong Kong at all?
S: (raises hand)
T: Yes?
S: My father is an architect.
T: Oh is that so! Well, tell me, do you know the name of any building which your father has designed.
S: I don't know the name but I know which building.

In (11), the phrase *who designed any building* is semantically difficult for students, particularly primary students because of its abstract meaning. The teacher paraphrased *who* as *the name of any architect* which is much more concrete. The effectiveness of this modification can be seen from a pupil volunteering to answer the question.

Secondly, the modification can be a repetition of only the key word in the question. For example, *When did the boys put up their tent? When?*. In this question, the time element is most important and the key word *when* is repeated. Thirdly, the modification can be done by making the topic salient. This is often necessary when one question is embedded in another. For example, in the question *Do you know what an emperor is?*, the question *What is an emperor?* is embedded in *Do you know—*. This often causes difficulties to students whose English proficiency is low. By modifying it to *What is an emperor?*, the teacher is taking the main question out of the embedding, hence making it easier to understand. Fourthly, the modification can be done by dividing the question. In (11), above, the teacher was asking for two pieces of information in the question *Do you know who designed any buildings at all?*, namely the name of a person and the name of a building. She later divided the question into two questions. She first asked for the name of an architect and then the name of the building.

Response-oriented modifications are those which facilitate the production of a response. One way is to provide clues. Buckheister and Fanselow (1984) outlined the different types of clues that may help students to narrow down the number of possible choices. For example, some clues may describe the attribute of the expected response, as in *Do you remember how he said it? He said it in a very polite way. How did he say it?*. Some clues may compare or contrast the expected response to something as in, for example, *What did he find in the big trash bag? Something that looks like a bell.* Another way is to rephrase the question to make it easier for the student to respond. A very common way of doing it is to go from wh-questions to yes-no questions. For example,

(12)[Tsui 1985:22]

T: What sort of mood was he in, Anasa, to begin with?
P: ∅
T: Was he in a good mood?
P: No.
T: No, he was in a very bad mood, a black mood ...

A yes-no question is much easier to respond to because all the student needs to do is to say *yes* or *no*. Another way is to rephrase the question as alternative questions. For example, *What do you think he is going to do? Is he going to call the ambulance or is he going to take him to the hospital himself?*. Alternative questions spell out the possible answers and are therefore easier for students to respond to.

Again two caveats have to be made here. Although modifications are generally more effective than verbatim repetitions in terms of making the question more comprehensible and easier to respond to, the latter should not be dismissed as valueless. Students whose English proficiency is low usually take longer to process the language. Sometimes, by the time they have processed the first part of the question, they have already forgotten the second part of the question. By repeating it verbatim, we are giving them more time and helping them to process the entire question. Of course, if responses are not forthcoming even after verbatim repetitions, then modifications must be made.

Secondly, it must not be assumed that modifications of questions are necessarily effective. Over-modification can lead to confusion, and elaboration and explanation can lead to ambiguity rather than clarification. Simplifications made by using a large number of anaphoric pronouns like *it, this, they*, and so on, in fact put a greater demand on the learner's linguistic ability in order to retrieve the antecedents of the referents (see White & Lightbown 1984; Chaudron 1983; Tsui 1992).

Apart from modifications, 'wait time' is also an important factor in getting student responses. Studies in both L1 and L2 classrooms have shown that an increase in wait time leads to an increase in student responses (see Holley & King 1971; White and Lightbown 1984; Long et al 1984). Many teachers, however, repeat or rephrase the question as soon as there is no immediate response with the good intention of keeping a brisk pace and getting students to participate. They often do not realize that by giving very little wait time for students to think about the question and construct an appropriate response, they are in fact making it more difficult for the latter to respond. When teachers are presented with classroom data, however, they usually spot the problem very quickly. For example, my teachers were quick to point out that Teacher A kept firing questions at her students and did not give them a chance to respond.

Modification of Interaction

The modifications of questions discussed so far are largely linguistic modifications. Recent studies on second language classroom discourse have shifted the focus to modifications of interactional structure which are considered to be more important in providing comprehensible input than linguistic modifications (Long 1983a). Modifications in interactional structure refer to adjustments made which affect the interactional structure of the discourse. For example,

(13) [Long 1983a: 128]

NS: What time did you finish?	(question)
NS: Ten.	(answer)

(14) [Long 1983a:128]

NS: When did you finish?	(question)
NNS: Um?	(clarification request)
NS: When did you finish?	(repetition)
NNS: Ten clock.	(answer)
NS: Ten o'clock?	(confirmation check)
NNS: Yeah.	(confirmation)

In (14), we can see that as a result of the negotiation of meaning, the interactional structure was modified from a "question-answer" sequence to a "question – clarification request – repetition – answer – confirmation check – confirmation" sequence.

Long (1983b) proposed a number interactional modification devices among which the following are easily identifiable by teachers: (*a*) 'comprehension checks' which ensure that students have understood, e.g. *Right? Okay? Do you understand?*; (*b*) 'clarification requests' which ask for clarification, e.g. *What do you mean?*; (*c*) 'confirmation checks' which ensure that the teacher has understood what the student said; (*d*) 'other-repetitions' which repeat all or part of what the student has said. In a sense, modification of questions is a form of interactional modification because in modifying the question upon getting no response, the teacher is also modifying the interactional structure (as in (14) above).

Doughty & Pica (1986) examined how much negotiation has taken place by looking at the quantity of interactional modification devices used. While it is certainly true that the number of modification devices used is indicative of how far the teacher is aware of the importance of making the input comprehensible, it must not be assumed that the use of these devices necessarily leads to the production of comprehensible input. Tsui (1992: 48) points out that "negotiation is an interactive process involving both the speaker and the hearer. It is impossible to determine the quality of the input and the quantity of negotiation work without looking at non-native speaker or learner feedback and how much they are involved in the interaction." (see also Varonis & Gass 1985). It is therefore important to distinguish between modification devices which are used by students and those which are used by the teacher. The former is a far more important indicator of students' involvement in the negotiation of meaning than the latter (see Tsui 1992: 52 for examples). It is also important to look at the kinds of modification device used because some are better indicators of learner involvement in the negotiation work than others. For example, clarification requests, confirmation checks and other-repetitions, which can only be performed in reaction to student response, are better indicators than comprehension checks and self-repetitions which can be performed many times without getting any student feedback. White and Lightbown's (1984) example of a teacher repeating a question nine times is a case in point. Tsui (1985), also found that one of the teachers repeated a question eight times without getting a response from the student. In other words, from the point of view of providing comprehensible input to students, it is essential that teachers also look at how actively students are involved in making the input comprehensible.

Teacher Feedback

So far, we have discussed what occurs in the Initiating Move and the Responding Move of a classroom Exchange. A very important aspect of classroom discourse analysis is what goes on in the Follow-up Move. This is a Move where the teacher provides feedback to student responses.

Teachers are generally aware that it is very important to provide positive and encouraging feedback to students. However, what teachers are less aware of is the gap between their perception of the kinds of feedback they have given and what they actually gave. In nearly 200 lessons that I observed, there were far more instances of acceptance of students' responses in the form of *Okay, Alright,* than positive/encouraging feedback like *That's very good., Good try.*. For example, in the two teachers studied in Tsui (1985) there were 42 occurrences of the Act 'Accept', and only one occurrence of 'Encouraging/Positive Evaluate' for one teacher and 37 occurrences of Accept and only two occurrences of Encouraging/Positive Evaluate for the other. It is always a revelation to teachers when they compare their own impressions of the feedback they have given and what they actually see in the transcriptions of their own lessons.

The treatment of errors is another important aspect of teacher feedback. In addressing the question of what is considered an error by the teacher, it is very useful to present them with a piece of data like the following.

(15)[Class A/Excerpt B]

T: Right, next, and then um who were hungry? Who were hungry? (nominate)

S: They were hungry. They were hungry.

• T: They? Don't use the pronoun. Don't use (in Cantonese) the pronoun.

S: The boys were all hungry.
T: The boys were all hungry.

In (15), the student's response which is semantically correct, though slightly vague, was treated by the teacher as an error because he did not followed the idiosyncratic rule that the teacher laid down which is 'pronouns should not be used'. Sometimes, what is a perfectly appropriate response is treated as an error by the teacher simply because it does not match what the teacher has in mind. In a lesson that I observed, the teacher was going to teach a reading passage called the "Bathroom Killer" which was the water heater. He started the lesson by asking students what they would find in a bathroom. Students offered answers like soap, towel, bathtub, bathroom scale. These answers were accepted with a hesitant *yes* spoken in a fall-rise until one student gave water heater as the answer. It was accepted enthusiastically by the teacher who said, "Yes, that's right. This is exactly what I want." In other words, the previous answers, although not evaluated as wrong, were considered not really the right answer by the teacher. This kind of feedback is detrimental to students in terms of not only language learning but learning in general. Teachers who do this constantly are likely to produce students who try to guess what the teacher wants as an answer rather than what is an appropriate answer to the question.

A problem that ESL teachers are often confronted with in error treatment is the treatment of responses which are grammatically incorrect. In the following piece of data, responses which were correct in content were treated as errors.

(16) [Class A/Excerpt 4]
T: Now what did they do after their wonderful meal? What did they do after their wonderful meal? What did they do after their wonderful meal? (nominate)
S: They told stories and sing songs by the—
T: Sing song? Pay attention. Once again, not sing song, past tense please.
S: They told story and sung song.
T: Sung? No.
S: Sang song.
T: Once again.
S: They told story and sing song.
T: No.
S: They told story and sang song by the fire.
T: They told story and sang song by the camp fire.

In (16), we can see that the student's initial response, which makes perfect sense with a mistake in tense only, was rejected by the teacher as an error. In the Exchanges following, the student's several attempts were rejected until he produced the correct tense of the verb *sing*. What is ironical is that in the last response, the student in fact made a mistake with the nouns *story* and *song* by using the singular form rather than the plural form. It was, however, accepted by the teacher as correct.

The data given in (16) raises the question of when errors should be corrected. In (16), the teacher corrected the error as soon as it appeared; she did not even wait till the student finished the sentence. This can be very disruptive and can inhibit students' willingness to contribute at all (see Allwright and Bailey 1991). It would be a very useful exercise to get teachers to look at when they correct errors and when they do not, and ask themselves how decisions regarding whether to correct an error are made.

Finally, the question of how error corrections are made and who makes the corrections should be examined. Chaudron (1987) gave a detailed description of the strategies for error correction. Some of the commonly used ones are expansions of the student's response, making it more complete; repetitions of the student's response with the error changed, or repetitions without changing the error but with the stress placed on the error; adding stress to the location of error and its correction formulation. Apart from corrective strategies, whether the teacher or the student is doing the correction is also important. Teachers should be encouraged to look at the variety of corrective feedback they give to students and to think of what other possible ways there are. As Fanselow (1977) points out, teachers should offer students as great a variety of treatments as possible because there does not seem to be one way that always works and different students need to be treated differently.

Summary

In this paper, I have shared my experience of introducing classroom discourse analysis to ELT teachers. I have pointed out that getting teachers to examine classroom data is a very useful way of distancing them from their own classrooms and helping them to look objectively at their own teaching. In order to give teachers an idea where to start in analyzing classroom data, a general framework should be provided to enable them to see the structure and organization of a lesson. They should then be encouraged to focus on a particular aspect of classroom discourse and to come up with their own descriptive categories which will help them to obtain information on that aspect. Because of the limit of space, it has not been possible to give a comprehensive coverage of all of the aspects dealt with in the classroom discourse analysis literature[4]. Nevertheless, I hope that the discussion in this paper will give teachers who are novices in classroom discourse analysis some idea of how to go about analyzing their own classrooms.

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1276

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Notes

1. In Allwright and Bailey (1991 8), the following distinctions were made among "approach", "method" and "techniques" on the basis of Anthony (1963).

   In Anthony's terms, the 'approach' was the philosophy of language and learning that provided the theoretical underpinnings of language teaching. The 'method' was a systematic collection of activities and procedures which were derived logically from the approach. The 'techniques' were the various activities implemented during a lesson, which stemmed, in turn, directly from the method chosen.
2. For a comprehensive summary of the influential analytical instruments, see Allwright (1988).
3. This has been reported by many teachers in Hong Kong.
4. For a comprehensive coverage of the literature, see Chaudron (1988), and Allwright and Bailey (1991).

A GOAL-DIRECTED THINKING FRAMEWORK FOR DECISION MAKING IN LANGUAGE CURRICULUM RENEWAL

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Introduction

> *"Three blind men came together to find out what an elephant looked like. The first man, after touching the elephant's ear, decided that it was big and flat. The second man, who happended to touch the elephant's trunk, decided that it was long and cylindrical. The last man rebutted with confidence, 'No, you're both wrong. It should be sharp and pointed.' Hours of heated discussion went by, but the problem remained unresolved. In the end, they agreed it was time to go, and the decision on what an elephant looked like would best be left to individual wisdom." (Adapted from a Chinese fable)*

It is apparent that the decision making of these three blind men leaves much to be desired. However, the principal cause of their failure is not their blindness. Rather, it is their lack of appropriate thinking strategies for solving their problem together as a team of blind men.

This analogy will make some sense to the language teachers who have had experience of an English panel meeting, where no consensus about how best to improve the teaching materials, tests, or student performance is reached at the end of a seemingly endless discussion. Even if we admit that discussion does not always need to result in ready-made answers, having to go through hours and hours of discussion without arriving at a resolution of the problem is not a gratifying experience either. A language teacher or a panel chairperson in this situation would probably want to know how their decision making strategies can be improved, so that their curriculum renewal work will become more efficient and effective.

That decision making involves thinking is self-evident, but that an insight into thinking will help decision making is not. This can be seen in the current literature on language curriculum renewal (LCR), where thinking remains a relatively unexplored area. Although recent LCR works have already extended their territories to those of management (White 1988) and polity determination[1] (Rodgers 1989), cognition seldom makes its way to the field of curriculum development.

This paper attempts to fill the gap by exploring thinking in the context of LCR. It is divided into three parts. The first part will focus on a discussion of the complex and innovative nature of LCR, and its cognitive demand on teachers or panel chairpersons as decision makers. The second will characterise LCR as an ill-defined problem, and outline some of the strategies useful for solving ill-defined problems. Some illustrative examples of how these strategies are actually applied in LCR will be given. The paper will end with an exploration of a goal-directed thinking framework for decision making in LCR.

Part One: The nature of LCR and its cognitive demand on decision makers

LCR is essentially multifaceted in nature. It has been compared to the creation of a jigsaw puzzle with interrelated components, each of which, if changed, will affect other parts (Clark 1987, Scarino et al 1988). A modification of teaching objectives, for instance, may necessitate a revision of teaching methods and assessment procedures, which, in turn, may necessitate teacher and learner retraining. Any failure to recognise and act upon this chain effect among interdependent curriculum variables is likely to result in a less than coherent curriculum[2] (Johnson 1989b).

It has been recognised that the success of a language programme is dependent upon a large number of individual factors (Richards 1985, Dubin and Olstain 1986). Sociocultural factors (e.g. status of the target language), learner factors (e.g. learning styles or motivation), and programme characteristics (e.g. materials and testing procedures in use and characteristics of the teacher population) are just a few of them. Teachers responsible for developing a curriculum are, therefore, confronted with a complex cognitive task. They need to process and synthesize a large amount of interrelated information. They are also required to take simultaneous account of a myriad of interdependent factors, and of their numerous possible permutations. This is demanding in terms of memory space, if we reckon that our limited-capacity short-term memory allows us to handle only a limited amount of information at any one time (Simon 1972, 1977). Therefore, until systematic goal-directed thinking is in place to cope with the information load, it is highly likely that a curriculum designer will be forced into arbitrary or piecemeal decision making.

LCR is also a form of innovation (White 1988, Brady 1990), an attempt to change the current state of practice so as to bring about improvement in relation to specific objectives. Since changes are likely to provoke conflict (Nicholls 1983), it is desirable to involve all parties concerned in discussion and decision making, so that later dissensions can be minimised. This task of pooling together the often divergent views of different interest groups, and attempting to resolve them in some way would, again, require a deployment of systematic goal-directed problem solving strategies.

Part Two: LCR and problem solving

1. LCR as an ill-defined problem

In cognitive psychology, a problem has been defined as the gap between where we are and where we want to be (Hayes 1978). It arises when we want to achieve a certain goal, and the goal is not readily attainable (Matlin 1989). According to Newell and Simon (1972), all problems can be conceptualised as being a *task environment* which consists of three components: an *initial* state, a *goal* state, and *moves* connecting the two. A problem solver, based on his perception of the task environment and other knowledge, forms a new representation. This new representation, which contains all of the possible 'solution moves' that he is aware of, is known as the *problem space*. When solving a problem, he searches through the problem space for the best solution move. This search is aided by the *givens*, which are rules and information that constrain the solution.

Problems can be classified along a continuum ranging from well-defined to ill-defined (Reitman 1964). While the initial state, the moves and the goal state of well-defined problems are clear, those of ill-defined problems are not. Most of the problems encountered in life, such as decorating a house or writing a term paper, are ill-defined. LCR is an instance of an ill-defined problem. Although it is generally understood to be an attempt to improve a curriculum, there are so many forms an improvement can take that the goal is far from clear. This ill-definedness of the goal state often makes the generation of solution moves difficult and their evaluation even more difficult.

2. Problem representation

One of the best ways to overcome the difficulties mentioned above is to make the goal as explicit as possible and to redefine the problem (and hence the goal) in multiple ways so that a variety of solution moves can be generated and evaluated.

An example in the context of LCR will illustrate this point. Language teachers may find that their students appear to have difficulties in understanding extended academic texts. This problem can be very generally represented by the teacher as one of improving student ability to read such texts, but the goal will remain rather obscure until it is more specifically defined. In this case, there are at least three possible ways of redefining the problem. The first is to redefine it as the problem of improving student ability to ask critical questions about an extended argument. This redefinition would help teachers to extend the solution moves to include critical thinking skills and strategies of argumentation, which encourage students to take a more active and critical approach to reading. The goal will become more well-defined: students are expected to demonstrate their ability to ask critical questions and to analyse arguments in extended academic texts.

A second way of representation is to redefine the goal as the problem of diagnosing and remedying students' difficulties in understanding complicated syntactical structures that occur frequently in academic texts. This representation would lead the teacher to explore a very different set of solution moves, which address student's limited syntactical knowledge. The goal will be increased student ability to understand complicated syntax.

A third way is to redefine the problem as one of increasing opportunities for reading extended academic texts. Solution moves could now encompass finding suitable texts and developing appropriate reading exercises for both teacher-guided and self-access practice. The goal will be student reading of an optimal number of academic texts.

It can be seen from the above that the same problem can be represented very differently. Each representation indicates a particular way of understanding the problem, and the different representations can, at times, be complementary to one another. In fact, constructing an adequate problem representation is critical to finding a solution, and is often a good indicator of how well a problem is understood (Greeno 1977). Findings of recent domain-specific research have indicated that novices and experts differ in their problem representations in Physics. Novices tend to confine themselves to surface and specific details; experts are more likely to abstract and theorise (Larkin 1983, 1985). Whether this difference also exists in LCR remains to be seen.

What makes a good problem representation? Halpern (1989:356) suggests that, "A good representation will contain all of the relevant information or givens and display the relationships among the givens in a way that will facilitate progress toward the goal." When constructing a representation, a problem solver must "tickle his memory" to access and utilise his knowledge about the problem (Newell 1983). He "must be able to make inferences from problem statements in order to build an adequate problem representation – one in which missing and conflicting information is made obvious." (Halpern 1989:357) I will return to the role of information in problem solving in the third part of this paper.

3. Strategies for solving ill-defined problems

Matlin (1989) suggests four strategies useful for solving ill-defined problems. The first two concentrate on making a problem more manageable:

(i) Break the problem into subproblems and work on each of them separately. Then combine them and resolve any incompatibilities.

(ii) Add contraints to the structure of the problem, so that possible solution moves are restricted.

These two strategies can easily be applied to LCR. For example, the problem of improving the assessment procedures of a language programme could be reformulated as two subproblems: tests (summative) and continuous assessment (formative). The problem of tests could be further divided into subproblems of pre-course and post-course tests, each of which may serve identical or different functions, and may have comparable or different formats, contents and criteria.

In order to reach a solution, a curriculum developer must somehow restrict the possibilities. This is best achieved through taking into account most, if not all, of the practical constraints embedded in a particular context. Some of these constraints may include the resources and expertise available for developing and administering the targeted tests, the attitudes and expectations of teachers and students toward such tests, the informativity of test results to different groups of users, and the objectives and content of the teaching syllabus. Relevant information on these constraints will need to be systematically collected, if they are not yet transparent or available to the decision maker. Until such pragmatic constraints have been carefully considered and reconciled with policy, potential mismatches are likely to result in the actual implementation of tests and the problem of improving assessment procedures is less likely to be successfully solved.

The other two strategies suggested by Matlin (1989) are concerned with the starting and ending points in the problem solving process:

(iii) Start work on the problem in spite of an incomplete understanding of it. Mistakes are informative rather than obstructive.

(iv) Stop when a solution is reached.

The last strategy is appropriate if we accept that LCR often takes place in a dynamic setting of divergent interests and conflicting forces (Jenkins and Shipman 1976). Any solution generated at a specific point of time in a particular context, be it a new teaching unit, a promising teaching approach, or an innovative assessment procedure, can only be taken as a good but not perfect answer to a curriculum problem. The solution will need to undergo a continuing process of evaluation, adaptation and refinement.

4. A "planful approach" to problem solving

In solving ill-defined problems, a "planful approach" is almost always useful. A "planful approach" to problem solving emphasizes the importance of devising a systematic plan for finding and selecting solutions. It has been advocated in most programs designed to improve problem solving skills (Covington 1987).

Although plans for problem solving may vary in complexity, they generally consist of five steps. The IDEAL model proposed in Bransford and Stein (1984:12) has succinctly summarised these five steps:

I = Identify the problem
D = Define and represent the problem
E = Explore possible strategies
A = Act on the strategies
L = Look back and evaluate the effects of your activities.

This five-step model is applicable in many areas such as business and education. In education, it is easy to find theoretical frameworks which reflect essentially the same sequence of stages as that of IDEAL. Figure 1 has summarised two such instances, Trump's educational innovation sequence (1967) and Skilbeck's situational model for school-based curriculum development (1984), in comparison with the IDEAL framework.

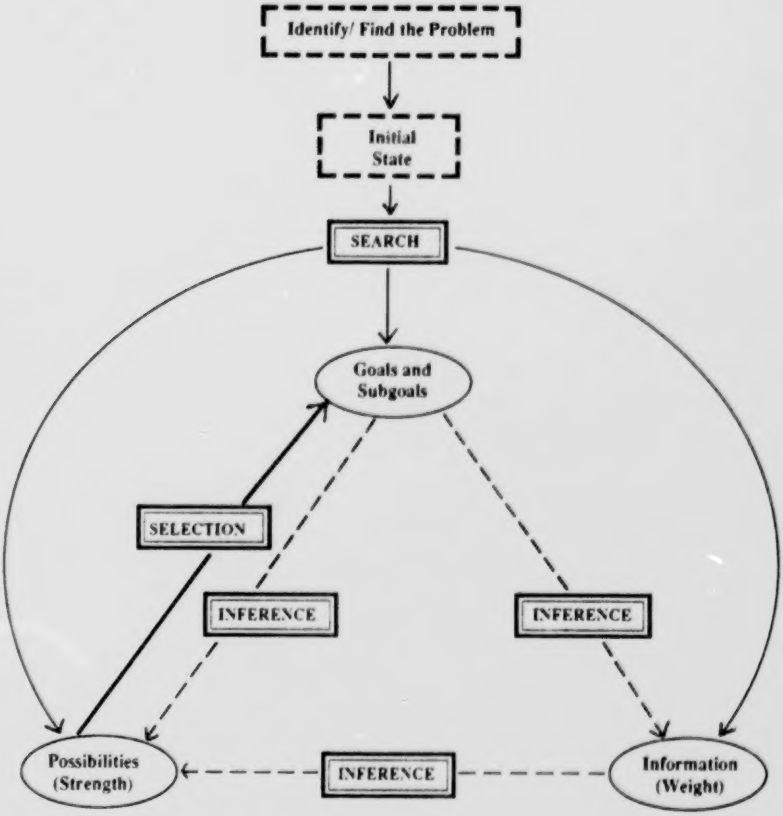
Figure 1: A comparison of IDEAL model with the frameworks in Skilbeck (1984) and Trump (1967)

Bransford and Stein (1984)	Skilbeck (1984)	Trump (1967)
1. Identify a problem	1. Analyse the situation	1. Analyse co-operatively reasons for present practices
2. Define and represent the problem	2. Define objectives	2. Discover what people want that is different from what they are doing
3. Explore possible strategies	3. Design the teaching learning programme	3. Make tentative decisions about the priority of proposed changes
4. Act on the strategies	4. Interpret and implement the programme	4. Plan the innovation carefully in terms of teacher preparation, student preparation, procedures to be followed and the anticipated effects
5. Look back and evaluate the effects of your activities	5. Assess and evaluate	5. Determine the times and techniques for evaluation

Part Three: A goal-directed thinking framework for decision making

While IDEAL provides a useful sequential description of stages in problem solving, it does not throw light on the dynamic thinking processes involved in decision making. Apparently, a normative thinking framework, which attempts to outline such processes, is likely to provide decision makers with a further aid in attacking ill-defined problems. I call it a goal-directed thinking framework (GDTF), as the thinking processes are problem oriented and goal driven. It is this framework which I will now turn to.

Figure 2: A Goal-Directed Thinking Framework for Decsision Making (Adapted from Baron 1988)


Identify/ Find the Problem
Initial State
SEARCH
Goals and Subgoals
SELECTION
INFERENCE
INFERENCE
Possibilities (Strength)
INFERENCE
Information (Weight)

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The GDTF (Figure 2), adapted from Baron (1988)[3], is basically a search-inference-selection framework. It asserts that decision making consists of three basic processes: search, inference and selection. "We search for certain objects. Then we make inferences from and about the objects we have found" (Baron 1988:4). On the basis of the outcomes of search and inference, we select among a number of alternatives.

I will now describe in turn each of these three basic processes in the GDTF. I will begin with the search process, in which the decision maker searches for three kinds of objects: goals, information and possibilities. *Goals*, which can be broken into subgoals to make the problem less overwhelming, are criteria for evaluating possibilities. *Possibilities* are possible answers to the problem. Each possibility has its "strength": the extent to which it is judged by a decision maker to achieve the goals. *Information*, which consists of givens or rules, is used by the decision maker to assess the strength of a possibility.

A fruitful search usually starts with a careful analysis of the initial state of the problem. This has been supported by some recent studies, which found that experts tended to begin problem solving by elaborating on the initial state. They also tended to begin by identifying possible constraints in the problem much more frequently than novices (Voss et al 1983a and 1983b). It is by no means a coincidence that in the context of language curriculum renewal, the importance of analysing the current state of practice before setting goals is also heavily stressed (Trump 1965, White 1988, Brady 1990).

In the process of inference, a decision maker evaluates the relevance of information in accordance with the goals. At the same time, he evaluates the strength of each possibility on the basis of the information, in the light of the goals. Each piece of information has a "weight", which is used by the decision maker to revise (or not to revise) the strength of a possibility as a means of achieving the goals.

The role of information in the inference process cannot be over-emphasized. As Halpern (1989:340) convincingly argues: "A decision can only be as good as the information that it is based on". A rational decision maker will need to be an active and open-minded seeker of information. White (1988), when discussing the management of language curriculum innovation, also stresses the importance of obtaining information for planning: "Decisions will have to be made about the precise nature of the information required and the means of obtaining it" (p.147).

On the other hand, one has to admit that in the decision making process of curriculum renewal, information is often uncertain, and much of it may even be missing. The search for more information may be curtailed by a lack of time, resources or even motivation (on the part of either the information seeker or the information). Making informed decisions should, therefore, at its best, be taken only as making the most rational possible choice, on the basis of the known information, in the light of the goals. We have to allow for the tentativeness and incompleteness inherent in the information available for decision making.

In addition to the search and inference processes, there is a process of selection, in which a decision maker makes a choice among alternative possibilities. The choice will have to be made in accordance with the goals and subgoals. As reviewed in part two of this paper, one of the greatest difficulties in solving ill-defined problems lies with the ill-definedness of the goal state. If we want to facilitate the selection process, we will need to remove this ill-definedness as much as possible by making the goal as explicit and as specific as we can. A clear and adequate articulation of goals and subgoals is, therefore, crucial to finding an adequate solution to a problem. The three pssible ways of definding the problem and the goal of reading extended academic texts discussed in part three of this paper is illustrative of this important point.

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to explore thinking and deciding in the context of LCR. It has argued that LCR is in itself an ill-defined problem and that some of the strategies for solving ill-defined problems appear to be applicable to curriculum development. It has also presented a goal-directed thinking framework, which throws light on the thinking processes involved in decision making.

The paper has not, however, dealt with some of the most common pitfalls in decision making and problem solving. This recurrent theme in the literature of cognitive psychology seems to me to be a promising area for further exploration, if we want to discover ways of improving our decision making in LCR.

Another area worthy of further study is language curriculum makers in action. Questions such as: "What thinking strategies do curriculum developers use in decision making?", or "Are there differences between experts and novices in their decision making in LCR?", appear to be suitable candidates for exploration. Answers to these questions may have implications for the future directions of teacher education. Brady (1990) rightly points out that: "In one sense, teachers have always been the real curriculum makers, whether they have realised it or not. They have always engaged in modifying the curricula prepared at the centre to make an operational curriculum appropriate to their particular classroom." The recent shift of focus in teacher education from the shaping of teaching behaviour to the shaping of teachers' thought about teaching (Freeman 1992) has directly affirmed the importance of thinking in language teaching, and indirectly its importance in language curriculum renewal. This paper has sought to make the latter explicit.

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NOTES:

1. 'Polity determination', according to Rodgers, is a contextually enlarged view of curriculum development, involving all the factors which need to be taken into account when assessing the relative difficulty and 'cost' of implementing a curriculum innovation in a specific 'polito-pedagogical' context.
2. Johnson (1989b) defines a 'coherent curriculum' as one in which there is an absence of mismatches between policy and pragmatic constraints. Although in the real world of policy implementation, this notion of 'coherence' is rarely attainable in its pure form, it is still a desirable state to be approximated to as closely as possible.
3. The framework in Baron (1988), which consists of only search and inference, is devised for personal decision making.

Acknowledgement

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THE LANGUAGE IMPROVEMENT COMPONENT OF E.S.L. TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES: RATIONALE AND DESIGN

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Introduction

Non-native teachers of English as a Foreign or Second Language entering post-experience courses of professional development are by no means always expected to undertake a language improvement component as an integral element of such courses. Indeed, internationally, this kind of component is quite rare and the reasons are not difficult to perceive. It is often argued that teacher education courses carried out in the target language medium naturally involve students in listening to, discussing, and writing about theoretical and curriculum-related issues in that language and that, for these very reasons, a course component focussed explicitly on language concerns is not necessary.

In any case, the argument continues, post-experience students are qualified practitioners whose language knowledge and use can be repaired and enriched, as and when necessary, through a language-focussed element of feedback in their professional studies. This argument also stresses the point that requiring qualified teachers to carry out language improvement work might be perceived as constituting a fairly explicit assumption of professional deficiency. It all seems to be rather like asking a master-cabinet maker to demonstrate the use of a particular tool, rather than encouraging him to design or create a piece of furniture; atomistic practice carried out at the expense of applying a learned craft holistically.

Necessity and Sufficiency

The view outlined above is one with which any liberal teacher educator will sympathise in both professional and philosophical terms. In this brief and exploratory paper, I want to argue that this kind of fluency-focussed orientation provides an entirely necessary, but not completely sufficient, set of conditions to support language improvement concerns. Issues of sufficiency determine that teacher educators be concerned with providing a language improvement component which is not so much based on hazy notions of general levels of target language proficiency, but rather on the recognition of the use-oriented needs, wants and present lacks of the students. This process of realisation will involve negotiation with the students as to what will be included on the syllabus; an important motivational concern and a way in which teacher trainers might keep abreast of concerns about, and uses of, the target language in the post-experience student's professional and academic life. It is also important to indicate at this stage that although the subjects of this paper are post-experience teachers, the suggestions made should be applicable, more or less directly, to students undergoing initial training.

Rationale

In general terms, the rationale for the inclusion of language improvement work on the kinds of teacher education programmes in question here rests on three major propositions; these interrelated phenomena are discussed below.

Enriching Language

Language is a living, ever-changing system delicately attuned and swiftly responsive to new needs and uses. Non-native teachers may easily lose awareness of current language use, and disuse. Indeed, they are more liable than "real world" foreign language users to remain unaware of language change. The danger of using the target language almost exclusively in the cloistered classroom at low cognitive and linguistic levels is that the teacher's own language is vulnerable to the processes of "erosion" (Strevens, 1977) and fossilisation.

Exposure to the target language and opportunities to practice it in an enriching and meaningful way are limited by the unique nature of the teacher's professional role. In a nutshell, many non-native E.S.L. teachers, particularly those at primary and junior secondary levels, are not progressively stretched enough, receptively or productively, to increase or even maintain their target language level. Too often language enrichment is either left to what can be done in private study time or, for a fortunate few, to attendance on recognised courses of study in the target language culture. Further, I want to suggest that enhancement and extension of language capacity might best be carried out through a relatively explicit, consciousness-raising instructional strategy. Sharwood-Smith (1981) has argued convincingly that:

> *. . . under certain circumstances [this strategy] will significantly increase the rate of language acquisition over and above the rate expected from learners acquiring the language under natural circumstances where attention to form may be minimal, sporadic or non-existent.*

"Natural circumstances" here could be interpreted as encompassing the kind of content-based and fluency-focussed programme outlined earlier.

Preventing Fossilisation

Fossilised non-standard interlanguage may or may not hinder communication, but must be deemed undesirable in teachers of languages (c.f. Lakoff, 1969). As presenters and modellers of language and, in the interaction stages of lessons, animateurs and language informants for students, teachers need to be sure that the language they impart is accurate, usable and current. If it is not, the teacher's misconceptions and errors may well become the "instruction-induced" (Sampson and Richards, 1974) or "second generation" (Webster et al, 1987) errors produced and accepted as standard English by learners. Newbrook (1988) has presented substantial evidence of the surprise and disbelief demonstrated by Hong Kong tertiary students when they are informed of their errors in English. Errors not treated as such at an earlier stage of learning, and so taken by learners to be acceptable, standard forms.

In linguistic environments like Hong Kong, where English is rarely used for everyday communication, teacher education courses might justifiably aim to break this cycle of fossilisation. A greater emphasis on developing the teacher's grasp of linguistic concepts and their systems of realisation might well reduce the ironic prospect, which could result from courses focussing too sharply on uncorrected fluency, of producing teachers who teach incorrect language in an interesting and effective manner!

The fossilisation potential of unmonitored, fluency-focussed learning programmes is well-documented (Lamendella and Selinker, 1978; Canale and Swain, 1979; Rutherford, 1982; Major, 1988). Eskey (1983) makes the point with considerable force:

> *We cannot go on accepting inaccurate language simply because it communicates something that a clever native speaker can somehow understand.*

In the interests of maintaining a balanced discussion, it must be pointed out that Eskey's scenario relates to second language users interacting with native speakers of that language. The problems are, of course, significantly reduced in international, non-expert interactions in which both interlocutors have to use a common second language.

I want to suggest that the accuracy-fluency dichotomy is more imagined than real; form and function may be balanced in any instructional programme by allowing these factors to be mutually supporting. The learner confident of his degree of competence in a foreign language is likely to be an effective exponent of that language, able continuously to increase his capacity to use the language to express his thought faithfully and appropriately.

Fossilisation is intimately connected to motivation and the learner's need and desire to learn more of the target language and about its culture and peoples. If this integrative drive is low and the learner feels that he already has enough language for his purposes and requirements, then fossilisation is very likely to occur. Integrative drive is likely to be low, and the need for on-going language instruction correspondingly high, in those environments characterised by Spurling and Ilyin (1983) as acquisition-poor. Hong Kong, with its monolithic use of Cantonese, is surely such an environment. With this in mind, it becomes clear that most non-native teachers of English working in Hong Kong will need focussed language work as an "acquisition facilitator" (Seliger, 1979). This kind of work will pay substantial dividends should the teacher find himself resident for a period in an acquisition-rich (target language culture) environment. There might well then follow a beneficial washback effect on school level learners.

Meeting Needs

My third proposition relates back to the point emphasised earlier about the need to focus the language improvement component content to meet the needs, wants and present lacks of the students. Three broad areas of activity are readily identifiable in this respect.

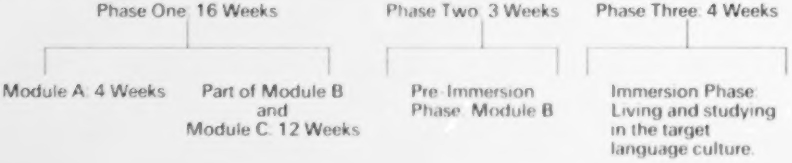
Teachers need English for specific professional and academic purposes; to deliver instruction, manage the classroom and talk socially to students, to discuss and write about professional issues, and to carry out further study through English.

Teachers need English to extend and enrich their present capacity to understand and use the language; to learn more about the target language culture in general through a variety of channels, to understand the sociolinguistics of communication in the target language culture, and to discover and appreciate specific features of the culture; for example its literature.

Teachers need to detect, repair and build on any gaps in their knowledge of and ability to use the major systems of English; to develop further understanding of and ability to use the lexis, pragmatics, grammar and phonology of the language. Any design for a language improvement component will need to give prominence to these three major areas.

To this point, the discussion has been general and analytical; it is now necessary to become rather more specific and descriptive in the sense that the design presented below is similar, to a great extent, to that which has been extensively trialled in my own institution. In this design the three broad areas referred to are termed Modules and each module subsumes a number of relevant Units. Despite the description of a particular component, I believe the design recommended is applicable to most teacher education programmes with only minimal modification. Unfortunately, it is not within the scope of this paper to describe specific units. Most, however, should be self-explanatory from their titles. An overview of the language improvement component, and the modules and units it comprises, is displayed below.

A Language Improvement Component: Overview and Timescale.


Phase One 16 Weeks
Phase Two 3 Weeks
Phase Three: 4 Weeks
Module A: 4 Weeks
Part of Module B and Module C. 12 Weeks
Pre-Immersion Phase. Module B
Immersion Phase: Living and studying in the target language culture.

Framework of Contents

Module A. English for Professional and Academic Purposes

General Objective: to use English confidently and effectively for academic and professional purposes.

Unit Title

1. Use of Reference and Source Materials (including professional journals)
2. Reading and Summarising
3. Practical Faster and Effective Reading
4. Listening and Note-Taking
5. From Thought to Expression (including Oral Presentation Skills)
6. Writing for Academic and Professional Purposes
7. Discussion Skills (for Professional and Academic Communication)
8. Introducing Word Processing
9. English for the English Classroom

Module B. English for Social Communication, General Interest and Aesthetic Purposes

General Objective: to communicate socially, to listen and read widely for general interest, to appreciate literature, and engage in creative language work.

Unit Title

1. Listening and Viewing (Film, T.V., Video, Audio)
2. Extensive Reading (Prose, Poetry, Drama, Non-Fiction and Periodicals)
3. Appreciating and Producing Creative Writing
4. Verse Speaking
5. Drama
6. English for Social and Transactional Communication

Module C. English Language System: Knowledge and Practice

General Objective: to increase knowledge of and ability to use the major English language systems.

Unit Title

1. Grammar and Discourse: Knowledge and Practice (General)

2. Grammar and Discourse: Knowledge and Practice (for Native Speakers of Cantonese).
3. Pronunciation Practice (General)
4. Pronunciation Practice (for Native Speakers of Cantonese).
5. Words and Meanings: Looking at Vocabulary

Phasing

The units of Module A form an effective study skills in English "bridge" between work and the return to formal study. The role of these units is also facilitative and integrative in that they are designed to help the student deal more effectively with the theoretical and curriculum-related topics of the whole course. For these reasons, Module A is best positioned to occur in the first few weeks of the course, after which time the unit headings disappear but the skills developed are used in topic areas of professional concern. For example, although after the first few weeks the unit "English for the English Classroom" expires, its central concerns reappear as sub-skills of the practical teaching component of the course. Similarly, after the skill-acquiring unit "Writing for Academic and Professional Purposes" finishes, students use the learned skills to write formal assignments and reports.

It is felt appropriate to introduce the units of Modules B and C immediately after the end of Module A. However, not all the units of Module B are introduced; some offer language practice with performance in the target language culture clearly in mind and are, therefore, best delayed to the beginning of the pre-immersion phase when the purposes for tackling such concerns as social and transactional communication and the extensive reading of popular literature in English come into view.

Module C, which deals with knowledge and practice of the major systems of English, is an important area of study for students who are themselves teachers of English. Uniquely among learners and users of a second language, teachers need continuously to develop both proficiency in using the systems and a metacognitive awareness and knowledge of how the systems interconnect. In addition, the teacher needs to be able to distil from this skill and knowledge a comprehensible way of actually teaching the systems to learners. Given success in this area of study, there should be beneficial transfer from the teacher's enhanced confidence in personal linguistic competence to his pedagogic effectiveness.

Module C includes some units specifically designed for Cantonese native speakers. This is considered desirable in the Hong Kong situation because of the dangers of fossilisation in a monolingual culture which were referred to earlier. In fact, all units in Module C are carefully targeted. For example, "Grammar and Discourse Practice (General)" uses a process of diagnostic testing followed by repair and enrichment practice of items causing problems. Clearly there would be little point in relatively advanced students attempting to cover, or revise, the entire grammatical and discoursal systems of English.

Pre-Immersion and Immersion Phases

Some E.S.L. Teacher Education courses are fortunate enough to be able to offer students a period of study in a native-speaking culture. My own institution prepares and sends students to language schools and appropriate college and university departments in the U.K. Most students are lodged with native-speaker host families to ensure an effective immersion experience. I do not intend to dwell on details here, but wish to reiterate the point that during the three-week pre-immersion phase, students focus purposefully on all aspects of social and transactional language use, and convergencies and divergencies in Chinese-English socio-cultural behaviour. This phase of the course, then, may well provide a degree of acquisition-facilitation to help maximise the benefits of the actual immersion in the acquisition-rich target language culture.

Intensity

A word is in order about the concentration of the teaching and learning processes. The urgency-free and lengthy nature of some language courses, particularly those at school level, presents a major hurdle to the optimisation of effective and efficient learning. Strevens (op. cit.) has argued persuasively that for optimal effect, language improvement work needs to be evenly spread over each week of the course and provide a weekly total of between fifteen and twenty hours of attentive time on task. Strevens found that weekly totals below these figures engendered little dynamism in terms of student motivation and, in the long term, proved to be ineffective in bringing about sustained language gains. Weekly totals above twenty hours, however, tended to bring about a sharp decline in the learning curve, due to input overload and consequent student exhaustion.

Unfortunately, a critical degree of intensity is often not possible on programmes also bearing a heavy load of theoretical and methodological content. In my own institution, after intensive input in the first few weeks of the course, the weekly total falls to just five hours per week for the remainder of Phase One. This is a consequence of the necessity to provide substantial input in areas of professional concern. All the more reason, then, for the language improvement work to be appropriately focussed on meeting real needs and wants, and for it to include efficient mechanisms of assessment and feedback to sustain the necessary motivational dynamic.

Modes of Teaching and Learning

Students are able to choose the units they wish to study freely, although they are encouraged to discuss their requirements with tutors responsible for particular units. About forty per cent of the units from all module areas are completely self-access, while others are either wholly or partially tutor-led.

Students sign a learning agreement to carry out a certain number of hours of work in chosen unit areas, and to meet tutors responsible for those units at pre-arranged times to receive regular feedback on progress, discuss any problems and decide on submission deadlines for assignments. In addition, students are encouraged to borrow self-access language improvement packages for private study, since only sixty-five hours in total are available for language improvement work during Phase One of the course. A fact compensated for by Phases Two and Three being entirely language-focussed.

Modes of Assessment and Feedback

These are chosen for their appropriateness to particular unit areas. The modes range from self-assessment followed by peer and tutor discussion, keeping individual written records of progress and problems for regular monitoring with a tutor, diagnostic and progress testing, essay writing followed by feedback tutorials, and recording video and audio-taped samples for the more interactive unit options; for example "Discussion Skills", and "Social and Transactional Communication in English."

Afterword

In this paper I have attempted to explain the reasons for including a language improvement component on E.S.L. teacher education courses. I have also offered a brief and general description of a component design which has been trialled and evaluated positively by students, and which may provide a framework for language improvement work on initial and post-experience E.S.L. teacher training and education programmes both inside and outside Hong Kong.

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TEACHING AND LEARNING RELATIVE CLAUSES IN ENGLISH

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Introduction

This article is an attempt to take one small area of English grammar, namely the relative clause, and to consider it from a variety of viewpoints: from a description of its grammatical form and function, from a survey of its use by learners of English in Hong Kong (correct and otherwise), from its status in linguistic and psycholinguistic theory, and from an examination of how it is treated in teaching materials. The hope is that this multi-faceted approach will allow a balanced view of what is a considerable learning problem and will inform teachers and materials writers on how it may be taught. No particular stance on method or approach is taken, but clearly the implication is that there will be some form of focus on grammatical features.

Learner Use

For one year I taught an English writing course to a group of first-year translation degree students, all of whom had D or above in Use of English. From the numerous assignments given throughout the year a number of problem areas stood out; the relative clause was one of these. The problem manifested itself not just in terms of errors but also by avoidance. There seemed to be a number of categories:

(i) **omission of the relative pronoun:**

*(1) *At the same time some youngsters* V *reach the working age may not be working.*

*(2) *. . . there is increasing number of couples in Hong Kong* V *do not want to have child.*

*(3) *People* V *live here have to accept this life style.*

(ii) **incorrect choice of relative pronoun/omission of preposition**

*(4) *. . . there was a big hole which the diameter was some 30 metres.*
(. . . whose diameter/of which the diameter . . .)

(iii) **use of ordinary pronoun instead of relative**

*(4) *In Hong Kong, it is known as a high density city, it is difficult for us to find a place. (. . . which is known . . .)*

*(5) *?At the side of the knife and fork there is a plate, a piece of ham is lying on it. (. . . on which . . .)*

*(6) *? . . . voluntary associations have to provide medical and social services for the old, these may be in terms of housing facilities. (. . . which may be . . .)*

(iv) use of less 'felicitous' structures

(7) There were five people who were injured and two of them were the drivers. (. . . two of whom . . .)

This category and the previous one are possibly cases of 'avoidance', but it is impossible to know whether the student was really looking for a relative clause and not some other structure. It is also less relevant to say that these forms are erroneous, only that their cohesion would have been improved by the use of a relative clause.

(v) overuse

(8) Most of them wore suits which were black in colour. (. . . black suits . . .)

(9) She was wearing a pair of earrings which were very big. (. . . very big earrings . . .)

(10) There is built a bridge which is made of brick. (. . . brick bridge . . .)

In these cases the relative clause would seem to be unnecessary since a premodifying adjective would suffice perfectly well. No. (8) is clearly a result of transfer from Cantonese, while (9) and (10) might stem from a number of causes, such as a tendency to verbosity in order to meet a word target, or misleading teaching materials.

It is generally accepted that while examining errors alone is interesting, it is insufficient to gain a full picture of learners' competence (Richards & Sampson 1973, Schachter 1974); it is necessary to look at correct usage as well. For this reason it was decided to carry out a more systematic survey, which is described below. First, though, let us seek some supporting information from English grammar and linguistic and learning theory.

A Brief Grammar of Relative Clauses in English

(This account is a summary of those in Quirk et al (1985: 1238–1262), Huddleston (1984: 393–405), Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983: 360–375), and the Cobuild Grammar (1990: 362–369).

Relative clauses in English occur in noun phrases as part of the postmodification (or qualification), that is, after the noun. They offer a very explicit way of giving extra information about this noun, which is called the 'antecedent'.

(11) I saw a woman who recognised me.

It is usual to distinguish two functions of relative clauses, commonly called 'defining' and 'non-defining' (or 'restrictive' and 'non-restrictive'); with the former the purpose is to define or limit the referents expressed by the noun to one particular individual or group:

(12) The man who was standing by the door pulled out a gun.

(We are interested in the man by the door, not any of the others). With the latter there is no such restriction; the relative clause is merely a way of giving extra information:

(13) The man, who was standing by the door, pulled out a gun.

(Already there is only one man in question.) Non-defining relative clauses are marked off in writing by commas (or brackets) and in speech by a pause and differing intonation pattern. They are rarer than defining (Quirk et al. 1985: 1245; Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman 1983: 360)[1] and as Quirk et al. point out, semantically they are very similar to coordination (1985: 1258).

Relative clauses should be distinguished from other types of subordinate clause, in particular nominal relative clauses (14) and appositive clauses (15):

(14) What he did next surprised everyone.

These may be said to contain their antecedent: *The thing that he did* ...

(15) The rumour that we had lost spread quickly.

(Here the clause *'that we had lost'* actually constitutes the rumour; *which* cannot replace *that*.)

A sentence could sometimes be ambiguous between apposition and relativization.

(16) A report that he stole was sent to the police.

(Did he steal a report, or did someone report that he was a thief?)

Another type of clause is the sentential relative clause:

(17) He turned up on time, which surprised everyone.

Here the antecedent of *which is* not *time* but the whole of the preceding clause. Because of its similarity to regular relatives this structure is included in the study below.

There are four major structural features of relatives in English that are worthy of note. Firstly, they are introduced by a set of words called relative pronouns that are specific to such clauses (though all do have at least one other function, e.g. as interrogatives). These are explained fully below.

Secondly, the normal rule is that the relative clause should be attached to its antecedent, even if this means interrupting the flow of the rest of the sentence:

(18) The man you spoke to is my husband.

However, these 'embeddings' may be avoided for discourse reasons, typically where the relative clause is long and the remainder of the sentence short:

(19) A man called who wanted to speak to you about the car.

(It would sound clumsy to say: *A man who wanted to speak to you about the car called.*)

Thirdly, since the relative pronoun has to be placed next to its antecedent at the start of its clause, the word order often is not the usual one in English, with objects missing from their usual place:

(20) I've lost the money that he sent. (He sent the money.)

Fourthly, in the case of prepositional objects the preposition may remain 'stranded' at the end of the clause or be fronted with its pronoun, though the former is considered to be informal:

(21) This is a problem which we'll talk about.

(22) This is a problem about which we'll talk.

The set of relative pronouns includes _who, whom, which, whose, that_ and 'zero'. _Whose_ is included, although strictly speaking it is not a pronoun; 'proform' would be a more accurate term. _Why, when_ and _where_ may also function as relative proforms _(This is the place where I was born)_ but are rare in this function and are not dealt with in the survey below.

The choice between pronouns depends on a complex of factors: whether the antecedent is personal or nonpersonal, whether the pronoun is functioning as subject, object or prepositional object, whether the clause is defining or non-defining, and the level of formality. Here is a brief summary of the restrictions on each pronoun:

who: used as subject for personal antecedents; as object (informal) but not if the preposition has been fronted:

(23) We need someone who we can talk to.

(24) *We need someone to who we can talk.

whom: as object for personal antecedents especially if the preposition has been fronted; rather uncommon and formal:

(25) We need someone to whom we can talk.

which: as both subject and object for nonpersonal antecedents, with or without preposition; in sentential relatives:

(26) The book which you gave me is very interesting.

whose: as a 'possessive adjective' (i.e. premodifying a noun) for personal antecedents; also in some cases for nonpersonal antecedents (otherwise _'of which'_ can be used):

(27) I spoke to a man whose house had been destroyed.

(28) it's an idea whose time has come.

that: as both subject and object for both personal and nonpersonal antecedents; with _all, anything, everything, nothing, little, much,_ and superlative adjectives; as complement of _be_; not with a preposition; not in non-defining clauses:

(29) The book that you gave me is very interesting.

(30) There's the boy that we gave the money to.

(31) All that we did was to tell the truth.

(32) You know the kind of person that she is.

(33) *There's the boy to that we gave the money. (. . . who . . . to/. . . to whom . . .)

(34) *My mother, that remembers you, was surprised. (. . . who. . .)

—'zero': wherever it is possible to have _that_ 'zero' is possible, except as subject (the result is sometimes called a 'contact clause'); preferred in informal contexts:

(35) There's the boy we gave the money to.

(36) The book you gave me is very interesting.

Linguistic Theory and Learning Problem

Much has been written recently about relative clauses in terms of linguistic and psycholinguistic theory; this research is summed up in Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983: 361–366) and Yip and Matthews (1991). The major contribution has been the proposal by Keenan and Comrie (1977 and 1979), within the framework of typological universal grammar, that there is a 'noun phrase accessibility hierarchy' which explains the differences in relativization between languages. Some languages, Malay for example, only allow relative clauses beginning with a subject, whereas languages such as English permit a wide range, including various types of object and genitive:

(37) The club of which he is a member does not allow women in.

Keenan and Comrie noticed a pattern to this, a hierarchy of different types of noun phrase which are more, or less, accessible to relativization; some occur in most languages, some in few. Starting with the most accessible, the order is:

subject
direct object
indirect object
oblique (i.e. prepositional excluding indirect object)
genitive
object of comparison

The central point of the hypothesis is that no matter how far a language goes, if it permits relativization at one point on the hierarchy it will always be permitted it higher up.

Extending this insight to L2 learning, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983: 262) and Rutherford (1987: 117) suggest that speakers of L1s that relativize comparatively little will have difficulty handling the relatives of an L2 that are lower down the hierarchy.[2] More precisely, as Schachter (1974) noted, this difficulty will manifest itself not only in errors but in the avoidance, conscious and otherwise, of problematic structures. She observed that Japanese and Chinese learners of English made fewer mistakes with relative clauses than Arabic and Farsi speakers; however, they also used them less frequently. She concluded that they were avoiding this structure because it was problematic for them. Yip and Matthews reach the same conclusion; their explanation, however, is that the determining factor is not L1 influence, nor indeed the accessibility hierarchy, but the difficulty involved in processing such constructions (which in turn explains the accessibility hierarchy).

Another area of potential difficulty which may be caused by processing problems is that of embedding, that is, where the antecedent is the subject of its clause and so the relative clause interrupts the flow of the sentence (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman 1983: 366):

(38) The lecturer who teaches this class is absent.

When the difficulty implied by the accessibility hierarchy is included we can suppose that the construction where the relative pronoun represents an object will be an immense problem for some learners:

(39) The lecturer that you want to talk to is absent.

The equivalent sentence without 'that' may be even harder to process, since it lacks a formal marker.

Let us now see how such suggestions fare in practice.

The Survey

Ninety-four compositions written by the same group of students in their end-of-year exam were examined for errors involving the use of relative clauses and for instances of correct use. There were 47 students in all; each contributed 2 compositions of approximately 300 words in length.

Eighty-seven occurrences (some of them erroneous) of relative pronouns were found; in addition, 12 instances of omission and obvious avoidance were identified, giving a total corpus of 99.

The first and most obvious finding is the comparative paucity of relative clauses in the compositions; depending on which of the two figures above one chooses, there was slightly less (87 out of 94) or slightly more (99 versus 94) than one per composition. It is impossible to show that this is significantly low by reference to comparable native-speaker usage, but it is hard to rule out the suspicion that students are underusing relative clauses due to lack of confidence.

The corpus was then analysed according to a number of criteria; these are dealt with one by one below.

(*a*) correct versus incorrect use

Out of the 87 instances of relative pronoun use, 16 contained a mistake of one kind or other. When added to cases of omissions and avoidance, this gives a total of 28 incorrect forms (28.3%). These are further analysed below. It seems then that when these students try to use a relative clause they do so in the main successfully[3].

(*b*) categories of user

The students were divided into 4 categories according to how they performed with relative clauses: non-users (those who used no relative clauses); incorrect users (those who only committed errors); mixed users (those who had both correct and incorrect forms); and correct users (whose relative clauses were all correct). For this purpose avoidance was not included as an error. Table 1 below shows the number in each category.

Table 1. Students according to their use of relative clauses

(i) Non-Users	7
(ii) Incorrect users	7
(iii) Mixed users	8
(iv) Correct users	25

In the correct users group, the number of instances ranged from 1 up to 5. The largest number of instances (including errors) from one student was 6. These are admittedly small numbers and it is hard to draw definite conclusions about learner use from them. For example, we would need a much larger sample of text, or even some elicitation procedure, to be sure that the 'non-users' were just that, i.e. were unable to use relative clauses. The same applies to the group of correct users.

When the grades awarded to the compositions were taken into consideration no correlation with the four groups above emerged; that is, there was no evidence that the correct users were more advanced in their English than any of the other groups. In fact, incorrect users and non-users both had a slightly higher average at 13.1 than correct users (12.8) and mixed users (12.4). This lack of trend could be expected; the numbers in the groups are too small, the sample of work was insufficient to draw reliable distinctions between students, and too many other linguistic factors were involved in the giving of grades.

(*c*) analysis of relative pronouns: form and function

When actual use of linguistic forms is investigated more interesting patterns emerge. Table 2 shows the relative pronoun used in the 87 cases.

Table 2. Form of relative pronouns

	Composition 1	Composition 2	Total
which	14	23	37
who	35	10	45
that	1	3	4
whom	1	0	1
whose	0	0	0
'zero'	0	0	0

This concentration on *which* and *who* is significant, for while *whom* and *whose* are comparatively rare, *that* is not. Indeed, if anything one would expect to find *that* used more frequently since it can substitute for both *which* and *who* (in most positions, see Section 3) and therefore offers learners a way of avoiding the personal/nonpersonal distinction. Yet this did not happen. A possible explanation is that learners avoid *that* because of its multiplicity of functions, preferring items with a simpler form/function relationship (though *which* and *who* do have an interrogative function). The absence of contact clauses with 'zero' is explained below.

The figures are even more revealing when analysed according to the function of the relative pronoun, as in Table 3.

Table 3. Function of relative pronoun (out of 87)

Subject	78	Genitive	2
Object	2	Sentential	2
Oblique	1	Unclear	2

Thus the vast majority of relative pronouns (90%) have the function of subject in their clause, which does not reflect the position in native-speaker use. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983: 366) report a figure of 32% for object relatives versus 68% for subject relatives.

Both examples of object involved *that*

(40) *A strong odd smell that you can smell before entering the zoo.*

(41) *. . . I leave my students that I loved. . .*

There were also two examples of *that* as subject so it is not possible to say that the learners have assigned a unique function to it (as object), but this does seem to hold for *which* (as subject). The absence of contact clauses alluded to above is hardly surprising, given that object relative clauses with an overt marker are rare. But all this does suggest a preference on the part of students for overt, uni-functional markers.

The only oblique (prepositional) case example was in fact an error:

(42) **Welfare fund is sufficient or not has become a hot topics since the proposal of the last year's financial budget. In which it was suggested. . .*

Yip and Matthews report similar errors.

The two examples of 'sentential' *which* came from different students:

(43) *The increase of the size of classes would certainly reduce the personal space of each student in a room, which would then increase the hardship of their learning.*

(44) *The Hong Kong Government has no consistent and long-term policies on educational development, which brought about many adverse effects.*

These should be compared with the cases of avoidance in (d)(iii) below.

Both examples of a genitive construction (involving *of* not *whose*) came from the same student, who was generally more advanced than the rest.

(45) *The earthquake occurred yesterday, caused 13 died and 50 people injured most of whom had been sent out after the treatment.*

(46) *Education is long-term investment the returns of which can never be underestimated.*

There were 6 examples of embedded relative clauses:

(47) *. . . people who have escaped from the disaster were sitting on the road sides.*

(48) *Another fireman who was wearing a white helmet with a mustache was standing behind them.*

Embedded relatives are comparatively rare in native-speaker English, but not to this extent; Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983: 366) cite a frequency of 19%[4]. So while the inherent complexity of such structures discussed above is not a barrier for some students, it may be for others.

(*d*) breakdown of incorrect use

Table 4 shows a breakdown of errors according to the categories in Section 2, along with some new categories that were not apparent before:

Table 4. Different categories of error (out of 28)

(i)	omission of the relative pronoun	6
(ii)	incorrect choice of relative pronoun/omission of preposition	3
(iii)	use of ordinary pronoun instead of relative	4
(iv)	use of other less 'felicitous' structures	2
(v)	overuse	1(2)
(vi)	relative clause detached from antecedent	5
(vii)	comma(s) around non-defining clauses missing	3
(viii)	unattributable	4

It can be seen that no one type of error predominates; omissions and detached relative clauses only stand out slightly. This reflects the variety of factors involved in relative clause formation. Here are some examples:

(i) omission of the relative pronoun

(49)*Last week there were about 300 teachers V held a vigil...*

(50)*It was discovered by a resident who lives opposite to the building, V suddenly heard a loud explosion.*

(ii) incorrect choice of relative pronoun/omission of preposition

(51)*The government is now going to import foreign labours, which is a competitor to local workers. . . (. . . who are...)*

(52)*In the location which happened the most serious fire. . . (. . . where/in which. . .)*

With only 3 errors in this category, the selection of pronoun does not seem to be a problem for the students, but of course this reflects the limited range of pronouns and constructions they use.

(iii) use of ordinary pronoun instead of relative. In all three instances of this the students should have used sentential *which*.

(53)*. . . the government decised to lower the size of classes, this will lower the quality of education. (. . . which will. . .)*

(iv) use of other less 'felicitous' structures

(54)*There were many pieces of luggage and three of them were put in layers. (. . . three of which. . .?)*

(55)*Since he is strongly-built and decisive in character, this helps him to carry out his duty. (He is. . . which helps. . .)*

(v) overuse. Only one possibly erroneous example emerged from the corpus:

(56)*?Some instances. . . show the government which is neglecting its duties. . . (. . . show that the government is. . .)*

There was one example of correct 'overuse':

(57)*There was also a plastic bag which was white in colour.*

(vi) relative clause detached from antecedent

(35)*Veronica Smith, aged 5, was badly injured during the quake, who is now ready for a surgeon. . .*

(58)The women were narrowly escaped from the disaster, who were so frightened and couldn't help crying.

With this type of error it is often unclear whether the correction should involve forwarding the whole clause ('The women, who were so frightened. . .') or just the pronoun ('The women, who narrowly escaped . . .'). Whatever the correction, there does seem to be a trend to postpone the relative clause and thereby avoid embedding (cf. remarks above in c) on embedding).

(vii)comma(s) around non-defining clauses missing

(59)Mrs Wan who has quite a big nose, frowned while complaining.

This is quite possibly a result of inattention and so not attributable to systematic error; native-speakers are prone to this error, if error it be.

One type of error that Yip and Matthews (1991) found in their study was the leaving of a 'pronominal trace' or 'resumptive pronoun':

(60)I need the book which I gave it to you.

However, this was notable by its absence in the survey. The students may be particularly conscious of this mistake and in order to avoid making it keep away from object clauses in general. Such a hyper-cautious approach may have been encouraged by the exam situation.

Materials for teaching relative clauses

It has long been recognised that the language learners use, the errors they commit, the structures they overuse or avoid, may be conditioned to some extent by their teaching materials; see amongst others Selinker (1974: 39—he uses the term 'transfer of training'), Stenson (1983), Hepburn (1991).

In order to investigate the possibility that this could have happened with the group of learners under study, I took two well-known secondary English courses, namely 'Access Today' (Books 1–5; 1986–1988) and 'New Integrated English' (Books 1–5; 1990–1991), and examined how they treat relative clauses. There is no claim that these are the best (or the worst) courses on the market in Hong Kong, nor that they were the books used by the students in the survey; the belief is that they are representative of what is on offer, and that the students will have encountered something similar as part of their exposure to relative clauses.

Both courses have an explicit focus on relative clauses in two places: 'Access Today' in Book 3, Unit 14, and Book 5, Unit 4; 'New Integrated English' in Book 2, Unit 2, and Book 3, Unit 14. In the first unit the former introduces *who, which* and *that*, and practises them by means of a combination exercise:

(61) There is the girl. She works for your mother. (. . . who. . .)

Formally this is adequate, but it does not give much insight into the function of such clauses.

Book 5, Unit 4 of Access Today focusses on the defining/non-defining distinction. Within this context direct and prepositional objects are introduced, including the various pronouns that may be used:

(62) *The writer whom/that/—I admire is David Attenborough.*

But the learners' attention is not drawn specifically to these constructions; the main concern is whether the sentences are defining or not.

Book 2, Unit 2, of New Integrated English introduces the personal/nonpersonal distinction and the pronouns *who, which* and *that* as subjects in definitions:

(63) *Bus drivers are people who drive buses.*

This is useful as it gives a valid reason for using relative clauses and offers a lot of practice. There is mention of contact clauses in the syllabus but no evidence formal or otherwise in the text, just one example, unnoted, of *that* as an object relative pronoun. Later on there is practice of sentences like the following, based on pictures:

(64) *That's the teacher who shouted at Mary.*

In other words, only pronouns functioning as subjects are practised.

In Book 3, Unit 14, New Integrated English introduces the distinction between defining and non-defining relative clauses and explains it briefly. Four model sentences are given using *which* and *that*; two have object pronouns (rather than subject), and there are two cases of embedding, but none of this is pointed out; the only focus is on the defining/non-defining distinction. There follows an exercise in which learners have to insert *that* or *which* into sentences, for example:

(65) *Oliver Twist, ________ was written by Charles Dickens, is a good story.*

(66) *I've read the book ________ you said was so interesting.*

Unfortunately *which* can be used in all of the sentences, except for one where the antecedent is a superlative adjective ('the most beautiful sunset') and therefore *that* would be required anyway:

(67) *It's the most beautiful sunset ________ I've ever seen.*

In later sections *whose* and the distinction between *who* and *whom* is introduced (still within the context of defining/non-defining clauses). Another gap-filling exercise is used to practise *who/whom*; however, again students can perform successfully by using only one form, *who*.

(68) *The man ________ was arrested last week has been set free today.*

(69) *The man ________ the police arrested had a bag full of bank notes.*

Three general points can be made about these courses:

(i) both courses highlight the defining/non-defining distinction, but given the rarity of non-defining clauses one is forced to question this. In addition, there is the methodological issue of whether it is advisable to introduce two similar constructions simultaneously rather than establishing one first. Semantically, the distinction is quite complicated and not easy to convey to learners.

(ii) neither course gives any explicit focus to embeddings or the object (versus subject) function of pronouns. Yet learning theory suggests they can be a large problem for Chinese learners of English.

(iii) conventional exercise formats such as gap-filling may not be suited to the complexity of relative pronoun choice, in particular where the functions of two forms overlap.

Returning to the question of whether these materials could actually be responsible for avoidance, the answer must be that we cannot prove it, yet in concentrating on subject relative clauses they do not help.

Conclusions and suggestions

To sum up, the students in this study were capable for the most part only of producing relative clauses using *which* or *who* as the subject of the clause. Ventures beyond this safe ground were few and sometimes resulted in errors. The significant absence of object relative clauses suggests a lack of competence or deliberate avoidance (or both); a similar explanation may account for the comparative scarcity of embedded clauses.

The overall impression one gets of this particular area is of a competence that is stuck at one particular point but which is feeling its way tentatively forward into more complex constructions such as object relative clauses, use of sentential *which* and embedded clauses.

A number of factors may be behind this extensive avoidance. One is the inherent but varying complexity of relative clauses, as expressed by the accessibility hierarchy: certain types of relative clause occur in fewer languages and are harder to acquire. If we view this in terms of processing difficulty we can also take into account avoidance of embedding. To this should be added the problems specific to English: the fronting or stranding of prepositions, the different word order, the complex rules governing the choice of pronoun. When all this is added up, it is not surprising that learners avoid relative clauses, either consciously because their mistakes have been pointed out, or unconsciously since they are simply unaware of all the various constructions.

Whatever the source, it is obvious that learners need help with relative clauses, but it seems they are not getting the right sort in their coursebooks. Clearly it is not possible to cater for every point of difficulty in the syllabus; it is necessary to select a few salient points and hope that the rest will be filled in by 'acquisition-rich' activities such as extensive reading. Nevertheless a number of specific suggestions can be made:

(i) concentration on the defining/non-defining distinction is unwarranted. It would be best to introduce non-defining relatives separately, after defining relatives have become established, especially as the former are rarer and can be covered for by other structures (see Section 3).

(ii) direct and prepositional objects as distinct from subject relativizations should be focussed on explicitly and practised.

(iii) if possible, embedded relative clauses should be featured.

(iv) at a later stage, sentential *which* should receive attention.

(v) appropriate exercise formats should be devised for practising the choice of relative pronouns. The one below may be an improvement on those discussed above:

Exercise. Put a tick in the boxes if you think the word can be used in the gaps in the sentences.

	WHO	WHOM
1. The man ________ you're looking for has gone.		
2. Behind her there is a girl ________ is wearing a red dress.		

And so on. A similar exercise can be devised to practise *that* and *which*; indeed, all the relative pronouns can be practised using this format.[5]

In conclusion then, this article has looked at the production of relative clauses by a homogeneous group of learners and found that, although they make comparatively few mistakes, there is a serious case of avoidance. Some questions have not been addressed; to give a fuller picture we would need (i) to look at groups at other levels, (ii) to see whether some elicitation procedure could show whether learners are capable if forced of using the relative clause types that they seem to avoid, and (iii) to see whether similar problems occur with comprehension as well as production.

But if in its modest way this article can help teachers and materials writers to understand one of the problems learners of English in Hong Kong face and to find ways of dealing with those problems, then it will have served its purpose.

NOTES

1. I carried out a count of 193 occurrences of the relative pronoun *which* (from the Cobuild Corpus). Of these 151 (78%) were defining and 42 (22%) were not.

2. The construction in Chinese (including Cantonese) which is most similar to English relative clauses involves a premodifying clause linked to its noun by the marker 'de' (in Mandarin) or 'ge' (in Cantonese). This marker does not vary and is used for other types of premodification. With this construction, only subjects and direct objects may be relativized, the latter being shown in this example from Mandarin:

Wo gei ta de qian...
I GIVE HIM de MONEY
'The money that I gave him...'

It seems then that L1 interference cannot be suggested as a cause of the avoidance found in this study, since one would expect to find direct objects relativized as well as subjects.

3. This is similar to Schachter's findings with Chinese students; out of 76 instances of use in her study, only 9 were erroneous.

4. The figures from my count of *which* confirm this: 161 (84%) were not embedded, 30 (16%) were (two cases were unclear).

5. For a variety of exercises which practise the points covered in this article, readers may refer to books like *The Heinemann English Grammar* by Digby Beaumont and Colin Granger (1989, Heinemann) or *English Grammar in Use* by Raymond Murphy (1985, CUP).

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THE TAIL THAT WAGS

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Hong Kong Examinations Authority

Hong Kong is an examination-mad town. Public examinations dominate its secondary education system with students preparing for their 'O'-level examinations taken at the end of secondary 5 and 'A'-level exams which they sit after secondary 7. Teachers plan and conduct their lessons with an eye fixed firmly on the requirements of the examinations in their subjects. The relatively minuscule geographic area of Hong Kong, its comparatively well-educated population of almost 6 million people and its prevailing ethos of capitalism and money-making create a strongly competitive society in which a student's results in public exams are crucial to success . . . for entry to tertiary education or for employment. Given this orientation of Hong Kong society, it is little wonder that the local public examinations create extreme pressures on Hong Kong students from the day they first enter the educational system – or more accurately, before that day, when anxious parents take their tiny 'scholars' to pre-kindergarten interviews to gain admission to choice places even on this lowest rung of the educational ladder. Likewise, it is not surprising that the public examinations in Hong Kong are not simply reflective – that is, assessing the students' achievement in subject areas covered by the teaching syllabuses as laid down by the Education Department (ED), but, in fact, are oftentimes prescriptive – that is, establishing the aims and objectives which actually serve as teaching guidelines for the schools. Some critics of the system argue that Hong Kong presents a case of the examination tail wagging the education dog.

Backwash

The term 'backwash' (or, sometimes 'washback') is used by testers to describe the effects of testing on classroom practices. This concept of backwash, then, indicates a recognition of the reality of many educational situations. Rather than serving as some kind of totally objective, after-the-fact measurement of the teaching and learning which has gone on before the assessment procedure, tests often play a much more active role in the educational process. In fact, the influence of testing has been termed 'the hidden curriculum' by Snyder (as discussed in Crooks, 1988: 445) who recognises that the content of tests often actually determines what goes on inside the classrooms, but that this influence is just as often not publicly acknowledged or understood. The nature and strength of this backwash effect and the benefits or disadvantages of the backwash depend in large measure upon the educational system as a whole, upon the nature of the other participants involved in writing or establishing the 'competing' curricula, and, of course, upon the types of examinations in question.

Educationalists often decry the detrimental nature of examinations, particularly the harmful psychological effects that an over-emphasis on exams can have on students and teachers alike. It is also frequently pointed out that examinations which are largely factual in nature or which are highly mechanistic in format can have a detrimental influence on teaching and learning in the classroom. Pearson (1988) notes that in both Ethiopia and Sri Lanka the introduction of 'scientific', objective language testing in the 1970's led to an almost exclusive concern with mechanical testing and rote classroom learning to the detriment of the learning of higher level language skills. Therefore, writes Pearson, ". . . . the results of ignoring, or giving only token place to, the testing of speaking is apparent in Sri Lanka and in many other countries: pupils and teachers tend to ignore the teaching and learning of speaking skills" (p. 103). Certain types of knowledge or skills are rather conveniently and easily tested, scored and quantified while other types are not so readily adapted to testing or objective measurement: facts and lower-level cognitive skills are fairly easy to test and measure; more complex concepts and higher-level cognitive skills are much more difficult to measure with precision. As Biggs and Collis (1982) indicate, quantitative evaluation can be fairly straightforward; qualitative evaluation is generally a much more complicated and demanding process. In language teaching and testing, for example, reading and writing skills are much more easily 'testable' than are listening or speaking skills. The result of this disparity is what Frederiksen (1984: 193) calls 'the real test bias:' that is, the tendency in all subjects for there to be areas which are *not* tested and therefore *not* actually taught in the classroom precisely because they don't lend themselves easily and conveniently to being tested. It is generally accepted that until recent years, tests of speaking have largely been omitted from test batteries mainly due to the inherent difficulties in reliably measuring the speaking ability of candidates. One unfortunate consequence of this omission as we have already seen in Pearson's examples, has been a lack of emphasis on speaking skills in classrooms in countries where the public examinations have not included oral exams. In fact, in a number of countries, including Sri Lanka and Zambia, tests of speaking skills have been introduced specifically to redress the imbalance of emphasis on the four skills in the classroom. (See Pearson, 1988 and Hilsden, 1990).

As these examples indicate, despite its widespread negative reputation, the backwash effect can and often does have a very positive effect on language teaching and learning. Pearson (1988) uses the term 'levers for change' (p. 103) to refer to the use of tests to promote the latest ideas in the classroom. Davies (1977) discusses his own experiences as an advisor in West Africa where tests were designed to reflect and to encourage the use of communicative methodology in the schools.

In his survey of the effects of evaluation of students, Crooks (1988) deals almost exclusively with 'classroom' evaluation procedures, including

1313

tests administered by teachers and other assessment instruments generally less formal than public examinations. Crooks, in fact, indicates that students and teachers spend a much greater percentage of their time and energies on classroom evaluation activities than on 'standardised tests' (roughly the equivalent of what we label in this article 'public examinations') and that, at any rate, classroom evaluations have a greater psychological impact on teachers and students than do standardised tests. This relative importance of classroom evaluation versus public examinations is probably true world-wide and in a sense may even be the case in Hong Kong. Certainly teachers' assessments of pupils and the use of classroom tests, including all-important mock exams are integral to English language teaching in the Territory. However, the nature of the Hong Kong system as already described would seem to indicate that a very significant role is played here by the public examinations and the determined preparation of students for them. Classroom evaluation in Hong Kong is largely a prelude, a run-through, for the 'real thing': the public exams.

This article will concentrate on the effects of public examinations in Hong Kong on the educational system, particularly at the secondary school level. It will primarily be concerned with the effects of *English language* examinations although reference to examinations in other subject areas will be made from time to time when such references seem relevant. In general, the article will focus on how the public examinations of English language affect (1) the *content* of English language teaching, (2) the teaching *methods* used by language teachers, and (3) the *learning strategies* of secondary school students in Hong Kong.

Background

Some writers attribute the origins of large-scale testing to 19th Century England and the first public examinations administered and written at Oxford and Cambridge in the mid-1800s. These exams were created expressly to influence what went on in the classrooms without the necessity of state intervention in the education system. (See Matthews (1985: 4–7) for an excellent discussion of the history of public examinations in Britain). Other historians insist that public examinations actually originated much earlier in Imperial China where exams were used to control admission to the mandarin official ranks and a highly-developed and systematised examination process was a keystone of the prevailing Confucian philosophy.

Today, the U.K. educational system is characterised by a large number of public examination boards which administer 'O'-level and 'A'-level examinations. In the United States, in contrast to Britain, there has never been this tradition of large-scale public examinations for which all school leavers sit. Instead, in the States, traditionally, the nearest one has had to 'public exams' are the 'private' standardised tests such as the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test (PSAT) which are taken by huge numbers of students each year. The results of these influential tests are used widely by institutions of higher education in the country as yardsticks for admission (see Kirkland, 1971: 303–306 and Frederiksen: 193–195 for discussions of the effects of these standardised tests on teaching and learning in America). In more recent years, especially since the early 1980's there has been a significant increase in state-government administered achievement tests as part of the whole accountability movement in American public education.

The Hong Kong educational system is characterised as an examination-led system. Perhaps being a British colony on the periphery of China with a largely Cantonese population made Hong Kong particularly ripe for this type of exam-dominated education. Although the teaching syllabus for the Hong Kong schools is written by the Curriculum Development Council (CDC) of the Education Department (ED), the autonomous and quasi-independent Exams Authority also writes its own examination syllabuses. The schools, themselves, generally do not create their own individual syllabuses nor do they normally use textbooks which do not carry the imprimatur of the ED (although they may do so if they submit a formal request to the ED). Not surprisingly, as Morris (1990) points out,

> *the curriculum in practice [is] defined by publications of the [HKEA], specifically public examination scripts and their accompanying marking schedules. (p. 19)*

The textbooks in use locally, too, generally reflect the examination syllabus in their format, emphasis and approach. The primacy of the examination system was noted as early as the 1930's by a visiting British education inspector, Burney, who apparently concluded that the examination system in Hong Kong in that day and age resulted in the same kind of rote learning it is said to foster today (see Lord, 1987: 3).

The Hong Kong educational system over the past decade or so has been moving from a highly elitist system to one of virtually universal education through secondary school and in the 1990's to one with widely-available tertiary places. Thus, Hong Kong has progressed from a system designed largely for academically-motivated students to a system for a much more broadly-based student population. Morris (1990) indicates that although efforts have been made in recent years to introduce educational innovations in Hong Kong such as more heuristic teaching methods, these innovations have had only limited impact on what actually goes on in the classrooms. This has led to what Morris calls, a 'facade of change' whereby the teachers profess to be in favour of the innovations but in fact either cannot or do not successfully implement these changes in the classroom. This absence of actual change, according to Morris, is due to the fact that the changes have been 'imported from the West' without proper adaptation to the local scene and without the input of local teachers into the original proposals. In addition, there have not been sufficient resources available to train teachers in the implementation of the innovations. Finally, the ever-presence of the examination/assessment system is the real shaper of classroom policies regardless of superficial innovations mandated from above. Attempts to introduce child-centred learning and to move away from rote memorisation in, for example, integrated sciences, social studies and economics were largely unsuccessful. In 1982, the Visiting Panel of Secondary Education (popularly known as the Llewellyn Commission) made the following observation regarding classes which members of the Commission observed in these three subject areas:

> *In 'non-exam, [sic] years, the atmosphere seemed fairly relaxed, but in the examination preparatory forms all was deadly earnest and students were seen taking notes, laboriously completing model answers and learning texts by rote. . . . Since students are desperate to obtain their qualifications, and as teachers are judged professionally in terms of their students' results, the whole business is understandable. Discovery methods, team teaching and individualised instruction have little appeal to parents, students and teachers in a situation where the ends require more didactic means. (as quoted in Morris, 1990: 33)*

Hong Kong's educational system, then, is a clear example of one where what goes on in the classroom is largely dictated by what happens in the public examination halls. It is a system of "friendly conspiracy" (to use a phrase confined by Fabian, 1982: 25), made up of teachers, schools, publishers, course planners and educational institutions, who, together, determine what the students are exposed to in the course of their education.

In general, the Hong Kong system resembles the Classical Humanist system which Clark describes in his analysis of curriculum renewal (1987). In essence, under a Classical Humanist system, the universities largely control the content of examinations and the examinations, in turn, are the most important determinants of the syllabuses of secondary education courses. Some writers, like Fabian (1982), regard this role of examinations as "unacceptable and unreasonable" (p. 25). Others, like Morris in his description of the Hong Kong scene, seem to regard the role of the exams as a fact of life, without imposing quite so negative a judgement on the system. Nevertheless, Morris does specifically state that any change in the educational system in Hong Kong must inevitably first involve a change in the examinations: through the exams syllabus one can effect what happens in classrooms from Wong Tai Sin to Shau Kei Wan. Morris cites the instance of change in the 'A'-level Economics syllabus, initiated by a Hong Kong University professor and implemented through the HKEA examinations syllabus as a successful example of change using the examinations route (Morris, 1990: 67–68). This particular change succeeded largely because the teachers realised that the changes in the nature of the 'A'-level examination would require that they change the content of their teaching syllabus and proceeded to implement those changes in classroom practice.

The Backwash Effect

How do public examinations affect education? In what ways does the backwash work? Today, most educators as well as professional testers, have abandoned the myth prevailing until the 1970's that tests were ideally 'value free', scientific instruments designed by testing professional only to measure how well the test candidates had mastered a given subject, the content of which was determined elsewhere by professional educators. In the past, testers "were popularly believed to live in an arcane world of numbers and formulae," divorced from the 'real' world (Alderson, 1981: 5). Teachers, especially language teachers, who themselves probably come from non-numerate backgrounds, have been largely suspicious of testers but have viewed testing as a mathematically precise discipline. Increasingly, however, even testers admit that their field is a largely "inexact science"(Clark, 1980: 80). In addition, it is freely admitted that examination are prescriptive as well as reflective (see Matthews: 30), a conclusion which every Secondary 4 or 5 student in any Hong Kong secondary school could readily attest to. How, then, does the backwash lap at the shores of a typical Hong Kong English language lesson?

First, the examinations affect the content of the lessons taught, both in broad terms and in much more specific details as well. This influence on course content may be direct – through what the teacher plans for her lessons – or it may be somewhat less direct, but nonetheless highly significant, – through the content of the recommended textbooks used in most schools. In the broadest terms, the content of courses is influenced by the weighting of the parts or subsections of the examinations. For example, in the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination (HKCEE), Syllabus B English Language examination[1], the weightings of the parts of the exam are as follows:

Composition	25%
Reading Multiple Choice	25%
Listening	15%
Oral	10%
Reading, Summary and Usage	25%

Given these weighting, it seems quite obvious that teachers and students will spend more time in class working on reading, writing and usage (comprising a total of 75% of the tests marks) and relatively less time on developing speaking and listening skills (regardless of the real-life usefulness in a place like Hong Kong of improving one's oral/aural abilities in English). Likewise, in the Sixth Form very little classroom attention is paid to helping students with their spoken English, as there is at the present time no oral component of the 'A'-level Use of English Examination (although this situation will change in 1992 when Secondary 6 students begin preparing for the 1994 UE Exam which for the first time will include an oral component).

In addition, the effects of the public examination upon the content of lessons may be quite specific. Paper V (Reading, Summary and Usage) of the HKCEE traditionally has included sections testing phrasal verbs, those troublesome items in English such as *put out* [a fire], *look up to* [a person], and so on, consisting of a verb and a preposition or particle. Although English language specialists might well quarrel with the importance of phrasal verbs or at least might feel that they are exceedingly difficult to systematically teach, nonetheless in English language classes throughout the Territory, students are subjected to lessons about phrasal verbs because, quite simply, they will probably appear in the 'O'-level HKCEE.

The public examinations also affect how teachers teach and how students learn. However, unlike the influence on content, whereby if one wants to effect a change in content, a reasonably assured way of accomplishing this would be to change the content of the examination, it seems much more difficult to use public exams to consciously change the methods employed by teachers to teach and students to learn (see Matthews, 1985: 28). In general, teachers and students seem to adopt a highly utilitarian approach to examinations: whatever method of teaching and learning seems likely to 'get through the syllabus' and maximise the students' exam results, with the most efficient expenditure of effort (given that scarce pre-exam resource: time), will be adopted regardless of the pedagogical value of that approach. If this means having students memorise essays or learn by heart page after page of vocabulary or having teachers give lengthy and largely unfathomable grammatical explanations to the students, so be it. The desired end (a pass in the HKCEE) would seem to justify even the most dubious means.

Matthews (1985) writes that *". . . . the hard fact of day-to-day schooling is that teachers seem to rely heavily on externally prescribed goals of examination results as a prime motivator (for their students)" (p.23).* In fact the role of public examinations in the motivation of students appears to be an extremely complex subject, a matter open to many, sometimes contradictory interpretations. Certainly every secondary school student in Hong Kong is acutely conscious of the importance of public examinations for the individual's future. The fact that exams in Hong Kong are norm-referenced and therefore highly competitive, pitting student against student, classmate against classmate in the high-stakes 'combat' for good exam results would seem to make the examinations in Hong Kong extrinsically motivating for students. It is not evident, however, that Hong Kong students are actually aware of the fact that the exams are norm-referenced or of the implications of such a system in terms of competition. In fact, there is some evidence, for example, that large numbers of Hong Kong students will resit an exam (as in the case of two 1992 exams reoffered because of flooding on the day of the original exam) in the hopes the 'second' exam will be an easier test and therefore that they will do 'better'. This reasoning, of course, pays no heed to the dictates of norm-referencing, as an 'easier' exam simply results in all candidates gaining higher marks but remaining at the same relative position in the norm-referenced results.

In addition, as Crooks (1988) points out in his article, there is widespread agreement that the "use of extrinsic motivation is problematic" (p. 463). The effects depend on the personality and psychological makeup of the individual student. A student with a high sense of self-efficacy may well work hard to prepare for a public examination, feeling as she probably

1318

will, that she has a good or at least reasonable chance of success. On the other hand, a student with a low sense of self-efficacy may well not work to prepare for the public examination, because she feels that even her hardest efforts will not be rewarded with good exam results.

For students who suffer from test anxiety, public examinations like those in Hong Kong probably have quite detrimental effects. Crooks (1988: 461) recognises that the "debilitating effects" of test anxiety are especially noticeable with standardised tests which he calls "particularly intrusive" and therefore disturbing for students prone to test anxiety. Certainly the Hong Kong public examinations, with some 125,000 candidates taking the HKCEE and 17,000 sitting the A-level exams, are 'intrusive' despite the best efforts of the Examinations Authority to minimize those intrusions. The exams are highly impersonal: students are identified by anonymous candidate number, sit the exams in large, and often physically uncomfortable, exam halls throughout Hong Kong rather than in their own schools. The exams of 'necessity' involve bureaucratic red-tape: students must follow detailed and sometimes confusing regulations often specific to each examination paper. Examples can be found in the procedures governing the use of pencil or pen; the directions for making of notes (in spaces provided), the use of machine-graded multiple-choice answer sheets for certain (but not all) papers or questions. Furthermore, candidates are faced with a myriad of rules such as the provision that certain brands or models of electronic calculators are allowed into examination halls, while others are excluded. Candidates may sometimes be confronted with *seemingly* inexplicable procedures although there actually may be very convincing explanations for those procedures. For example: on the English composition papers, students are not allowed to write on alternate lines of the answer books and are warned that they will be penalised if they do so. Why? Because studies have shown that students who do use alternate lines invariably receive higher marks from raters of compositions due to the neatness of their papers and thus the prohibition is designed to remove this 'unfair' advantage gained by line-skippers. (Oddly, students are allowed to take calculators into English language examinations, but must stow them under their desks). It is little wonder, then, that students often feel that they are very small components of an enormous examination system which is highly impersonal on the one hand but personally highly important on the other. In Hong Kong, as might be imagined, students and teachers spend much of the time in their preparation for the examinations not studying the contents of the subjects to be examined, but rather learning the mechanics or rules governing the taking of the examinations.

The Hong Kong Examinations Authority does explicitly attempt to design its examinations so that they test more than simple surface knowledge of facts. In fact, the Exams Authority tries to make sure that no more than 30 percent of any examination paper tests purely factual information. Nonetheless the system, unfortunately, does seem to encourage local students to adopt study strategies to learn at the level of 'knowledge', rather than at the higher levels of 'application of knowledge' or 'transfer of knowledge to new situations' (to use the three-fold classification which Crooks (1988) employs). Textbooks which contain little more than 'clones' of past exam papers along with 'model' answers seem to abound and some students in Hong Kong, particularly the weaker candidates, tend to spend long hours memorising those model answers, rather, it would appear, than actually learning how to answer similar questions. To be fair, of course, there are many very good students who do not concentrate on rote memorisation. However, among the candidates at the barely pass level and below, there does seem to be an abiding faith that perhaps the same question as appears in the practice book, or at least a question identical enough that the marker will not notice that the memorised answer doesn't quite 'fit' the question, will appear in the examination this year. 'Past paper practice' is a favourite exercise of students, if not of teachers, as a way of familiarising the students with the format and the mechanistic requirements of the papers.

In certain examinations, such as the HKCEE composition paper, the Use of English composition paper or the UE WASPS (Practical Skills for Work and Study, a quite sophisticated and demanding paper), the students do have a chance to extend themselves and their cognitive abilities to levels such as those labelled "relational" or even "extended abstract" by Biggs and Collis (1982). However, students and teachers, as well as textbooks, often seem to encourage the students to take a "unistructural" or at best "multistructural" approach to study for these examinations. Thus, for example, rather than trying to master how to use English language to describe people, the student will memorise one or several descriptions in English of people. The student will then insert into any essay question on the examination this pre-memorised description of a 'person'. The student is using a "unistructural" (or even "pre-structural") approach to a question which actually expects a much higher cognitive level. Likewise, students often learn, by rote, idiomatic phrases in English or 'important-sounding' words which they then throw into any and every essay without regard to appropriateness.

As well as having a profound impact on students, the examination system in Hong Kong also affects teachers and their behaviour. Morris (1990: 49-51) reports on the results of a study he conducted on the teaching of Economics at Form 4 and 5 levels. He found that teachers cite the public examinations as the most important factor affecting their teaching. They generally feel that they need to 'cover the syllabus' and prepare students for examination questions and, in general, they believe that the most efficient way of accomplishing these two tasks within the busy school year is by the traditional teaching method of lecturing to their students. More innovative methods, such as student-centred learning and heuristic methods are generally avoided by the teachers even if they believe these more modern approaches are worthwhile. This failure to adopt innovative practices is due to the constraints of the examination system. Exam pressures are exerted by the students themselves or by the school's principal. According to the results of interviews which Morris conducted with teachers for his study, the teachers feel that the students will blame the teacher if they fail the examination, and as the students expect the teacher to cover the syllabus, that is what the teacher usually does. Likewise, according to the teachers in Morris's study, if the students do not get what they regard as adequate results in their examination, they will withhold cooperation from the teacher they regard as responsible and thus will make life quite difficult for that teacher. In addition, according to the teachers in Morris's study, the school principal exerts strong pressure on the teacher to teach to the examination. The principal is well aware of how well or poorly a teacher's classes do in the public exams and teachers, at least, believe that their students' performance will directly affect the principal's rating of them and thus their prospects of promotion.

English Language Examinations in Hong Kong

There are quite a few cases of public English language examinations in Hong Kong affecting classroom activities. Johnson and Wong (1981), for example, discuss the Hong Kong Scaling Test for English at the end of Secondary 3, introduced in 1981, though subsequently discontinued. A Working Group which designed the Scaling Test and tried out a sample test on 1,500 students, felt that one desired result of the test would be that *". . . classroom activities will . . . . be more valuable and more interesting than preparation for a formal type of test, and will represent worthwhile learning experiences in their own right."* (*Testing Communicative Competence*, 1979: 52). Johnson and Wong see the Scaling Test as an example of *"testing as a force for change in teaching"* (p. 279). They view the Scaling Test as a way of introducing more genuinely communicative methods of teaching into the classroom, including the use of authentic materials, and thereby:

> *as a way of achieving syllabus revision with the resulting changes in textbook design and classroom learning and teaching techniques. (p. 277).*

The test designers originally planned to include an oral/aural component of the test but were prevented from doing so by *"technical and logistic problems"* (Testing Communicative Competence, 1979: 52). However, they did include cloze tests as well as task-based communicative elements in the examination. They gave heavy emphasis to meaning as well as to form, to contextualised language items rather than to discrete point items and to Hong Kong-based, authentic materials. In these ways, they hoped to ensure that the backwash effect to be beneficial in the classroom. The Scaling Test is no longer used because the educational situation in Hong Kong has changed over the past ten years with the continued expansion of free or subsidised public education, beyond Secondary 3. Nonetheless, the Scaling Test does seem to have affected English language teaching in Secondary 1 to 3 in the more communicative approach it fostered.

A second example of classroom innovation brought about by the introduction of a particular examination can be found in the addition of a listening component to the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination in 1986. Although there had been an oral/speaking component of the HKCEE since at least the late 1940's and although there was already a listening test in the 'A'-level examination, until the introduction of the Paper 3 Listening Test in 1986, there was no listening component of the HKCEE. When the decision was taken to add a listening component, it was with the explicit expectation that this new element of the examination would have a significant effect upon the teaching of English in the secondary schools of the Territory. Towards that end, the Education Department, at considerable expense, had induction loop listening systems installed in each government and aided school to encourage schools to include lessons for improving students' listening skills. The induction loop system, which comprises a tape player and short-distance transmission system as well as headphones for students, theoretically allows students to take part in listening lessons and activities even in schools situated in areas of extremely high-levels of noise pollution, such as those schools located near the flight path of Kai Tak International Airport.

The Paper 3 Listening component of the HKCEE carries a weighting of 15% of the total marks of the English language examination, not as significant as the written composition (25%) or the Reading Multiple Choice (25%) or the Reading/Summary Passage (25%), but nonetheless a rather sizeable portion of the exam. The listening component consists of two parts, Part A and Part B. Part A involves relatively short, discrete listening items, including listening to descriptions and choosing the correct picture being described, task-based items using semi-authentic listening texts simulating media broadcasts of various kinds, and items requiring the students to answer questions relating to maps, diagrams or other pictures. Part B involves an extended listening exercise in which the students listen to approximately five minutes of spoken text and then answer questions about it and a form-filling exercise in which the students hear an interview or exchange and fill in a semi-authentic form as they listen to the tape.

A brief survey of the Annual Reports published annually by the HKEA and written by the Chief Examiners of each paper, respectively, regarding the listening exam since its inception in 1986 reveals four important points concerning this test. First, it is clear that the backwash effect of the exam was quite intentional. The desired changes in classroom practices are spelt out quite explicitly. For example, in the 1986 Report, is the following:

> *The intention behind the introduction of the Listening Test was to encourage greater emphasis on listening in the school curriculum and to promote a wider range of listening experiences in the classroom and outside. Teachers should encourage students to take advantage of English listening offered by the media. (HKEA, Certificate of Education Annual Report, 1986: 61).*

Second, the Reports specifically suggest that English teachers should familiarise their students with the mechanics of the listening examinations and with day-to-day listening and notation conventions, such as writing out dates, spelling common Hong Kong place names, and so on, particularly for the form-filling listening exercise. Third, the Reports from 1987 onward emphasise that the exam has been purposely made more difficult year-by-year and that from the Exams Authority's point of view, the backwash effect has been quite positive. For example the 1990 Report states that

> *Overall this paper [1990] was marginally more difficult than in 1989, and it is intended that the degree of difficuity will again be slightly increased in the next administration. ... [I]t is clear that the listening skills of the candidates are improving, no doubt in large measure due to more focused teaching in preparation for this paper. (HKEA CE Annual Report, 1990: 69).*

Fourth, the Reports make clear that the questions on the listening test are designed to test a variety of different levels of cognitive processing. For example, some of the questions involve low-level listening/processing abilities *"with the actual words of the answer to the question occurring in the extract they [the candidates] listened to".* Other questions required *"higher level skills of interpretation and inference-making".* (HKEA CE Annual Report, 1988: 65-66).

The School Certificate Listening Test is a very expensive test to set, moderate, and record. It is administratively an extremely complicated component to run, requiring, as it does, some 225 examination halls equipped with induction loop systems and necessitating 5 versions of the test to be given over a two-day period. However, the backwash effects of the test are obviously regarded as important and beneficial enough to warrant the trouble and expense. Now after six years of experience with the test, schools, teachers and students seem to accept the validity of its existence and to have incorporated listening into the prevailing pattern of preparation for the English language examination.

Yet another example of an examination created largely for its expected backwash effect is the case of the Use of English Oral Examination which will go on stream in Hong Kong in 1994. The Use of English Examination is the 'A'-level examination used by the University of Hong Kong and other local tertiary institutions as a standard for admission. The UE Exam was extensively redesigned in 1989. This 1989 New UE includes a largely task-based, thematic listening examination (Paper A), a fairly traditional writing test which is impression-marked and concentrates equally on accuracy and content (Paper B), a reading comprehension and language systems examination which is half multiple-choice and half short answer, non-multiple choice (Paper C) and an examination known as Practical Skills for Work and Study or WASPS which is a task-based exercise requiring broadly integrative abilities of reading, note-taking, synthesising and summarising information and writing (Paper D). However, the 1989 New

Use of English examination *does not* include an Oral Examination component. The omission was in part due to the costs and complexity of running an oral exam, in part because of the problems of reliability at an oral, and in part because the Exams Authority felt that the New UE format, as it was, constituted a large enough change to expect students and teachers to absorb and adjust to at one go. As a result, however, very little attention is paid to encouraging the improvement of English speaking abilities in Sixth Form classes in Hong Kong. Because of a perceived need to improve spoken English and because of the desire to have an assessment of applicants' spoken abilities, the University of Hong Kong and other tertiary institutions suggested in 1989 that it would like the Examinations Authority to include an oral component in the UE Exam. If this were not done, argued the tertiary institutions, they would have to look elsewhere for a test which did measure oral ability, because these schools regarded oral English as particularly important for students admitted to study.

Therefore, the HKEA in 1989 agreed to consider the possibility of adding an oral component to the UE Exam, having first devised a rough format which would allow for up to 20,000 candidates to be examined in a 10-day period at an acceptable cost (i.e. for no more than a 40% increase in the subject fee). In the Autumn of 1990 the HKEA Use of English Subject Committee established a Working Party to make specific recommendations regarding the possibility of an oral exam. That Orals Working Party, comprised of representatives from Hong Kong University, Chinese University, the Hong Kong Polytechnic, Lingnam College, other educational institutions, plus secondary school English language teachers, refined the format for the oral examination. As part of the process of devising the oral, the Exams Authority conducted pilot tests in the first half of 1991. Details of the suggested oral were submitted to all 250 secondary schools which teach Sixth Form in May 1991 and after revising the proposal in light of the schools' reactions, a final proposal was approved by the Board of the Exams Authority in early 1992. And the official version of the oral test was sent to all schools in May, 1992. Sixth Form students in September 1992 will begin preparing for the new oral addition to UE for the Spring, 1994 administration of the UE Examination.

The UE Oral will be composed of two parts: Part One will involve each candidate with a group of three other candidates reading a short passage and then orally presenting an account of the passage to their three fellow candidates and to two examiners. For Part Two, the four candidates will be required to take part in a group discussion for the planning of a project related to the topic or theme of the passages that the candidates presented individually for Part One. The first part, then, will involve somewhat lower level speaking skills and the examiner will be assessing the candidate on accuracy of grammar and of pronunciation and on intelligibility. Part Two of the examination will involve interpersonal interaction and the candidates will therefore be assessed on much higher level skills of communicative abilities over and above purely linguistic abilities, including fluency, turn-taking, range of vocabulary and structures and intelligibility.

It is obviously too early to tell whether or not the existence of the Use of English Oral Examination will have the desired backwash effect on the teaching of English in Secondary 6 and 7. One assumes that given the weighting of the Oral of 18% of the total UE subject mark, that teachers and students will, in fact, pay close heed to the improvement of oral skills. Presumably this new exam will lead to the publication of new textbooks with accompanying audiotapes and videotapes in Hong Kong directed towards the improvement of speaking in general and the practising of the format of the new exam in particular. At the very least, students will no longer be able to dismiss the need to improve their oral abilities with the disclaimer that, as oral skills are not tested in their UE Exam, their busy timetable of preparation precludes attention to oral work.

An Assessment

Public Examinations are easy targets for criticism and complaint. Few people enjoy taking exams and only a hardened tester could take pleasure in watching young people worrying and working towards the day when they must submit to their fate in their examinations. Purists feel that the content of education should be dictated by educators and educational planners and examinations should somehow be nothing more than evaluations of how well students have achieved the goals set by the planners. In this 'ideal' world, testers and tests would be isolated and not allowed to affect what goes on in the classroom.

The real world, of course, is quite different from this 'ideal', and it is probably never possible to seal tests and testers off from life in the classroom to prevent contamination. In fact, whether the role that public examinations play in the educational process is deplorable or laudable depends in large measure upon who is making the judgement and what roles other actors in the system play. Many authors like Rea (1986) argue that language testing can be a positive force in encouraging communicative language teaching. As has been argued in this article, in a place like Hong Kong, public examinations, in fact, play the most important role in shaping what goes on in the classroom. This predominant role is in part due to the prevailing exam-based ethos, in part because of the reluctance or inability of other actors on the scene to affect teachers' opinion sufficiently to promote change, and in part due to the willingness of the Exams Authority to assume an active role in shaping educational policy.

Certainly in Hong Kong in the area of English language teaching, the Examinations Authority has adopted a number of policies which, one can argue, have had long-term beneficial effects on local secondary school English language classes. The encouragement, though exams, generally, of a communicative approach to language teaching and learning, of the improvement of speaking and listening skills, of attention to the content and style of writing just and not to the grammaticality of the writer's product, of the teaching of practical study and work-related reading and summarising skills: all these are examples of examination-led English language policies in Hong Kong.

Several caveats, however, need to be added to this optimistic picture. First, it goes without saying that the extreme pressure which the examination system in Hong Kong places upon the local students is unfortunate and needs constant reassessing. Second, if the examination includes a large number of questions or parts which require only low level, unistructural or perhaps multistructural answers, then students will largely rely on surface learning, particularly the rote-learning which is the frequent target of critics of the Hong Kong Examinations system. Third, even if the examination questions require higher-level cognitive processes to answer, teachers and students may well resort to attempts to apply lower-level cognitive processes to these questions. So, as has already been suggested, although the composition papers of both the HKCEE and the UE demand higher-order answers for full marks, each year weaker students, though certainly a small minority, memorise compositions or large chunks of compositions in an effort to 'get around' the actual cognitive requirements. Finally, it must be admitted that the norm-referencing of the Hong Kong public examinations does impose a competitive pressure on the candidates which, perhaps in an ideal world, would be best to avoid. The competitive nature of the system is destined to change and to change very rapidly, however, with the explosive expansion of tertiary education in the Territory. No longer will students be madly vying for a scant few places in institutions of higher learning. Universities and polytechnics, instead, will be actively competing to recruit the better students for their particular institution. This will undoubtedly have profound effects on the nature of the examination system. Likewise, the gradual introduction of graded-objective-type teaching in the secondary schools in the form of the Targets and Target Related Assessment Scheme (TTRA) with its emphasis on criteria and on individualization of learning will undoubtedly necessitate a rethinking of assessment policies and practices in Hong Kong. Examinations will need to continue to narrow the gap between the real world and the examination room, to move towards more task-based examinations which are less driven by psychometric objectivity and statistical reliability. The overall effect of the dog and its wagging appendage will undoubtedly continue to be a healthily wiggling canine.

Notes

1. The Syllabus B version of the English language paper is taken by those students who study in what were once called Anglo-Chinese schools in which English is the official medium of instruction. The vast majority of secondary 5 students in Hong Kong opt for the Syllabus B Examination, instead of the alternative, syllabus A which is an easier examination aimed at students who studied in schools where Cantonese is the medium of instruction. All subsequent references in this paper, unless otherwise noted, will be to the Syllabus B Examination.

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TEACHERS OF ENGLISH, TECHNOLOGY AND THE FUTURE

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Introduction

This paper examines the impact of the computer, electronic equipment and new technology on the current generation of teachers of English, and the potential of these forms of equipment for the next generation.

The Current Situation

Travelling around Hong Kong, visiting a large number of teachers in many different schools, I notice that in the room next to the Principal's Office in most standard government-designed schools, there are often two or more computers.

In many schools it is clear that they are used regularly. There are often teachers in the room working at the word processor, or clerks updating a database with records, lists of student names, and timetables. In other schools, however, it is quite clear that the computer is hardly ever used.

English teachers seem to use the computer even less than other teachers. In a recent small survey at The University of Hong Kong only 6 out of 80 teachers had ever used a computer, and only 2 of those 6 used a computer regularly.

By contrast, in the new B.Ed (Language Teaching) programme which starts in September 1993 at The University of Hong Kong, the first module that students will encounter is 'Computer Literacy and Keyboard Skills'. In this 20 hour module, students will be expected to become familiar with the computer and acquire enough word processing skills to be able to produce all their subsequent assignments in word processed form. This will have the tremendous advantage of allowing students to re-work, revise and re-submit assignments as part of the development of thinking and analysis which will lead them to become true professionals in their field.

In a later course these students will learn how to produce worksheets and create graphics (pictures) on the computer for use during their periods of school experience. In subsequent courses they will encounter developments in Computer Assisted Language Learning, Computational Linguistics, Lexicography, and Concordancing. By the end of the four year course, they will be extremely familiar with the Personal Computer (PC) and its facilities and will bring what they have learned into the schools.

In the next ten years the personal computer will become cheap enough for almost every family to own one. They will become as frequent as television sets in the average home and our students will be as familiar with

1329

their use as they are with hand-held electronic games such as 'Game Boy'. Coniam (1992) has ventured to suggest that by the end of the first quarter of the 21st Century, the pen and paper will be replaced entirely, in some societies, by hand-held electronic keyboards.

In the next section we will first explore what equipment and programmes (known as *hardware* and *software*) are currently available to teachers and the uses we can make of it. Then developments now available to researchers will be discussed and considered in relation to how useful they could be for the classroom teacher.

Hardware Now Available—What We Can Use Now

Computers

This section deals with equipment which it is possible to use now to good effect once we overcome the barriers that prevent us from using it.

Computers are already available in the schools and in many homes. A computer of this kind is often referred to as a PC (Personal Computer). Unfortunately, many teachers are reluctant to use them to produce materials such as worksheets. Let us consider possible reasons why teachers continue to use typewriters or to give drafts to the clerks to type out and photocopy. One reason may be that Arts graduates have been educated in an emotional environment which assumes that they are good at reading books but that they are useless at practical, scientific and technical matters.

When introducing teachers of English to simple statistics on testing and evaluation courses (see Falvey et al. forthcoming) I always have to calm fears about the mathematics involved, and show that they are as capable as anyone of carrying out the statistical procedures necessary to discover meaningful information about tests and test items. 'If it's technical leave it alone' seems to be the motto of the teacher of English. However I find that they have no problems with the tape-recorders and other hi-fi equipment required for listening lessons. They can also use the TV set and the video recorder. Postgraduate Certificate of Education students at The University of Hong Kong regularly produce videos of themselves teaching as part of their assignments. They have no problems with these pieces of equipment. However, mention computers and they say, 'No, they are far too technical'.

Once the emotional/technical barrier has been overcome, teachers find that the advantages of the PC are overwhelming. It is possibie to produce a worksheet at very short notice. An idea can be worked on and produced very easily, considered, and revised once or twice without inconvenience to the office staff who hate retyping drafts. The worksheets can also look very attractive for students when they are created with eye-catching formats.

How can the barrier be overcome? The answer can be relatively simple. All you have to do is to treat the PC as a very friendly typewriter which helps you when a typewriter cannot. The first thing to do is not attempt to follow the manuals produced by the companies but to get a friend or colleague to show you how to start up the machine and then give you a simple set of instructions to follow which allows you to type, save what you have typed in the memory of the machine and then to print off what you have typed and saved. It is amazing how much you can do with such limited knowledge.

Once you have made progress, the availability of graphics packages means that you can add drawings and shapes (icons) to your worksheets to make them more attractive. Recent software creation by the Microsoft Corporation provides a 'user friendly' environment for the teacher who wants to use programmes such as the wordprocessing package 'Microsoft Word' and their very easy to use 'Windows' software allows the relative novice a great deal of freedom and versatility with pull-down menus instead of commands. This means that words (menus) appear on the screen offering you a choice of what you would like to do next. In earlier times operators had to remember a great number of commands in order to give simple commands to the computer. Now, that is all done for you.

Appendix 1a and 1b show the differences that can be made to a worksheet by using the PC. It is a simple form of what is becoming to be known as 'desktop publishing', publishing which occurs in the workplace rather than in the commercial publishers.

The PC also allows for the publication of student work in an attractive format. Student essays, book reviews, poems and interviews can be collected, word processed by students, and published using desktop software (programmes that allow the teacher to produce pamphlets, brochures and little booklets). Students will write much more carefully, paying attention to the content and accuracy of their texts if they are likely to be read in the real world of parents, relatives, siblings and peers. Access to a PC will give the English Club an incentive to publish what they talk about, produce simple notices and provide information about their activities without creating extra work for administrative and professional staff.

Fax Machines

Fax machines are more common in Hong Kong and Japan than in the rest of the world. Soon, they will become available in schools for administrative purposes linking schools to their sponsors, to the Education Department and to other organizations. One of the big advantages they can bring will be the rapid exchange of information among teachers. Worksheets can be exchanged; tests can be piloted in another school so that items can be moderated before being used in your own school; and student texts can be exchanged and read in other classes thus providing a real audience for their writing (research has shown that the provision of a real audience leads to a significant improvement in student writing because of the greater attention given to it and the willingness of students to revise and redraft.)

Newer Developments

Electronic mail (email) – electronic networks

Email is now commonly used in universities on a worldwide basis. It works in the following way. A university teacher's PC is net-worked (i.e. it is linked to other PCs in the university so that teachers can 'talk' to each other by typing in their words onto the screen and sending them to their colleagues.) In addition, through the university's mainframe computer in its Computer Centre, teachers can be linked to other academics sitting at their PCs in their rooms in their universities five or ten thousand miles away.

This provides for a tremendous amount of interflow and exchange of information and ideas. Dino Chincotta and Jeffrey Day at The University of Hong Kong are currently working on a project which will allow science teachers in Hong Kong secondary schools to be linked with the university and with each other so that they can communicate with each other and share 'bulletin boards' (information sheets on screen) which provide information to which the teacher would not normally have access (Chincotta and Day 1992). The advantages to the profession of this facility are just now becoming apparent. If the idea is spread to other subject areas, teachers of English will be able to share ideas, share worksheets that work well, share techniques and strategies, and ask for advice or help or information.

As this paper was being written, a piece of information arrived on one of the electronic networks to which I subscribe talking about Dual-coding theory, a suggested replacement for the schema theory of reading which has been so influential in our interpretation of how people learn to understand a piece of writing they have never encountered before. As a result of this information I have been able to contact another subscriber on the network asking for details of the new theory called 'dual coding theory'. Indeed, the Coniam article mentioned above was first 'published' in electronic format in 'The Electronic Journal' which allows ideas to be shared quickly and cheaply by electronic mail before publication in hard print in book form.

New Developments

Scanners

Scanners are electronic machines which allow a text or graphics to be fed into the machine which electronically scans it into a file in the PC. This means that all the text has been captured in a format which teachers can work on as though they are working on a word processor. Teachers then can work on the text as though it was their own writing in the PC. Texts which have been scanned can be altered, shortened, added to, words can be deleted to create cloze passages, questions added for text comprehension, subtitles can be added to make them more readable, questions can be interspersed to help reading attack skills, and sentences can be re-arranged to create jigsaw reading exercises.

Scanners are not, at the moment, sophisticated enough to capture all of the data 'cleanly' (without some errors) but they are 90% correct and improving rapidly.

Concordances

In the creation of a new generation of dictionaries, such as the COBUILD Series, researchers fed millions of words into large computers as running text (i.e. just feeding the text into the computer without stopping for breaks such as chapters or paragraphs). As a result, the dictionary entries could be based on real use, with examples taken from a very large sample of material. In order to process this massive amount of text in a meaningful way, software had to be developed to handle the data in chunks which could be studied. Thus, concordance programmes were developed.

A concordance programme allows the researcher to call up every use of a particular word or set of words in the database of words (called a corpus). As an example, the concordance programme in a 2.5 million corpus of spoken text from the BBC would tell us that the word 'spoken' occurs 71 times in the 2.5 million words in the corpus. The concordance programme would allow you to inspect those occurrences in order to determine the **context** in which they are used. One can inspect the concordance output which can be printed and determine whether, for example, the word 'spoken' collocates with (occurs in the company of) the word 'word'. It does, 7 times!

The advantages that this development brings to the teacher and her students are manifest. First of all, it is possible to help vocabulary development by discovering the most common collocations of key words and teaching them. Secondly, it is possible to sort out problems associated with linguistic elements which often cause problems for teachers (e.g. prepositional use). The concordance programmes allow the researcher, and eventually the teacher, to print out the prepositions that are causing problems and inspect them in order to discover how they are used on a regular basis. For example, it would be interesting to discover how the words '*with*' and '*to*' collocate with the word 'spoken'. Students find this kind of work fascinating. Teachers can allow the students to inspect the printouts and **work out for themselves** the rules underlying prepositional use. Another example of how the concordance programme can help is in inspecting adjectival order (e.g. one can programme the computer to produce concordances for 'big green' . . . or 'green big' . . . or 'the little' . . . and see what occurs before and after them. Students are soon able to work out for themselves how the adjectives are usually arranged. This 'working out for themselves' is, of course, a much more effective way of learning than being told the rule and then asked to apply it. It is an inductive approach, rather than a deductive approach.

A major advantage of concordances is that they are able to assist both teachers and students in the development of **language awareness**. Language awareness is the term given to techniques and approaches which are designed to help teachers and students become aware of how language is used in context. Two examples have been given above. A further example concerns grammar. Two aspects of grammar can be investigated. The first is morphology. The second is syntax.

Morphology is the science which investigates the structure of words – how words are formed. It is insightful for teachers and students to work with a concordance programme, call up a word, inspect its uses and then apply morphological rues to it to see that context in which its derivatives occur. One could, for example, take the word 'success', call it up and see the variety of contexts in which the word is used. Then we could add the suffix 'ful' to create 'successful', call it up and inspect the contexts in which it appears. Students soon get into the swing when they start asking for the words 'unsuccessful', 'successfully', and 'unsuccessfully' to be called up for printing out and inspection. The process of inspection and reporting back to the class of what they have discovered can lead to a great deal of language awareness.

Syntax is the discipline which investigates the structure of the clause. Concordances allow us to investigate how words are ordered, how elements of a clause are ordered, how tense agreement occurs and how clauses are embedded. They are particularly useful in helping both teachers and students become familiar with the use of modals and conditionals, both of which cause problems for second language learners. One can call up for inspection a series of modal uses in order to determine when and how they are used and in what contexts. In the same way conditionals can be investigated to explore examples of use by native speakers which run counter to what we are told in the grammar textbooks. An example is when authentic text written by educated native speakers demonstrates that tense agreement as prescribed by the text books does not always follow in real life. An example would be:

'If he comes, I'm gone'.

In this example, teachers would normally teach 'If he comes, I will go.' It would, however, be useful to explore how often the simple present tense of the verb 'to be' is used with the past participle form of the verb 'to go' instead of the modal verb 'will' with the infinitive of the verb 'to go'.

It is important to note that even researchers are not yet able to get their hands on the really big corpora which exist. Most researchers are currently using small concordance programmes which can only deal with limited amounts of text. One really needs about 250 citations of a word in a corpus to be able to say anything significant about the way in which that word behaves in text. It will not be long, however, before teachers will be able to link into large corpora to produce their own printed lists of words and their collocations for analysis by themselves and their students.

CD ROM Machines and Pronunciation

Richard Cauldwell working at the University of Birmingham, UK, in association with Margaret Allen, has made a remarkable breakthrough with CD ROM technology. The equipment consists of a CD disk and a CD player linked to a PC. The text on the CD has been typed onto the word processor. In addition, the phonological representation of the text is shown above each line of text. When the screen is linked to a large screen one can call up any line of text and hear IMMEDIATELY the words being spoken by the original speaker. The practical use for teachers will be that eventually they will be able to use this equipment which allows for immediate searching and instant playback time and again. Work on pronunciation will be so much easier than it is at present when the teacher has to laboriously rewind and re-cue the audio tape time and again. This breakthrough will almost certainly be seen in the universities before it is seen in the schools, but Collins Harper are interested in the idea and it could be a relatively short time before textbooks are published with the accompanying CDs and software.

Speech Synthesizers

Work on speech SYNTHESIZERS is ongoing in many universities throughout the world. The idea behind a speech synthesizer is that by speaking into an attachment to the PC the spoken word can be received, processed and copied onto a floppy disk in the same way that the written word can be word processed.

The implications of a breakthrough in this area are huge. To begin with student oral work could be put onto disk and printed out. In this way stories and presentations could be worked on, edited and revised and finally created in publishable form. This would also allow teachers to create their own material much more easily and, especially, expand, amend and abridge material from other sources. It would complement the technology of the scanner described above by providing teachers of English with a magnificent tool for materials initiation and development.

Conclusion

There are other pieces of equipment coming on to the market which eventually filter down to be used by teachers in the classroom. However, of all the technological developments mentioned above the PC, its smaller versions the laptop (portable PC) and the notebook (a smaller and lighter version of the laptop) undoubtedly offer the greatest promise for the teacher of English in the short term.

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APPENDIX 1A

This worksheet is presented as though it was typed for photocopying.

You will have 120 minutes in order to accomplish the following tasks.

1. You are required to assemble the materials you collected in the survey of cinema going habits among the different class groups in the school.

2. Then you have to write a 200 word abstract of the main points that you have extracted from the materials you have collected.

3. After that you are asked to present recommendations to the school authorities for the establishment of a cinema club which will show films that students and teachers agree are worthwhile and enjoyable in order to counteract the films which many consider undesirable in our cinemas at present.

APPENDIX 1B

This shows what can be done to the same text, very simply with the PC in only 2 minutes.

You will have 120 minutes in order to accomplish the following tasks.

1. You are required to assemble the materials you collected in the survey of *cinema going habits* among the different class groups in the school.
2. Then you have to write a **200 word abstract** of the main points that you have extracted from the materials you have collected.
3. After that you are asked to present **recommendations** to the school authorities for the establishment of a cinema club which will show films that students and teachers agree are **worthwhile** and **enjoyable** in order to counteract the films which many consider undesirable in our cinemas at present.

REPORTS AND SUMMARIES
滙 報

921期中學語文教師復修課程小組設計介紹

香港課程發展議會已於本年初頒佈有關中學中國語文及文化科(高級補充程度)課程綱要。這是一個為預科學生而設的新課程。根據中國語文及文化科聯合工作小組的報告指出，開設本科的意義：

> 一直以來，關心中文教育的人無不渴望為語文教育開創一條新路，提高學生的語文水平和研習語文的興趣，中六教育工作小組的建議下提供了一個良好的機會。課程發展議會與考試局的科目委員會雖然受命設計本科課程，卻絕無「應制」的感覺，只誠心誠意地設計一個合理而有效的課程，藉以培養提高本港青年的語文能力，進而提升中文在本港社會的地位，保有並發揚中國文化的精粹。①

中國語文及文化科聯合工作小組又說明了開設本科的背景：原來在一九八九年底，香港政府發表了「中六教育工作小組報告書」，並宣佈接納該工作小組的多項建議，其中一項為：由一九九二年開始，屬於高級補充程度(ASL)的「中國語文及文化科」，連同「英語運用科」與「社會及人文學科」將為學校開設所有兩年制中六課程的主要組成部分。換言之，在今年，本港的中六、中七學生不論修讀文、理、工商任何科目，也不論在修畢中六課程後升學或就業，預期都會繼續修讀中文。中六教育工作小組提出各項建議的目的，為了達致教育統籌委員會所訂目標，包括：

1. 培養發展均衡、知識豐富的學生；
2. 為學生接受專上和大專教育作好準備；
3. 提高所有學生以中、英文溝通的能力；
4. 為學生即將踏入成年階段作好準備。②

因此，報告書特別強調高級補充程度的課程綱要應盡量着重其實用性。對於新開設的「中國語文科」(後來定名為「中國語文及文化科」)，中六教育工作小組認為應屬中四、中五「中國語文科」的「自然延續」，功能在加強學生在語文方面講和寫的技巧，以及使他們對語文的句法，結構及修辭等方面具有基本的認識，並加強學生對「中國文化的了解」。③

中國語文及文化科教學的目標有三：

1. 鞏固學生以往所學的中國語文基本知識，提高學生閱讀、寫作、聆聽、說話等語文能力，尤其著重思維的訓練與語文的實際應用。
2. 增進學生對中國文化的認識，啟發學生的思想，培養學生的品德，使能建立正確的價值觀，加強對社會的責任感。

3. 提高學生學習中國語文及文化的興趣，並使學生有繼續進修的自學能力。③

當這個新課程頒佈後，很多教師都表示有一種「不知所措」「無所依歸」的感覺。參加語文教育學院921期中學中國語文科復修課程的中學教師，大家實行了集思廣益的做法，在小組設計課中為這個新課程設計了一些教學設計。這些設計也許未盡妥善，但對現職教師應有參考的價值和啟發的作用。

所有有關的教學設計，現存語文教育學院教師資源中心，供各在職教師參考。

現將各小組教學設計介紹如下：

CS921 期第一組：

導師：劉關之英
組員：陳紹婷　曾偉祺　郭兆輝　何偉明
林美玉　阮麗芬　羅妍芬　劉婉萍
任釗嫻　黃慧薇

設計名稱：實用文處境寫作教學設計　高級補充程度
適合程度：中六、中七
設計意義：一九九二年九月，全港的中六級都要開設中國語文與文化科課程。根據課程綱要所列，寫作教學著重訓練學生掌握各種實用文類的寫作技巧。所以我們提供了實用文體的處境寫作設計，給各位老師參考。

這個設計跟傳統的實用文寫作教學模式有很大分別。它的內容共分甲、乙、丙三部份。而乙部的處境寫作教學設計就最能夠突出本設計的特色。在未講述設計的內容之前，我們先闡明這個設計的原則和特色：

（一） 傳統的實用文寫作教學都是按不同的文體獨立命題寫作，但我們採用了綜合處境寫作形式。

（二） 為免學生憑空設想處境實況，所以我們在設計裏提供了很多寫作的輔助資料和多元化的教具，如圖表、圖畫、數據、海報、剪報、場刊、錄音帶、錄像帶、宣傳單張和小冊子等等。希望透過這些資料的幫助，使學生能直接投入處境寫作。

（三） 為了避免寫作枯燥乏味，我們突破了傳統的個別寫作形式，採用分組討論及集體寫作模式。

（四） 通過討論活動，可以提高學生的自學能力、思維能力和讀、寫、聽、說能力。此外，也可增進學生彼此的了解和感情。

（五） 每次寫作評講後，會將各組的優異作品影印派發給學生。這樣可使學生在每次的寫作練習中接觸多類文體和掌握它們的寫作特色。

設計特色：甲部

介紹各類實用文的寫作知識及示例，並附加練習，鞏固學生的知識。

乙部

臚列五個處境寫作教學的設計，希望學生透過這些練習，了解實用文在現實生活裏具有溝通的重要作用，並能學以致用，更可增加他們的寫作興趣。

丙部

這部份是附錄資料，包括了一些應用文寫作的參考資料和處境寫作題目，希望能夠啟發老師自行設計處境寫作的練習。

CS921 期第二組：

導師：鄺銳強
組員：林良堅　莊潤祥　朱澤華　陸明俊
林憶芝　鄭佩秋　劉影梅　盧美蓮
石鳳儀　梁夏蓮

設計名稱：中國文化介紹——中國音樂
適合程度：中六
設計意義：本設計為配合於九二年推行之中國語文及文化科而製作，目的是使學生通過自學的方法認識中國音樂。
設計特色：設計分兩部分：一、錄影帶
二、錄音帶

一、錄影帶主要介紹中國樂器的型構與特色。
二、錄音帶主要介紹中國音樂的特質，希望學生通過聆聽中國樂曲，對中國音樂有所認識。

CS921 期第三組：

導師：李孝聰
組員：蘇錦堂　陳志華　翁達生　陳加強
　　　衛家裕　吳映山　林素玉　何美梨
　　　蘇少蓮　麥婉妮　薛君儀

設計名稱：中國語文及文化科教學設計
適合程度：中六、中七
設計意義：一九九二年開始，在預科會開設兩年制的高級補充程度中國語文及文化科課程。課程分為語文及文化兩部份。在文化部份指定了六篇文化專題篇章，作為介紹及探究中國文化精神的教材。本組同學選取了五篇，做了五個教學設計，以供老師們參考。
設計特色：一、本教學設計之形式，乃參考課程綱要中的建議教案。
　　　　　二、每一文化篇章的教學節數均為九節。
　　　　　三、本設計與寫作、聆聽說話、閱讀等語文教學環節相配合。
　　　　　四、教學活動以學生為中心，多以討論形式進行。
　　　　　五、部份篇章附有供老師參考的資料。

CS921 期第四組：

導師：鄭仕源
組員：林惠棠　鍾英傑　劉　永　李永洪
　　　何玉沂　鮑國鴻　林佑家　高金枝
　　　高少英　余潔儀　楊小惠

設計名稱：高級補充程度說話能力訓練設計
適合程度：中六、七
設計意義：在新科目——中學高級補充程度「中國語文及文化科」中，聽說能力成為考核學生語文能力的項目，對學生聽說能力的要求大大提高。今天，聽說能力的訓練、系統、方法、考核方法等還未完善建立，仍須摸索方向，努力實踐。面對新課程，我們

嘗試根據課程綱要的要求，針對描述、報告、演講、評論、辯論、討論等範圍設計一些練習，訓練學生的說話能力；同時亦就各考核項目設計一些練習，期望能減輕老師備課的負擔。

設計特色：一、設計內容集中在說話能力訓練的六個項目：

1. 描述、 2. 報告、 3. 演講

4. 評論、 5. 辯論、 6. 討論

二、每一項目先解釋定義，說明種類，再詳述訓練重點、方法及注意事項。

三、每一項目都附有配合訓練、考核的練習設計及題目舉隅。

四、富實用性。

附註

① 《中國語文及文化》1990.6. 中國語文及文化科聯合工作小組編。

② 見《中六教育工作小組報告書》第1.12頁。

③ 參閱《中國語文及文化科課程綱要》1991.11. 香港課程發展議會編訂，頁9。

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT

AN AESTHETIC DIMENSION MODULE FOR KEY STAGE THREE

Course No.:	*ELS 912 (1991)*
Group 3:	*Au Siu-lin, Florence* *Chan Yuk-ping, Florence* *Ho Yuk-ling, Christina* *Ko Wai-yin, Virginia* *Lam Po Shan, Sara* *Lui King, Karen*
Group Tutor:	*Michael Murphy*

Introduction

'What is "TTRA"?'
'Why will it be implemented so soon?'
'How can "TTRA" help students?'
'What is the main difference between "TTRA" and the current approach?'

These questions were raised in every "TTRA" lecture, showing that most of the participants were curious and anxious about the implementation of "TTRA". "Why not try it?" was the suggestion, so our group discussed the topic area of our project.

In the Education Commission Report No. 4 Chap 5, it is suggested that a system of target and target-related assessments ("TTRA") should be started for the core subjects, Chinese, English and Mathematics, initially up to Secondary 3 to accommodate the changes taking place in Hong Kong and the needs and interests of the students and their different abilities. The report states that a framework of attainment targets and related assessment involving both internal and external components should be developed for use in Hong Kong. Even though this is a great change in the Hong Kong education system, our group members believe that, if it is to be beneficial to the next and future generations, it is worth doing. In order to get a better insight into it, we teachers, at the frontier of the education system, should not hesitate in experimenting with it in order to judge its effectiveness. Thus, through actual preparation and trying out, it is hoped that we can gain a better understanding of what "TTRA" is so that we can implement our experiences in classroom teaching in our schools.

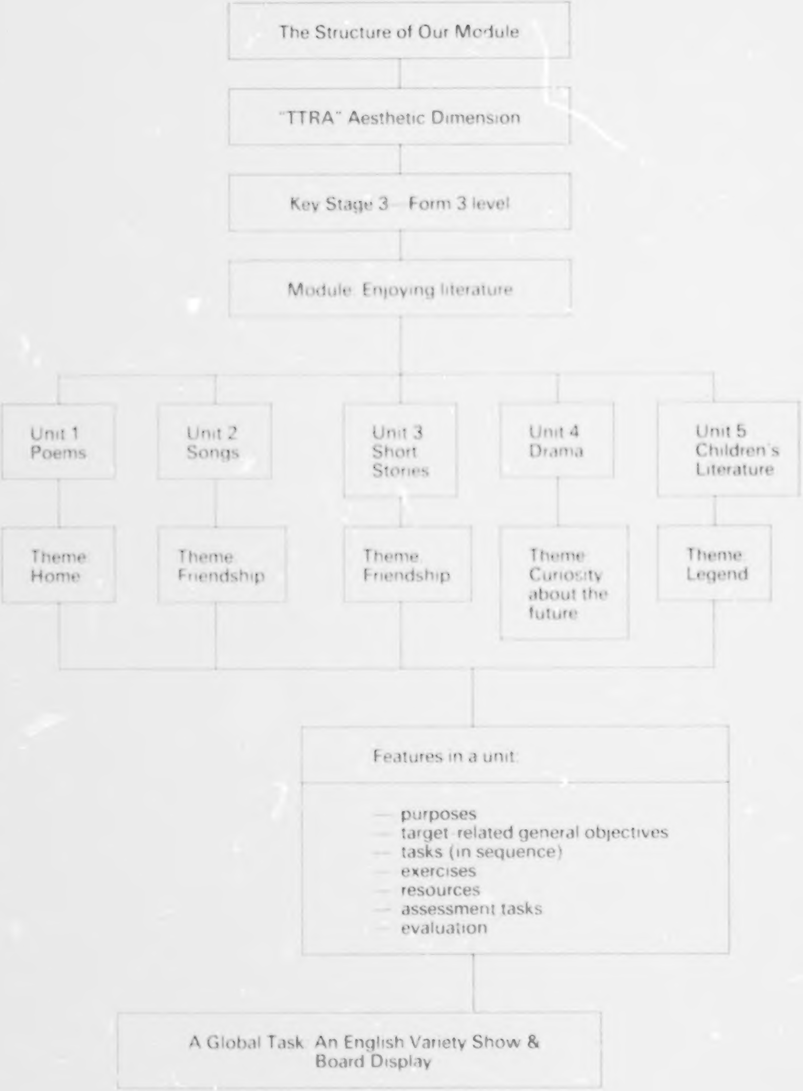
The reasons for choosing the aesthetic dimension

As the development of the "TTRA" programme is at the stage of "Programmes of Study", which are being written by a special "TTRA" team, the focus of our action research cannot go beyond that. Owing to the limited time available, we could not design and try out tasks for more than one dimension. There are a few reasons why the aesthetic dimension appeals to us more than the interpersonal or the cognitive dimension. First, there is a need for more resources for the aesthetic dimension. Also, most teachers lack confidence in handling the aesthetic texts which can seem very alien to the students! However, the value of literary and aesthetic texts encourages us to use them to help students to develop their sensitivity to, and interest in, the English language so that they are able to enjoy its playfulness, creativity and subtlety.

How and what materials were designed

"TTRA" is task-based. Tasks are the means through which learners progress towards targets. They are holistic and involve content, process and product. A cluster of tasks based on themes will form a unit and different units will then be compiled together to form a module. Since our students lack the chance of being exposed to aesthetic texts which are generally agreed to have value, "Enjoying Literature" was our module which consisted of 5 units, namely 'Poems', 'Songs', 'Short Stories', 'Drama' and 'Children's Literature' as well as one global task. Following a student-centred approach, the themes of the units were carefully chosen to suit Form Three students' needs and interests.

Next, we designed the tasks for each unit, bearing in mind the learning targets of the aesthetic dimension, the target-related general objectives, the characteristics of the tasks and the principles of the task design. After undergoing various stages such as consulting tutors, discussing and compromising with group members, drafting, revising and polishing our work, there came our whole module – Enjoying Literature.


The Structure of Our Module
"TTRA" Aesthetic Dimension
Key Stage 3 – Form 3 level
Module: Enjoying literature
Unit 1 Poems
Unit 2 Songs
Unit 3 Short Stories
Unit 4 Drama
Unit 5 Children's Literature
Theme: Home
Theme: Friendship
Theme: Friendship
Theme: Curiosity about the future
Theme: Legend
Features in a unit:
— purposes
— target-related general objectives
— tasks (in sequence)
— exercises
— resources
— assessment tasks
— evaluation
A Global Task: An English Variety Show & Board Display

Tasks designed in units

Unit	Tasks designed
Poems	Poem appreciation Comparison of poems Collection of materials/articles Writing a poem
Songs	Song appreciation Comparison of attitudes of two song writers
Short stories	Comparison of characters Role play with the help of semi-script Writing to characters in the story Comparison of texts with the same theme Collection of texts
Drama	Creating a new ending Dramatization
Children's Literature	Rewriting legends in children's literature

Experimental Teaching

Heep Woh College was the school we chose for experimental teaching. Trying-out the lesson plans in a co-educational school helped us to see if the tasks designed were suitable for children of both sexes. The small number of participants and the shortage of time discouraged us from trying out everything we had designed. As a result,only two units, short stories and drama, were selected for the try-out in two different classes.

As a student-centred approach was the main approach of our project, all the tasks designed were based on this criterion so as to provide students with more chances to talk. The teacher, whose role was minimal, was to give guidance to students. Throughout the six lessons, students were encouraged to speak freely during the discussions. Other members of our group gave students lots of support because many students lacked ideas and language to express themselves and they were inexperienced in group discussion.

According to the feedback shown in the students' evaluation form, most of the students in these two classes had little exposure to aesthetic texts before. Despite this, most students were interested in the texts chosen for these two units and thus most of the learning objectives could be achieved.

As students were required to be very involved in group work, they showed interest in the tasks given and were willing to take part in them. Although not all of them could respond appropriately, the effort shown was highly appreciated.

However, some problems were encountered during the experimental teaching. To begin with, there was not enough time and this resulted in various drawbacks. Some tasks had to be cancelled. The dramatization took place too quickly. If students had been given more time to rehearse so that the teacher could remedy any problems that arose, the performance would have been much better.

Next, the lack of mutual understanding between students and the teacher certainly accounted for the inappropriacy of some tasks. This spoiled some of the students' interest and prevented some tasks from being carried out efficiently. Also, a better way of grouping could have facilitated group work. Unreliable grouping usually hindered our try-out lessons.

Furthermore, most of the tasks required students to do a lot of group work. Unluckily, many students had limited vocabulary to express their ideas freely or clearly. This led to a lot of hesitations during the discussion and consequently, more time than expected was needed.

Overall review of the project

We are delighted that we have tried a module in the aesthetic dimension with which to gain confidence when dealing with aesthetic texts after this project. Apart from this, we are not as worried as we were when we were introduced to the unveiling of "TTRA". We all agree that this new framework is actually not completely new to English teachers. "TTRA", from our point of view, is only a natural evolution initiated by the change and needs of society. Teachers can adapt the work they have done already to the new approach.

Students can gain a lot from our project as well. Being keen on the texts chosen, students may take initiatives to further their reading on aesthetic texts outside the classroom. Also, learning can usually take place subconsciously when no pressure is exerted on students in a relaxing environment and this is certainly welcomed by most students and parents. Then to a certain extent, most students can learn at their own pace and cooperation is encouraged throughout the tasks.

In addition, well-chosen texts account for the success of the project. If the texts are interesting and can be related to real life situations in which students find themselves, learning can be facilitated.

Recommendations

Although we chose suitable and interesting themes for our students in the units and the activities employed throughout the module were student-centred, active participation was greatly hampered by their inexperience in group discussion and their lack of classroom language to hold the discussion. Therefore, here are some recommendations:

1. It is recommended that teachers introduce as many student-centred tasks as possible in order to get the students to participate in the lessons.
2. It is recommended that a variety of different types of student-centred activities like pair work, individual work and other different forms of group work be planned for the lessons.
3. It is recommended that teachers provide students with more chances to develop the skill of giving an immediate response during discussions as unpredictability is a very important element in real interaction.
4. It is recommended that transactional language for discussions be taught.
5. It is recommended that more chances for practising the communicative skills be given to students in our lessons.
6. It is recommended that the publishers include more aesthetic texts in the English textbooks.

Findings and suggestions related to the "TTRA"

As mentioned before, "TTRA" is task-based. The tasks designed are based on different themes. However, when we tried to include a variety of themes in our module, we found that suitable themes, which the students could respond to and at the same time feel interested in, were limited. We wonder if we are restricting students to only certain themes that they can cope with and when the whole framework is implemented, will students be fed up with similar themes, which they may have come across in previous years or in other subjects?

In addition, we found the targets and target-related objectives abstract. If the wordings had been more self-explanatory, teachers would have understood better.

Moreover, we hope that more seminars on "TTRA" with more practical suggestions and demonstrations will be held in future, and that more communication between teachers of various key stages will take place so that we can have a better picture of how knowledge can be acquired by students.

Finally, the success of the scheme depends very much on the resources and support given by the Government. With large classes and the heavy workload, no teacher is able to make any changes at the moment.

Conclusion

'Armed' with the belief that 'no gain is without pain', we can manage the work that is necessary efficiently. If a thing is worth doing, it is worth doing well, though there is still room for improvement in our project. Yet, it was rewarding in a sense that we are now better equipped for future changes in the Hong Kong education system. In fact, not only students but also teachers may be motivated through this project for we feel there is an urge to do more research into "TTRA" and literature. Since we can only implement the aesthetic dimension for key stage 3 in one school, we hope that future participants on future refresher courses will feel the need to try the other dimensions for the different key stages in different schools so that there can be more valuable findings.

All in all, 'joint effort', 'cooperation' and 'enthusiasm' among all the teachers in Hong Kong are essential for the success of "TTRA".

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT
IMPLEMENTING PROCESS WRITING IN A F.3 CLASSROOM

Course No.: *ELS 912 (1991)*
Group 3A: *Marie Cheung*
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Michael Chan
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Group Tutor: *Mike Murphy*

The Aim

A process approach to teaching writing was tried with a F.3 class in Methodist College (band 1-3 students) for six lessons over two weeks. The purpose was to examine the feasibility of implementing Process Writing in real classroom situations.

The Problem

Students were seldom interested in writing lessons and reluctant to produce ideas beyond the teacher's guidelines, leading to pieces of boring, similar and minimal writing. Teachers had to innure themselves to going through piles of uninteresting compositions heavily-laden with mistakes. However, this suffering does not meet with rewards as students keep on making the same mistakes over and over again without showing logical thinking or fluent expression.

The phenomenon of students producing low-grade work (both in terms of content and structure) can be attributed to their preoccupation with accuracy in their writing. In Hong Kong, writing lessons are treated as part or extension of structural practice and students are an encouraged to write 'correct' and 'error-free' compositions rather than to reveal to their readers their inner thoughts.

The Process Approach to Teaching Writing

Process Writing helps students to develop their thoughts and to cope with the problems of writing one at a time rather than dealing with all the problems at one time. The recursive stages – pre-writing, drafting, reviewing, rewriting, editing and presenting – help students to develop their ideas gradually through various activities. Peer-reading allows them to share with each other their ideas, and to pool together information. This helps them to substantiate their own writing in the rewriting stage which itself is another chance for the students to explore and to reconsider their own thoughts. This second thought on one's own writing is a constructive habit to be developed as it enables the students to be critical readers of their own work. The editing stage focuses the student's attention on the use of English in his writing. With some exercises and activities guiding the students to locate certain kinds of mistakes, the students are more capable and alert in detecting the errors. All these stages help to build up confidence in the students and the ultimate improved product may be more satisfactory and satisfying to both the writer as well as the reader/marker.

Design of materials

Materials were used as an instrument and a means by which Process Writing was to be introduced to the students and through various activities so that students would be able to develop new habits in their thinking and skills in writing.

Sound effects for horror elements served as a stimulus for imagination. A radio play and six worksheets were used for introducing the 6 elements of a story, plotting a story line, etc. Materials for teaching reviewing and editing were designed, based on students' feedback in the previous lessons and performance in the drafts.

Self-reflection of the try-out teacher

After the experimental teaching, the try-out teacher indicated his change in perception and attitude towards the Process Approach to teach writing as shown in the following table:

Items	Pre-experimental Teaching	Post-experimental
The Writing Process	—Teacher allowed 10 minutes for planning and students could not plan in detail	—Planning stage is extremely important because it provides a good start for collecting ideas and organizing thoughts
	—No peer-reading	—Peer-reading elicits more ideas from students themselves
	—No re-writing (no chance for students to change the content)	—Re-writing is meaningful when students have some more ideas to add and develop
	—No peer-editing or self-editing	—Peer-editing is helpful in order to learn proof-reading skills
	—Grammar-oriented writing practice	—Writing is a thinking process & should be more content-oriented
	—Teacher expected to have error-free products	—Teacher should allow mistakes at early stages as it is natural for EFL students to make mistakes
	—Students only corrected mistakes for final copies	—Students improve the content & correct mistakes as well focusing more on content & organization
	—Writing was treated as a separate skill	—The 4 skills (L.S.R.W) should be integrated in a writing task
	—Very little input or stimulus was given before drafting	—More and different input should be given at pre-writing stage using a discovery approach

Items	Pre-experimental Teaching	Post-experimental
The Writing Process	—Final products were a kind of homework & the teacher was the only reader —There was no chance for students to present their final products themselves	—The final products are meaningful because real readers such as the classmates and the teacher are going to read them and to give their opinions about them —The presenting stage should be provided because it motivates Ss more if they can present their writing to the others
The Role of Teacher	—Teacher didn't realize that students could help each other —Teacher gave all the guidelines on content and organization and provided all ideas for correction of mistakes —Teacher as supervisor to check students' mistakes —Teacher instructed and students followed —Students wrote and teacher looked for errors without encouraging students to develop ideas —Teacher provided most of the ideas for students	—Teacher should encourage Ss to help each other so that they experience learning from peers —Teacher should act as a helper & facilitator and guide Ss to think during students' discussion & peer-reading at planning, reviewing and editing stages —Teacher should provide chances for students to check their own mistakes & learn editing skills —Teacher acts as helper and students as writers help themselves —Teacher should be more encouraging so that students learn writing skills and practise them with more confidence —Students can get ideas from fellow students and use their imaginations
The Attitude of Teacher Towards Error	—Teacher tended to spot every single error —Teacher expected every error corrected —Teacher expected error-free composition	—Errors are acceptable up to the proof-reading stage so far as they cause no misunderstanding —Teacher should teach editing skills and students should be responsible for editing their own drafts —Teacher should encourage Ss to express their ideas logically & creatively instead of asking for an error-free composition only
Purpose of marking	—Teacher marked writing for finding errors —Teacher marked content only for giving a grade to Ss' work —Teacher did not expect students to improve the content —Teacher pointed out all the weaknesses of the students	—Teacher should look for room for improvement in content —Teacher should suggest ways to clarify or improve the content while marking —Teacher should aim at a better content from the student when marking —Teacher should praise the students for their strengths as well as give suggestions for improving the content

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Findings from The Experimental Teaching

1. Were reviewing and re-writing skills successfully taught and learnt?

The students' drafts indicated that the training in revising and editing skills ultimately helped them to develop their thoughts more logically and creatively and to present them in a more interesting way.

The findings of the student evaluation showed that most of the students were convinced that if they took time and re-read their writing from another point of view, they would be able to make improvements both in content as well as in form.

Revising, re-writing and editing skills can definitely be taught but the teacher has to be very careful and systematic in presenting and guiding the students throughout these stages because students are not too familiar with these writing skills and thus, not in the habit of re-considering their ideas. Explicit demonstration and explanation using students' drafts proved to be very useful as it illustrated a procedure for viewing a piece of writing from another point of view. As students pooled together their ideas, they were able to see a better, improved piece of writing after the discussion, thereby building up their confidence for reviewing their own work. Teacher-student conferences, peer-reading, and peer-editing also helped them to develop skills as critical readers.

2. Were the students able to detect and correct certain grammatical mistakes in the language area specified by the teacher?

As shown in their drafts, students were able to pick out their own grammatical errors and make improvements at this level. However, it must be born in mind that it was a bright class with bands 1 and 2 students and that clear instructions were given so that their attention was focused on a particular type of error — at word level, phrase level, sentence level or organization.

It seemed that the success of this experiment owed a lot to the good standard, the alertness and intelligence of the students which had helped in the rapid progression of the lessons.

To implement process writing into the existing teaching-learning environment, teachers usually have constraints posed by the timetable, the scheme of work, textbooks, and large number of mixed ability students in classes of forty. Modifications and adaptations that address the constraints are recommended in the following section.

Suggested Adaptations for Carrying Out a Process Approach in the Existing Framework of HK Secondary Schools

1. Modify or design writing tasks by specifying the following aspects:
   —the communicative context (e.g. the world of the imagination, the world of personal relationships, the world of work)
   —the writing purpose,
   —the mode of interaction (the roles of writer and intended readers),
   —the text (e.g. story, speech, dialogue)

2. Suggest or modify the elements of guided compositions which are set down by the English panel. The following elements may be changed to produce more creative writing:
   - changes in content and making amendment,
   - changes in the characters of a story,
   - changes in the ending: the same situation can lead to an eerie ending, horrible ending or even a funny and amusing ending,
   - changes in the writer's role: he can be one character in the situation or a reporter outside the situation,
   - changes in the reader may bring forth a change in the writing purpose, thus leading to the development of particular kinds or writing skills or writing from different points of view,
   - changes in the setting may alter the course of events and may lead to an entirely different story.

   By making alterations to the above elements, students are exposed to new aspects of the topic and this may lead to a more creative way of thinking and writing. This will also lessen the teaching load of the teacher, making Process Writing more feasible in actual classroom situations.
3. Begin with a very simple but interesting writing task, so that the students can experience the whole writing process completely and smoothly in a short period of time.
4. Be ready to spend more time on the first two writing tasks because students can then get used to the new instructions and different way of learning to write.
5. Remove limitations on the length of a piece of writing in order to encourage students to write from where they are.
6. Do some pre-writing, planning, reviewing, peer-reading, and presenting in class and assign drafting, re-writing and editing as homework so that students have sufficient time to draft and redraft and the teacher can complete the scheme of work on time, provided that students are ready to do so.
7. Move on to each stage progressively in the writing process and emphasize one or two particular writing stages in each writing task. In this way, the students have sufficient opportunities and practice to develop particular writing skills.
8. Allow students to re-draft and edit their drafts at home so that they have sufficient time to discover and develop their ideas. In this way, the teacher can save a lot of lesson time.
9. Be particularly careful in dealing with revising and editing skills as the students are specially unfamiliar with these two stages. The teacher, therefore, has to be very patient, and should give sufficient guidance. Students should also be led to understand the advantages of re-considering their own work because writing is a thinking process. It is only when they understand the benefits of so doing that they get themselves involved in the work.

10. Grade the final drafts according to how much progress the students have made across drafts.
11. Be aware of the students' progress and problems so that the teacher is able to make changes on the spot whenever and wherever necessary for coping with a mixed ability class.
12. Ensure that the instructions and materials are carefully designed and written in suitable language so that students will find it easier to follow and understand.
13. Direct students' attention to the development of a line of thought with a choice of comprehensible and interesting materials. If students are guided to see that materials can be reorganized in many ways, they will have the courage to experiment with different forms of organization. As the problem of language difficulty is eliminated, students can concentrate on the development of their ideas. In addition, extensive reading will definitely help students develop and improve their writing as it will provide them with more information and a model of good English.
14. Avoid hurrying through the writing process. Timing is another important factor which the teacher should attend to as teaching too fast may leave the students in a fog. This is especially true during revising and editing stages. But once students get familiar with the procedures, they will be able to benefit from one another. They can assimilate points from others' work through peer-reading and can train themselves as critical readers of others' work at first, and then even of their own work. Given enough training, even weaker students will be able to develop writing skills from Process Writing and to spot mistakes in their own work.

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT
A WRITING PROGRAMME FOR PRIMARY 2

Course No.: EP912
Group 3:
Name of the participant: Rachel Yau
Project Supervisor: Tony Mahon

Introduction

Based on recent linguistic research, a Process Approach to the teaching of writing has been developed. Unlike traditional approaches, which put emphasis on the error-free product of the pupils' writing, a Process Approach puts more emphasis on the "wandering path that pupils use to get to the product". It involves four writing stages: the Pre-writing stage, the Drafting/Redrafting stage, the Revising/Editing stage and the Publishing stage. Several strategies and techniques are employed to help pupils go through the different stages in writing.

Although Process Approaches to writing have been popular for several years in many countries, it is still relatively unknown in Hong Kong schools, particularly at primary level. In order to find out whether a Process Approach could help improve and develop pupils' writing skills, a writing programme was designed for a P2 class at North Point Government Primary PM School.

Project Design

The experimental class consisted of 30 pupils with an age ranging from 8 to 10. Their language standard was average compared with the other three P.2 classes. Before the implementation of this programme, their experience of writing was restricted to merely copying words or phrases and making simple sentences in a highly controlled situation. Experience in composing their own sentences was very limited. Therefore, this writing programme aimed at helping pupils to produce independently pieces of writing either in phrases or in complete sentences to express their ideas. The estimated time needed for this programme was 5 double lessons.

The Theme

In designing the programme a thematic approach was adopted. The main theme chosen was 'Animals'. The reason for choosing this theme was that most children love animals. To begin, a story "The monkey, the elephant, the tiger and the deer" was introduced. This story is about four animals which went to drink in a pool of water in the jungle. However, when they saw their own reflections in the water, they were so afraid that they ran away from them. The four animals in the story then became the main subjects for the writing tasks that followed.

·*Writing Tasks*

Altogether there were five main writing tasks in the programme. These aimed at giving pupils exposure and practice in writing different text types. Each task was related to the main theme 'Animals'. The five tasks were Caption Writing, Shape Poems, Shape Stories, Letters and Riddles. These writing tasks, unlike those provided in course books, have a communicative purpose and encourage the pupils to use their imagination and creativity.

·*Holding Writing Conferences*

Holding writing conferences with pupils gives the teacher opportunities to talk and discuss with the pupils in order to find out their problems and progress in writing. Since the pupils would be unable to discuss in English, Cantonese was to be used during the conferences. It was intended that such conferences would mainly be held during the Drafting/Redrafting Stage and the Revising/Editing Stage. Within a 35-minute lesson, the first ten minutes would be spent on holding roving conferences with the pupils: this would involve the teacher in moving around the class to give assistance to pupils who need immediate help. During the next 15 minutes the teacher would hold conferences with about 3 individual pupils to discuss the progress of their writing. Since time was limited, it would be impossible for me to have individual conferences with all the pupils by the end of the programme. Therefore, I intended to hold individual conferences with a target group of 8 pupils. Finally, the last 5 minutes would be spent on holding roving conferences again to check pupils' work progress.

·*Using Rewriting Guidelines*

During the Revising/Editing Stage, a list of general rewriting guidelines written in questions like 'Did you use a big letter to begin a sentence?' or 'Did you use a full stop to end a sentence?' would be put on the blackboard. These guidelines would serve the purpose of guiding pupils to reflect upon, revise and edit their texts.

·*Checking progress & Evaluation*

In order to check individual pupils' progress in the development of their writing skills, a writing record with a checklist for evaluating the pupils' use of writing strategies would be kept for each individual. The last writing task would be used as a final assessment of each pupil's progress.

Implementation

"A Writing Programme For P.2" was eventually carried out in North Point Government Primary PM School over a period of two months (from April to June 92) with the P.2 class mentioned earlier. According to my preliminary plan, 5 double lessons from the routine time-table would be spent for the whole programme. However, the actual time needed greatly exceeded my estimation. In fact, a total of 22 lessons was required to complete the programme. In order to obtain the extra time needed, I needed to arrange my time more carefully to be able to cover the course book more quickly.

In the original Scheme of Work it was presumed that a double lesson would be enough for a writing task. In practice, however, a single task stretched over several lessons. Therefore, it was necessary to re-allocate the time. The Scheme of Work that was actually used is given in the Appendix and it shows how time was re-allocated at the different writing stages.

Findings from the programme

While implementing this project in my school, several important discoveries were made about the Process Approach to writing and pupils' responses to it.

Findings about the Process Approach

1. *Time*

Time is a crucial factor in the Process Approach. As described in the previous section, twelve more lessons had to be allocated to this programme. This was necessary because pupils needed more time to go through the different writing stages and do the actual writing. The teacher also needed time to carry out the pre-writing activities and hold writing conferences with the pupils. In using this approach, a writing task will take at least 3 to 4 lessons. This may be a practical problem since we have limited teaching time. Therefore, teachers will have to arrange their time very carefully.

2. *The Pre-writing Stage*

On average, 1 to 2 lessons were devoted to the Pre-writing Stage for each writing task. Even though much time was spent, the Pre-writing Stage was useful and important since at this stage the teacher could help the pupils to explore a writing task as fully as possible by having them participate in various pre-writing activities. It was found that the pupils did use the information they had generated and gathered at this stage in writing.

3. *Writing Conferences*

While drafting and revising, most pupils needed help. They might need a word spelling, a new vocabulary item or a suggestion from the teacher. Roving conferences therefore became very useful in these two stages. To conduct the conferences more efficiently, the teacher read pupils' drafts in advance and then prepared a list of pupils who needed immediate help. Then, in the next writing lesson, those pupils would obtain help first.

It was also found that after just 3 or 4 individual conferences, five of the eight target pupils had made significant developments in their writing and attitudes to writing. They wrote longer texts and were more willing to talk about their written work. In conclusion, writing conferences were useful both to the teacher and the pupils - the teacher could have a better

1359

understanding of the pupils' problems in writing and the pupils could obtain the help needed while writing.

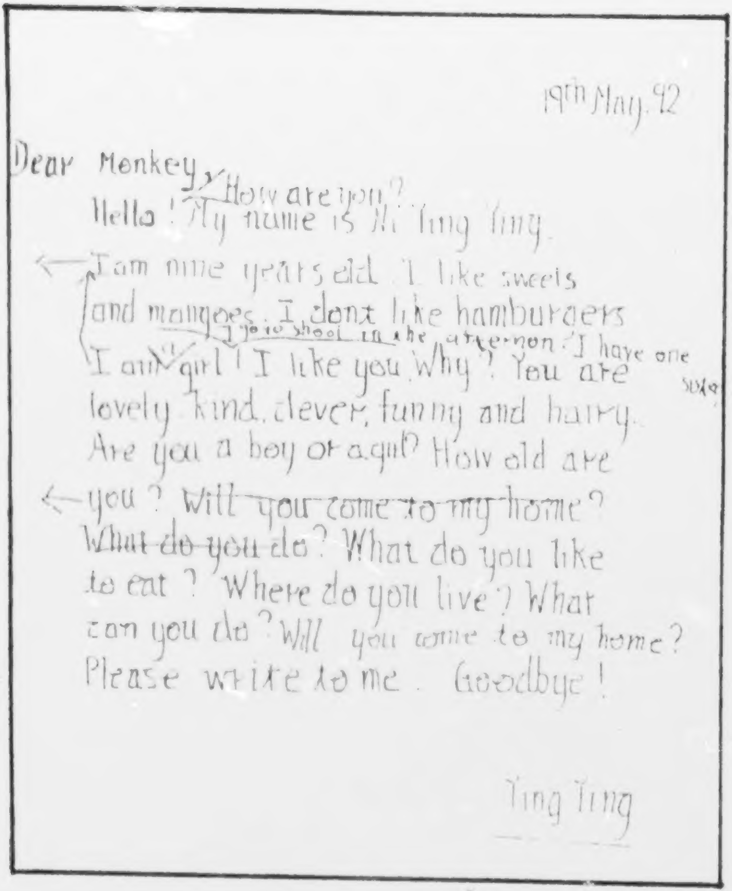
4. *Rewriting Guidelines*

In practice, two kinds of rewriting guidelines were used. The first was the general rewriting guidelines written in questions described earlier. Pupils could always refer to them while revising their texts. However, I found that many pupils still had difficulties in coping with their own problems while revising. Therefore, I had to provide them with individual rewriting guidelines to help them in revising. These guidelines consisted of some suggestions or rewriting instructions written separately for each individual as a small note by the teacher after reading the pupil's drafts. They were notes like 'Re-arrange order of sentences', 'Write more about the look of the animal' or 'Check the following spellings . . .' etc. Considering the level of the pupils and the purpose of providing these rewriting guidelines, some instructions were written in Chinese (depending on the nature of the instruction) so that the pupils could understand the message. The note together with the pupil's drafts were then returned to the pupil for revising and editing. Since these notes mainly dealt with individuals' problems in writing, they were extremely useful in helping pupils to revise and edit their own texts. Besides, they provided both the teacher and the pupils with something to discuss during writing conferences.

5. *The Workability of the Process Approach*

By using the Process Approach, the pupils have made great improvement in their writing ability. Their texts contained increasingly rich content and they have developed various specific writing skills. The fourth writing task required the pupils to write a letter to one of the four animals in the story told in the first lesson. Below is a draft and final copy of one pupil's letter to the monkey:

First Draft



19th May. 92

Dear Monkey,
How are you?
Hello! My name is Li Ting Ting.
I am nine years old. I like sweets
and mangoes. I dont like hamburgers
I go to shool in the afternoon. I have one sister
I am a girl! I like you. Why? You are
lovely, kind, clever, funny and hairy.
Are you a boy or a girl? How old are
you? ~~Will you come to my home?~~
~~What do you~~ do? What do you like
to eat? Where do you live? What
can you do? Will you come to my home?
Please write to me. Goodbye!

Ting Ting

Final Copy

19th May. 92

Dear Monkey,

Hello! How are you? My name is Ni Ying Ying. I am a girl. I am nine years old. I like sweets and mangoes. I don't like hamburgers. I go to school in the afternoon. I have one sister I live in Quarry Bay.

I like you. Why? You are lovely, kind, clever, funny and hairy.

Are you a boy or a girl? How old are you? What do you like to eat? Where do you live? What can you do? Will you come to my home?

Please write to me. Goodbye!

Ying Ying

The above texts show that this pupil was able to use many of the major writing techniques to draft and improve her letter. The following features can be found in the texts:

- Linguistic skills:
  - —applying previous learnt words (eg. hamburgers, mangoes) and structures (eg. "My name is . . .", "I don't like . . .") in writing an extended text
  - —using correct question forms
  - —using correct punctuation marks
- Revising skills:
  - —re-arranging the order of sentences
  - —adding sentences to the text
  - —deleting sentences from the text
  - —paragraphing the text
  - —using signs and arrows in revising
- Other skills:
  - —using a big letter to begin a sentence
  - —using imagination in writing

In addition to these writing skills, the pupils were also able to use the cognitive skills of generating and organising ideas and the editing skills of discovering and correcting their own or others' mistakes in writing. These findings all show that the Process Approach can be a workable and effective approach in improving and developing pupils' writing skills.

·Pupils' Responses to the Programme

On the whole, the pupils' responses to the programme were good. They particularly enjoyed activities such as story-telling, pair-work and reading riddles at the Pre-writing Stage. As the programme continued, most pupils developed an interest in writing. Among the five writing tasks, they enjoyed writing Riddles the most.

To find out more about the pupils' reactions to the programme, a simple questionnaire was given to the pupils to complete in a lesson two weeks after the implementation of the whole programme. The questionnaire consisted of 10 questions written in Chinese and discussion of the questions was conducted in Cantonese. According to the questionnaires completed by the pupils, the following information was gathered:

	Percentage
·Interested in the writing programme	100%
·Believe that their writing skills have improved	76.7%
·Have more confidence in writing	93.3%
·Believe that the first draft need not be the final product	86.7%
·Believe that we can improve a text by revising it	93.3%
·Believe that they are also responsible for correcting their mistakes	96.7%
·Pre-writing activities could prepare them for actual writing	100%

	Percentage
*Rewriting Guidelines (general/individual) were helpful in revising their texts	100%
*could obtain help from writing conferences	100%
*could learn from peer-reading one another's texts	100%

The above feedback indicates that the pupils now have more confidence in writing and a greater awareness of the different stages in writing. But more than that they have also developed a new attitude towards writing which will be important in the further development of their writing skills.

Evaluation

As mentioned before, the last writing task, Riddles, was used as a final assessment. Thus, when carrying out this writing task, the teacher's guidance was reduced by a considerable degree. Only 20 minutes of a double lesson was spent on the Pre-writing activities. Then for the next 50 minutes the pupils started to write their riddles. While they were drafting, I found that most of them could produce their sentences independently. Though they made mistakes in some of their sentences, they were still able to express themselves in writing. By the end of the double lesson, most pupils had finished two animal riddles without much help from the teacher. Some of them even tried to write riddles about other animals such as frogs, rabbits, pigs and fish. On average, most of them could produce eight sentences in a riddle.

By evaluating the 5 pieces of pupils' work it was found that pupils could compose not only separate complete sentences but also coherent texts. The checklists of individual's progress also showed that pupils had developed several writing skills as mentioned in the above section. Thus, it can be concluded that this writing programme has finally achieved more than it aimed at — pupils should be able to produce independently pieces of writing either in phrases or in complete sentences to express their ideas. The results also prove that a Process Approach can help the development of pupils' writing ability through the act of writing itself. Both the teacher and the pupils were satisfied with the results it helped to produce.

Appendix

Scheme of Work with Lesson Plan Summaries

Aim: Pupils should be able to produce independently pieces of writing either in phrases or in complete sentences to express their ideas.

Theme: Animals

Main Writing Tasks	Objectives	Pre Writing	Drafting/ Redrafting	Revising/ Editing	Publishing
Caption Writing (5 lessons)	Pupils should be able to write about a picture using a word, a phrase or a sentence.	*1 double lesson: —Story telling *1 lesson: —Retelling the story —Discussing pictures from the story —Making phrases/sentences about the story using T's sentence maker	*1 lesson: —Drawing pictures about the story —Writing a caption for the pictures —Writing Conferences	*1 lesson: —Rewriting Guidelines —Peer reading —Proof reading —Correcting mistakes —Writing Conferences	—Finish colouring pictures at home —Display on boards
Shape Poems (3 lessons)	Pupils should be able to write a Shape Poem of an animal using words or phrases.	*1 lesson: —Brainstorming —Discussing & listing ideas about the animals —Demonstrating writing a shape poem	*1 lesson: —Writing shape poems —Writing Conferences	*1 lesson: —Rewriting Guidelines —Peer reading —Proof reading —Correcting mistakes —Writing Conferences	—Finish copying the final poems at home —Display on boards

Shape Stories (4 lessons)	Pupils should be able to write a Shape Story of an animal using phrases or sentences.	*1 lesson: —Pair work: reading texts about the animals & taking notes —Classifying ideas about the animals in a table —Making sentences using T's sentence maker	*2 lessons: —Writing sentences about an animal —Writing Conferences	*1 lesson: —Rewriting Guidelines —Peer reading —Proof reading —Correcting mistakes —Writing Conferences	—Finish copying texts at home —Make into story books to be kept in class library
Letters (6 lessons)	Pupils should be able to write a letter to an animal using complete sentences	*2 lessons: —Reading a letter from the animals —Brainstorming —Discussing & classifying the content —Demonstrating writing a letter —Teacher & pupils revise & edit the letter together	*2 lessons: —Writing a letter to an animal —Writing Conferences	*2 lessons: —Rewriting Guidelines —Peer reading —Proof reading —Correcting mistakes —Writing Conferences	—Finish copying the final letter at home —Drawing a picture for the letter at home —Display on boards
Riddles (4 lessons)	Pupils should be able to write a riddle about an animal using complete sentences	*1/2 lesson: —Reading riddles & making guesses —Listing ideas about the animals	*1 & 1/2 lessons —Writing a riddle about an animal —Writing Conferences	*1 lesson: —Rewriting Guidelines —Peer reading —Proof reading —Correcting mistakes —Writing Conferences	*1 lesson: —Copying the final riddles —Drawing the answers —Make into riddle books to be kept in class library

*No. of lessons spent (each lesson lasts for 35 mins)

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT

LANGUAGE ENRICHMENT THROUGH AUDIO AND VISUAL MATERIALS

Course No.: EUS 912
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Introduction

Before starting our action research, first of all we identified one of the current problems in teaching and learning English. We found that learning English has become a chore or drudgery for most students in Hong Kong. We considered ways of coping with the problem by making English lessons more enjoyable, stimulating and effective, instead of remaining routinized, teacher-centred and textbook-bound.

In our Action Research, twelve of us worked as a group. We organized ourselves into four sub-groups. First of all, we tried to find out what might and could be done to make learning English in the classroom more fun and enjoyable. We opted to develop and produce a set of language enrichment materials of radio, video, songs and story-telling. We expected that this package of materials could serve as a reference or a supplement to everyday stereotyped teaching.

In the Radio Play section, we made use of authentic materials such as actual radio excerpts, which included news announcements, advertisements etc. Students were taught how to extract main ideas, what the language of advertising was like and how to make use of it.

In the Video section, we made use of an interesting cartoon, a success story of a celebrity and funny video strips. Students were expected to make predictions of the story plot, note-taking, script writing, role-playing and some sharing of their own past experiences etc.

In the Story-telling section, a set of visual aids which included pictures and cartoon strips were used. Students had to use their imagination to build up stories of their own and report them afterwards.

In the Songs section, we prepared sets of songs depicting different facets of love, including parental love, love for the world, and love seen through the eyes of people of different ages. Apart from appreciating the songs, students were helped to reflect on the subject of love with its many interpretations and implications through activities like questioning, locating the main themes and relevant expressions from the lyrics.

We tried out our materials in four different secondary 4 classes. As we aimed at senior form students, S4 was the ideal choice as they were free from immediate public examination pressure. They could be exposed to activity-based forms of learning. Besides, we thought the activities we prepared were well-suited to S4 level.

The school we chose was Ming Kei College, an English medium co-educational school in Kowloon. The students there are of above average academic ability and have a good command of English.

We had four main objectives in carrying out the experimental teaching:

a. To develop language enrichment materials to try out in class.
b. To explore how these language enrichment materials and activities benefit students in general and how much they enjoy them.
c. To find out how students of different disciplines i.e. Arts and Science, respond to these activities.
d. To develop further teaching materials for language enrichment in class.

In actual practice, we allocated four lessons to each of the S4 classes. Two Arts classes and two Science classes formed two separate groups. We tried out the whole set of four different activities for each of the groups. Each class had two different activities as follows:

4A	(Arts Group)	Video & Story-telling
4B		Radio News & Songs
4D	(Science Group)	Songs & Video
4E		Story-telling & Radio News

Each of our sub-groups was responsible for designing lesson plans and teaching materials. It then conducted the lessons allotted for its activity. For the preparation part, all members of each group collaborated, while finally, one member of each sub-group was in charge of the teaching. Evaluation was done towards the end of each activity. The last fifteen minutes were used for the students to complete two questionnaires, each on a different activity tried out by them. Both questionnaires were designed for the students to give their feedback and remarks.

In addition, observation forms were completed during each lesson by observers, who included Miss Barbara Chan, our tutor, and ourselves. We had at least four observers each time, two being primary observers, i.e. they did the observation throughout the 16 periods to ensure more consistent assessment and evaluation.

After the actual try out, we collected data from the questionnaires completed by the students, and based on these, we carried out investigations in the following areas:

(1) Whether and to what extent upper secondary students enjoy language lessons in the aesthetic domain
(2) Whether and how often they want to have these lessons
(3) Whether they think they can learn from these lessons
(4) Whether they want to pursue activities in language enrichment on their own beyond the language class
(5) Whether students of different disciplines, i.e. Arts and Science, have different reactions to learning activities in the aesthetic dimension

We are delighted to find that students' overall feedback is positive and encouraging. In addition, there are observable points of difference in the ways Arts and Science students reacted to various teaching strategies. In all, it is fair to say that the experimental teaching programme was largely an enjoyable and helpful experience to all who took part in it.

Limitations of the Study

The programme was carried out in a single school and at a single level. In the absence of a representative sampling design, we saw no point in using methods of inferential statistical analysis. The overall design of our action research therefore does not put us in a position to generalize our findings externally.

The collected data indicated only 'self-reported' behaviour. Owing to limitation of time, we have not been able to find out the differences, if any, between 'self-reported' behaviour and actual behaviour.

Constraints in time and resources have also prevented us from carrying out investigations into other areas of interest to us. One of these areas is how other variables, such as gender, may affect learners' reactions towards language enrichment programmes.

Implications

Language enrichment is an interesting area that warrants exploration in further breadth and depth. We suggest that further research be conducted with experimental or quasi-experimental designs including representative sampling and statistical analyses of data to ensure that findings which emerge can be externally generalized. In addition, longitudinal studies should be carried out to convince sceptics that students did not enjoy the enrichment programmes merely because of innovation effects.

Our overall findings have left us in little doubt that language teaching/learning activities in the aesthetic domain are effective incentives to students' motivation to learn. This is borne out by the fact that close to

90% of the students indicated that they wanted to have enrichment lessons as an integral part of their language curriculum. We, therefore, believe that enrichment programmes should be extended to all levels in secondary schools. Nevertheless, an important lesson we have been able to draw from clinical experience in the experimental teaching programme is that both teachers and learners need time to adjust themselves to 'novel' patterns of classroom interactions. To conclude on a clinical note, hasty 'transplants' of research findings into classrooms may well result in 'rejections' on the part of teachers and learners alike.

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT

LEARNING ENGLISH IN AN INTERESTING WAY THROUGH ENGLISH NEWSPAPERS IN LOWER SECONDARY CLASSES

Course No.: *ES 912*
Group 4: *Lam Ngan-fung, Winny*
Lau Kwan-ying, Winnie
Shiu Lai-wan, Constance
Chan Yu-yu, Olivia
Leung Chung-fun, Grace
Leung Oi-ling, Julia
Yuen Wai-ling, Winnie
Ip Kit-yi, Jackie
Lai Tak-ming, Katherine
Chan Yuet-yi, Phoebe
Cheng Wai-chee, Betty
Group Tutor: *Mr Wu Kam-yin*

Introduction

We believe that using English newspapers is a valuable teaching and learning asset. Students should be motivated to engage actively in language learning in an effective and realistic way. They should be encouraged to learn about the world around them and gain familiarity with current English usage. In this aspect, as a kind of authentic material, English newspapers are a valuable resource. Moreover, English newspapers can form interesting teaching materials if they are carefully selected to cater for the needs and interests of students.

Despite being such good resource material for language teaching and learning, English newspapers are not being well-exploited by English language teachers in Hong Kong. Many students, especially junior secondary students, are unaware of the value of English newspapers. They think that reading English newspapers is boring since the subject matter is dry and serious. To change their misconception of English newspapers, students have to be assisted, encouraged and motivated by teachers with a suitable selection of material chosen from English newspapers. For example, material from the 'Young Post' of the South China Morning Post and the 'Education' of the Hong Kong Standard can be selected and adapted to provide interesting, varied and easy materials for even junior form students.

In order to prove the value of English newspapers to junior secondary students, we carried out an action research project on using English newspapers with junior form students. Our hypotheses were:

1. English newspapers can be used as a source of teaching materials in junior English classes.
2. Junior secondary students will find English newspapers interesting.

3. Junior secondary students will find English newspapers suitable for their level.
4. Junior secondary students will use English newspapers as a tool for learning English.
5. Junior secondary students will develop the habit of reading English newspapers.

Implementation

We selected and adapted certain columns from English newspapers for our teaching activities, namely, advertisement, shopping guide, horoscope, celebrity, comics, games and news.

We did our experimental teaching in T.W.G.Hs. Chen Zao Men College from 3rd December, 1991 to 5th December, 1991 with two Form 2 classes. Ten lessons were used and the duration of each lesson was 40 minutes.

In these ten lessons, students worked either individually or in pairs. We designed tasks on reading, writing, skimming, scanning, problem solving, decision-making, discussing and guessing. Through these tasks, we wanted to show students there were easy and interesting columns in English newspapers and they could learn English by reading them.

To test our hypotheses, we used questionnaires, interviews and task observation forms as our evaluation instruments.

Findings and Analysis

From the information we collected from the questionnaires, interviews, task observation forms, and students' results on worksheets, we obtained the following findings:

1. Before the experimental teaching, 12% of the students said that their teachers used English newspapers in class. However, after the experimental teaching, 74% of the students indicated that they would like their English teachers to use English newspapers in future. So, the first hypothesis that English newspapers can be used as a source of teaching materials in junior English classes is established.
2. Before the experimental teaching, only 31% of the students found English newspapers interesting but after the experimental teaching 88% of the students said that they found English newspapers interesting. Therefore, our second hypothesis that junior secondary students will find English newspapers interesting is supported.
3. At the beginning of the experimental teaching, 63% of the students found English newspapers difficult but after the experimental teaching 49% of them found English newspapers not as difficult as they had thought. Hence, hypothesis 3 that Junior secondary students will find English newspapers suitable for their level is valid.

4. One of the common remarks from the interviews with the students was that they could learn more English such as new vocabulary and sentence structures from English newspapers, especially from the news column, 'Education' and the 'Young Post'. According to the data collected from the questionnaires, 96% of the students thought English newspapers could help them learn more English and improve their English. Thus, hypothesis 4 that junior secondary students will use English newspapers as a tool for learning English is established.
5. Our last hypothesis that junior secondary students will develop the habit of reading English newspapers is also supported by the data collected from the questionnaires. Before the experimental teaching, only 17% of the students read English newspapers in their spare time, but after the experimental teaching 81% of them said that they would read English newspapers in future.

Conclusion

After this action research project, we firmly believe that both average and bright students can learn English in an interesting way through newspapers.

We hope that other English teachers will share our belief and start making full use of English newspapers for classroom teaching.

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT

WIDENING STUDENTS' INTEREST IN READING ENGLISH NEWSPAPERS THROUGH CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

Course No.: *EUS 921*
Group 5: *Lourdes Chiang*
Elsa Kwok
Raymond Kwong
Bernard Lam
Fiona Lo
Wing-Mui Pang
Irene Tam
Zachary Tien
Betty Wong
Group Tutors: *Mike Murphy and Philip Hoare*

Introduction

English newspapers have long been regarded by many teachers of English, especially those of senior secondary forms, to be very useful tools for teaching and learning English. However, many students often read a small part of the newspaper or show an interest in only a few sections, despite the fact that many of them are regular subscribers to the South China Morning Post or the Hong Kong Standard. The teachers involved in this project set out to find the sections of English newspapers which the students were most and least interested in and attempted to widen the students' interest in reading English newspapers through classroom activities.

Being easily accessible and inexpensive, newspapers offer a wealth of authentic materials which enable students to come into contact with English in real life situations, making learning more realistic, meaningful and purposeful. Besides authenticity, newspapers also provide great variety in terms of topics, language and style of writing. As newspapers differ from other reading materials in the sense that they are most current and provide "up-to-minute" information, they help students keep abreast of the latest happenings around the world and thus broaden their general knowledge with the wide range of selections available. In fact, the newspaper is just like a kaleidoscope, each section has its distinct characteristics to inform, to report, to comment, to persuade, with the style ranging from informal (as in the Advertisements) to formal (as in the Editorial). We are, therefore, convinced that reading newspapers can improve students' language proficiency tremendously. However, as teachers, we find that it is often difficult to convince students to develop reading English newspapers as a habit. Moreover, students' knowledge about newspapers is also limited. Through our action research, therefore, we tried out different classroom activities with English newspapers to help students know more about them, so as to boost their level of interest and widen their interest in various sections of the newspapers.

We carried out our experimental teaching in a Secondary 4 Science class at Christian Alliance S.C. Chan Memorial College in Tuen Mun on May 29th, June 2nd, June 3rd and June 4th, 1992.

Plan of Activities for Experimental Teaching

ACTIVITY 1—5 minutes

Objective: To find out students' attitudes and interests towards reading English newspapers.

Steps: Students are asked to complete a questionnaire.

ACTIVITY 2—35 minutes

Objective: To familiarize students with different sections of the SCMP and to provide students with a chance to practise scanning skills.

Steps: Students are given the SCMP of 28-5-92 and are given 10 minutes to read through it.
Students are given 10 minutes to complete a quiz on the SCMP.
Teacher goes over the answers and introduces different sections of the newspaper.

ACTIVITY 8—20 minutes

Objective: To provide students with an opportunity to read articles cut out from different sections of the SCMP and to share with their group members what they have read.

Steps: Students in groups of 4 or 5 are given a set of 5 sheets with 2 articles each from the SCMP.
Each student is given 10 minutes to read one of the worksheets.
After reading, every student is to tell the other members of the group what the articles on his or her sheet are about.

ACTIVITY 9—Project—40 minutes

Objective: To give students an opportunity to design activities using the English newspaper.
To encourage discussion through exchanging ideas.

ACTIVITY 3—10 minutes

Objective: To find out students' interests in particular sections of the SCMP.

Steps: Students complete questionnaire ranking the different sections of the newspaper according to their interest and indicating the sections which they had seldom read before.

ACTIVITY 4—10 minutes

Objective: To find out students' interests in different sections of the SCMP and to provide students with an opportunity to read English newspapers in their spare time.

Steps: Teacher shows students a sample of a scrapbook and explains to them how to prepare it. Students in groups of 4 or 5 are asked to cut out materials they are interested in from any English newspaper and stick them into the scrapbook.

Students are asked to put down the date of the newspaper, the sections the materials are cut out from and to highlight the main idea of that particular article.

This activity will continue in the following two sessions.

ACTIVITY 5—5 minutes

Objective: To get students motivated as a warm-up activity.

Steps: Every student is given a worksheet for matching headlines to news items.

ACTIVITY 6—10 minutes

Objective: To get students motivated as a warm-up activity.

Steps: Students in groups of 2 or 3 are given a set of worksheets for matching headings to pieces of information. Students are encouraged to discuss and work out the answers with their group members.

ACTIVITY 7—15 minutes

Objective: To promote among the students cooperation and exchange of ideas.

Steps: Students in groups of 4 or 5 are given a set of 5 sheets

(*a*) a photograph
(*b*) a short article
(*c*) another short article
(*d*) a headline
(*e*) another headline

Each member of the group holds one of the above sheets and is reminded not to let others read his or her own sheet.

(Note: One student in each of the 2 groups of 4 has to hold the 2 headline sheets.)

Students are given one minute to read the sheets and figure out what each of them is about.

After reading, every student should be ready to tell the other members of the group what his or her sheet is about.

When the information on all the sheets has been exchanged, the whole group has to work out together the matching of the photograph (Sheet a) with one of the headlines (Sheet d or e) and one of the articles (Sheet b or c).

Students in groups of 4 or 5 choose articles/comic strips/ photos from various sections of the newspaper and design activities based on their cutouts.

ACTIVITY 10—35 minutes

Objective: To promote peer learning through English newspaper activities designed by peers.

To provide students with an opportunity to evaluate activities designed by peers.

Steps: Students in groups of 4 or 5 try out activities designed by different groups.

After trying out each activity, they are required to fill in an evaluation sheet.

ACTIVITY 11—5 minutes

Objective: To evaluate whether the objectives of our Action Research have been achieved.

Steps: Students answer questionnaire.

ACTIVITY 12—15 minutes (4/6)

Objective: To provide students with an opportunity to evaluate the overall objectives of the Action Research.

Steps: Students are divided into groups of 4 or 5 and each group is interviewed by a teacher.

Students are invited to give their opinions on all the activities done from lessons 1 to 8.

TTRA Perspectives

Broadly speaking, the following Target and Target-Related Assessment (TTRA) targets are aimed at in the design of the activities.

I. *Social Interaction Target*

During most of the teaching sessions, the students are expected to participate actively in discussing in groups, exchanging ideas, making judgements and decisions, exploring through argument and persuasion, etc. These activities enable the students to use English for interacting with their counterparts purposefully and communicatively. (Activities 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 & 12)

II. *Problem-Solving with Others Target*

Students are engaged in solving problems with others when they work on many of the activities, especially the designing project. They plan and organize activities based on English newspapers and solving various problems during the process of designing and trying out these activities. (Activities 2, 6, 7, 9, 10)

III. *Developing and Applying Knowledge Target*

Students identify and make connections among concepts and related processes drawn from learning in English in the course of making use of newspaper texts for various activities. Moreover, they are engaged in identifying and clarifying ideas through designing the activities and exchanging ideas with their peers. (Activities 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10)

IV. *Personal Response Target*

Students respond to interesting texts, personal anecdotes, stories or comic strips commonly found in newspapers by extending and making use of them in activities. (Activities 4, 8, 9, 10)

Findings

To evaluate whether the objectives of our action research had been achieved, three questionnaires and two lesson observation and evaluation forms were designed and used before, during and after the lessons.

The two overall objectives—

(1) to determine which particular sections of the Hong Kong English Language newspapers students are most interested in;

(2) to widen students' interest in reading English newspapers through classroom activities—

were well achieved during and after the series of activities.

Before the lessons, most of the students were interested in the Young Post. After the activities, however, around half of the students indicated that they began to find interest in sections which they had seldom read previously such as the LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL section. This shows that students' interests have been broadened and we hope that they will continue to read these sections in the future.

Students also found the lessons more interesting than the normal everyday English lessons. They were given freedom to select their own newspaper articles and to read at their own pace. The workshop gave students the opportunity to work as a group. Through this, they could share and exchange ideas, thus giving them a chance to practise their oral English and hence increase their confidence in the spoken language.

Recommendations

A. *Recommendations on the Use of English Newspapers in the Classroom*

1. Teachers reflected in the group interview forms that students welcomed the idea of using more newspapers in class.
2. A resource bank of newspaper cuttings and ideas on classroom activities with newspapers can be set up in the English panel to

facilitate the effective use of newspapers as teaching and learning materials.

(Note: Care must be taken in the choice of articles to ensure that they are updated.)

3. Copies of newspapers and activities based on newspapers can be made available on a self-access basis during lunch time or after school in English corners.

B. *Recommendations Concerning Our Project*

1. Smaller groupings are preferable.
2. We feel that there was a shortage of time in conducting our project. A total number of 9–10 periods is recommended.
3. A warm-up game can be conducted before activities begin e.g. playing Bingo with section names of the newspaper.
4. In questionnaire C, a part requiring students to rank the different sections of the SCMP according to their preference should be included. This show whether students' interests have been widened during the project.
5. It is advisable to conduct the survey on scrapbooks before the final interview so that teachers can follow up the difficulties students find during the project and the reasons behind such difficulties.

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT

IMPROVING DISCUSSION SKILLS THROUGH FEEDBACK

Course No.: ***EUS 921***
Group 6: ***Chris Chan***
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Alison Chu
Carmen Lo
May Mak
Connie Pang
Ken Wong
Connie Woo
Anthony Yee
Group Tutor: ***Anne Lo***

Introduction

As teachers of English, our problem is to get our students to use English for purposeful verbal communication because communication is at present regarded as one of the most important components of language learning. However, it is very difficult to get students to express themselves freely, especially in oral English. Discussion seems to be the most natural and effective way for learners to practise talking freely in English. Therefore, students should learn how to participate constructively and co-operatively in a discussion, and that is why we choose discussion skills as the topic of study.

Problem Identification

During the course of our teaching, we have become aware of the following problems:

(1) Learners do not know the appropriate ways of conducting discussions in English. They are not aware of the pattern of interaction or the paralinguistic features which can make the discussions more successful.

(2) They lack training in thinking systematically and logically. In fact, they need more training on how to develop an idea, how to sustain an argument and how to give evidence.

Methodology

Feedback is an essential part of the discussion activity. Feedback sessions provide valuable learning for the students. The objective is to give students the information they need to improve on their performance. What the groups have done will be assessed, and the feedback will be done immediately after the discussion. This feedback session is mainly conducted by the teacher, who acts as a keen observer during students' discussion, but students will also be invited to make comments on their own performance.

Since inappropriate ways of conducting discussions as well as other weaknesses can be shown to the students in the feedback session, we feel that feedback can be a good method to solve the problems we have identified; so the hypothesis of our project is "Constant and immediate feedback is an effective way of enhancing learners' discussion skills."

In organising discussions in our experimental teaching, we paid attention to these factors: interesting topics, group-work and meaningful tasks, which can facilitate student interaction.

Instruments

To observe the performance of the students, we made use of the following instruments:

(1) Teacher Observation Forms
(2) Student Observer Sheets
(3) Student Evaluation Scales
(4) Questionnaire
(5) Audio-tapes
(6) Video-tapes

To observe the pattern of interaction, we followed the frame of moves as follows:

(1) Starting discussion by giving opinion
(2) Responding by agreeing or disagreeing
(3) Introducing new ideas
(4) Seeking and making clarification
(5) Asking for opinions and giving replies
(6) Summarising and concluding

To observe the linguistic skills, we made a record of the errors which hinder communication – grammatical errors, errors of pronunciation and inappropriate use of vocabulary.

To observe the use of paralinguistic features, we noted down how often the students try to do the following:

(1) To encourage others to continue by using "ah" "ha" "mmm" etc.
(2) To smile and nod.
(3) To use hands to reinforce a point.
(4) To show interest by leaning forward in the direction of the person speaking.
(5) To make eye-contact with others when speaking.
(6) To use stress, intonation, tone and loudness of voice to reinforce a point.

To observe cognitive skills, we followed the four maxims described by Grice (1975):

(1) The maxim of quality:
Make your contribution one that is true. Do not say anything for which you lack evidence.
(2) The maxim of quantity:
Make your contribution as information is required.
(3) The maxim of relation:
Make your contribution relevant.
(4) The maxim of manner: Avoid ambiguity.

The use of audio-tapes and video-tapes can provide diagnostic information during the feedback session. Video is useful for analysing interaction and for highlighting the use of paralinguistic features.

Implementation

The experimental teaching was carried out in Concordia Lutheran School, Shek Kip Mei, Kowloon. The target group was a Secondary 6 Class of 24 Arts and Commercial students. The duration was 5 teaching periods of 35 minutes each, from 2nd to 4th of June 1992. The theme we chose was "Youth Problems". We let the students decide on the topics for the different discussion tasks, and they chose these two topics: (1) Causes of stress among young people, and (2) Dating among teenagers.

Summary of Lesson Plans

Lesson 1 – Listing and Ranking
Discussion Task 1 – (10 minutes)
Students were asked to list and rank the causes of stress. The situation given was that the School Counselling Team wanted to conduct a campaign in the school to help students cope with stress.
Objective: To observe students' skills with focus on the interaction pattern and linguistic skills.
Feedback Session 1 – (20 minutes)
Feedback given by Teacher-in-charge
Objectives: (1) To raise students' awareness of the interaction pattern.
(2) To improve students' linguistic skills in discussion.
Lesson 2 – Problem-solving
Discussion Task 2 – (15 minutes)
Each group of students was asked to study a particular case about students' stress and complete a case report.
Objectives: (1) To observe students' improvement in discussion skills with regard to their awareness of the interaction pattern and their mastery of the linguistic skills.
(2) To observe students' discussion skills with focus on their paralanguage and number of contributions.
Feedback Session 2 – (20 minutes)
Feedback given by Student Observers and Teacher i/c.

Objective: To raise students' awareness of the importance of paralanguage and the importance of making contributions in discussion.

Lesson 3 – Role Play

Discussion Task 3 – (20 minutes)

Students were asked to suggest activities for the 2-day campaign to help their peers cope with stress, and draw up an outline of the activities.

Objective: To observe students' overall improvement in discussion skills.

Feedback Session 3 – (10 minutes)

Feedback given by Teacher Observers and Teacher i/c.

Objective: To raise students' awareness of the cognitive aspects, pattern of interaction, linguistic skills and paralanguage.

Lessons 4 & 5 – Video Playback and Free Discussion

Feedback Session 4 – Feedback on Discussion Task 3
Video playback – (20 minutes)

Objective: To let students observe their performance in the discussion and give comments.

Discussion Task 4 – Free Discussion (10 minutes)
Topic: Dating among Teenagers

Objective: To observe students' improvement in discussion skills with regard to their awareness of their mastery of the cognitive skills, the pattern of interaction, paralanguage and linguistic skills.

Feedback Session 5 – (10 minutes)

Feedback given by Teacher Observers and Teacher i/c.

Objectives: (1) To show students the respects in which they have improved in discussion skills.
(2) To point out to students the areas in which they need further improvement.

Findings and Conclusion

Pattern of Interaction

Students became more aware of the pattern of interaction in Task 4 at the end of the experimental lessons. The slight drop in the number of contributions per person after Task 1 was due to the increase in length of each contribution and the nature of the topics, which required more thought. There was, however, a marked improvement in other areas, like showing agreement and disagreement, seeking opinions, explaining and clarifying. Not much improvement was shown in summarising ideas and making conclusions.

Linguistic Skills

Both teachers and students agreed that some improvement was shown in the linguistic competence of the students. 25% of the students felt they were able to speak more fluently in Task 4 at the end of the experimental lessons. Maybe the discussions had given a boost to their confidence.

Paralinguistic Skills

To find out if students made improvements in the use of paralanguage, we compared their performance in Task 2 with that in Task 4. We found that there was a general improvement in the use of all the paralinguistic devices, especially in the use of encouraging cues like smiling and nodding (an increase of 43.5%) and in the use of eye-contact when speaking (an increase of 39.8%).

Cognitive Skills

We found that the effect of feedback was not significant in changing the students' performance in cognitive skills. However, improvements were found in the aspects of quality, quantity and manner, the maxims described by Grice. Students were aware of the need to state their views with evidence. They were able to present their ideas more clearly because their confidence was enhanced after going through the discussion tasks.

Self-evaluation and Questionnaire

From the self-evaluation and questionnaire, we found that 80% of the students became more confident in giving their views and 25% of them felt they could speak more fluently in Task 4. They agreed that the feedback sessions were the most useful. Of the various forms of feedback, teachers' comments ranked first in the students' preference. 56.6% of the students said peer comments were also beneficial. Video-based feedback, however, was the least successful. This could be attributed to the poor sound quality and some technical problems beyond our control. On the whole the majority of the students found the experimental lessons very useful and interesting.

Conclusion

From these findings, we conclude, therefore, that constant and immediate feedback is an effective way of enhancing learners' discussion skills.

Recommendations

When giving feedback to the students, it is necessary to take note of the following:

Teacher's comments are most valued because students appreciate being given clear guidance about where their discussion could have been better.

Feedback tasks, which can be done by the students themselves, are as useful. They provide information for the students to improve on their performance. Besides, the student observers also benefit from their observation. Observation sheets, however, must be designed in such a way that the observation is highly focused.

The use of tape recorders can provide valuable diagnostic information, but the sound quality may be poor if the students speak too softly or if several groups, sitting too closely together, speak at the same time. To make improvements, we can ask the groups to sit further apart, or we can choose a more spacious venue.

The same problem applies to the use of video cameras; but video-based feedback can highlight paralinguistic areas, which can be important in communication. We can overcome this problem by editing the tape or by transcribing some useful sections of exchanges in advance and exploit parts of the tape for different purposes.

Finally, it is necessary to enlist the co-operation of the students. Their involvement is essential to make the discussion a collaborative activity.

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT

RAISING THE LEVEL OF PARTICIPATION IN DISCUSSIONS IN SENIOR FORMS

Course No.: *EUS 912*
Group 1: *Chak Wong Chi-ming*
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Chan Yuk-king
Cheung Karen
Chiang Sui-kuen, Kitty
Kwong Yeuk-ping, Ivy
Leung Fung-king
Li Lee Siu-luen, Cecilia
Sit Kwan Kit-ching, Jacqueline
So Yuen-yee, Loretta
Tam Kit-may, Mabel
Wu Yuk-kwan
Wong Yuk-ping, Stella
Group Tutor: *Philip Hoare*

I. What Action Research is about

In Action Research, we organized a series of discussion activities for a class of F. 6 students with the aim of raising their level of participation in discussions.

II. Why we chose the topic of raising the level of participation in discussions in senior forms for investigation

"Discussion" is often employed as a kind of classroom activity in senior forms in Hong Kong. However, we find that our students have problems in discussion lessons. They do not express themselves freely in English; nor do they participate actively in discussions.

It is our job as English language teachers to organize discussions for students so that they have opportunities to express their ideas freely and confidently rather than just repeat what they are directed to say.

We believe that well-organized discussions not only provide opportunities for students to develop their ever-improving capabilities in fluency of speech but also give them a chance for real language use. They can try out the language and strategies which they will need outside the classroom, particularly in higher education and in the work place. Therefore, the organization of discussions in the EFL classroom should be highly valued.

III. What our Action Research aimed to do

In our Action Research, we were interested in motivating students to take part in discussions and try out the language they had already learnt.

Our objective was to observe whether a high level of student participation in discussions could be achieved by purposeful development of a topic of interest to students and by careful monitoring of the nature of interaction, the cognitive and linguistic demands of the tasks and the level of preparedness.

IV. Design of the discussion activities

A series of four discussion activities was designed with "Growing Up" as the theme and subtopics like "generation gap" and "dating". The theme and subtopics were specially chosen because they were related to students' experience and thus should be interesting to them.

The four discussion activities were Evaluating Statements, Problem Solving, Role Play and Talking about Growing Up. The activities were arranged in ascending order of difficulty in terms of cognitive and linguistic demand. Each activity prepared students for the next one. The gradually increasing level of preparedness would help students achieve a high level of participation in the final discussion activity even though it demanded the highest level of cognitive and linguistic competence.

We tried to maximize students' participation by asking them to form small groups of three at the beginning. In later stages, when students had enough practice and became more confident to speak out in bigger groups, the size of the group was increased to six or even ten members.

For each activity, we had an observer watching the individual group in discussion. A tape recording was also made. The observer evaluated the students' performance. In addition, the students were asked to provide feedback for evaluation by completing questionnaires. There were home school teachers and ILE tutors commenting globally on each activity, too.

V. Trying out the discussion activities

The four discussion activities were tried out with a class of F.6 Arts students of an Anglo-Chinese secondary school in Tsz Wan Shan.

Summary of the lesson plans

Lesson 1: Introduction and Motivation
The whole class and the observers played a game called "Matching Idioms". It was a warm-up game for everyone to get to know one another.

Lesson 2: Evaluating Statements

The students formed groups of three. Each group was given a worksheet on which there was a list of ten statements related to the main theme "Growing Up". The students had to decide whether they agreed or disagreed with the statements and give at least one reason. As a rounding up exercise, each group put down their opinions on a wall chart.

Lessons 3 & 4: Problem Solving

The students still remained in groups of three. Each group was given a letter, either in Chinese or English, taken from the agony page of the newspaper or youth magazine. (Chinese letters were used because they were authentic materials with a local context and were more easily available.) The students had to read the letter and suggest solutions to the problems presented. They then wrote a short reply to the letter.

Lessons 5 & 6: Role Play

In this activity, the three members of each group played the roles of three children in a family. They had to decide whether to move from the area they were currently living in/where to move.

To help the students think and talk more in the discussion, they were each given an information sheet and role card. The details of the information sheet and role cards were designed in such a way that there was bound to be disagreement.

First of all, students playing the same role sat in a large group of ten and talked about the pros and cons of moving/not moving. Then they went back to their original groups of three and held a discussion. They had to reach a compromise which was acceptable to all members of the family. Finally, each group marked their decision on a wall chart.

Lessons 7 & 8: Talking about Growing Up

In Lesson 7 the students listened to three songs related to the theme "Growing Up", namely "What is a youth", "Sixteen going on to seventeen" and "The circle game". The songs were played to set the scene. Then the students were asked to express their feelings or experiences about growing up in pictures individually.

In Lesson 8, the students sat in groups of six. They took turns to guess and interpret the meaning of each member's picture. After hearing the comments from the group members, the artist explained his/her original ideas in the picture.

Lesson 9: Evaluation

The students were invited to comment freely on the last 8 lessons.

VI. What we have learned from the Action Research

There was a gradual increase in the level of participation in the five graded activities we designed for the students. Even though we did not provide them with much cognitive input and the students were only just linguistically competent enough to express themselves, there was a building up of confidence in the later activities.

Since discussion skills can be acquired through putting the knowledge of the language of discussion and the paralinguistic features of discussion into practice, teachers should devote more of their lessons to graded discussion activities.

To ensure that students' interest in discussion activities can be sustained, the choice of topics and the design of tasks for discussion activities have to be student-centred. Activities should be tailored to the cognitive and linguistic level of the students. This can guarantee a sense of achievement which can be strengthened when there is immediate feedback and clarification of difficulties students encounter in doing the tasks.

Small groups are preferable especially when discussion topics are personal. Students are eager to speak out when they sit with friends of their own preference. However, when the discussion topics are more academic and intellectual, the weaker students can work better if they are grouped with the brighter ones provided that there is no wide disparity in abilities between them.

The teacher plays a very important role in setting and maintaining the mood for discussions. S/he can redefine the topic when students are stuck, prevent digression or slackening off in some students and monitor the time of the activities. S/he can correct specific errors that occur on the spot and note down common mistakes to be corrected later.

VII. Implications for the future

It is very important to start introducing basic discussion language fairly early if we are to build on what students have learnt. The teacher can design and grade materials according to the needs, interest and standard of the class. Some of the points the teacher can take note of in organizing discussion activities are:

1. The topic should be related to students' interest.
2. The task for discussion must be purposeful so that students see the need to speak out.
3. The task should be designed to ensure that success is within students' grasp.
4. Both cognitive and linguistic input should be provided for students to enrich the content and language of the discussion.
5. A small group of three to five gives more opportunities for students to speak out.
6. Students choosing their own group members is conducive to a relaxed atmosphere for sharing.
7. A mixed ability grouping can facilitate peer learning.
8. If possible, a spacious room with movable furniture for groups to spread out should be used to reduce disturbance.

THE HONG KONG EXTENSIVE READING SCHEME IN ENGLISH (HKERS)— REPORT ON THE FIRST YEAR OF IMPLEMENTATION

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The Hong Kong Extensive Reading Scheme in English (HKERS), a curriculum project developed by the Institute of Language in Education (ILE) of the Education Department, was implemented in 19 public-sector secondary schools in September 1991. Another 30 schools will join Phase II of the Scheme in September 1992, and applications for Phase III (September 1993) of the Scheme are being processed. The following is a report on the first year of implementation.

Operation of the Scheme

In September 1991, 90 secondary 1 classes in the 19 Phase I schools began participating in the Scheme. The 19 schools included different types; and a wide range of student abilities was also represented. The number of students involved was about 3,600. A list of the 19 Phase I schools is in Appendix 1.

The classes were provided with resource packages in the form of book boxes at 8 reading levels and accompanying reading materials like question cards, answer cards and reading charts. The materials were developed by the University of Edinburgh and adapted by the ILE for Hong Kong students. In addition, classes with weaker students were provided with easier bridging materials in the form of 120 reading cards at two different levels and answer cards. Each resource package will eventually be shared by three classes, one from each level in junior secondary.

At the beginning of the term all the students sat a placement test to determine their reading levels. It was discovered that in most classes there was a range of English abilities, and it was not unusual to find three or more reading levels represented within a class. To ensure that the materials would provide 'comprehensible input' (Krashen 1985), students were asked to select only books that corresponded to their reading level as determined by the placement test.

All the schools allocated 2-3 periods per week to extensive reading throughout the academic year. During these lessons the students each chose a book that suited their own interest and level to read on their own. The question card and answer card provided for each book enabled them to check their own comprehension and develop individualised reading and learning, and they were encouraged to read outside class as well. Their progress was also monitored by their teachers, who checked the reading notebooks and records and also held regular discussions with individual students about the books they had read during the reading lessons.

Feedback from schools

The Institute worked closely with the schools through a support system, which included classroom observation during school visits, liaison with schools through the teacher appointed as the ERS Co-ordinator, and discussions with the ERS teachers.

Visits in the period October – December 1991

Visits were paid to all the 19 school in the period October – December 1991 to obtain information about the classroom operation of the Scheme and teachers' and students' reaction. The total number of classes observed was about 50. It was encouraging to find that the Scheme was well received in the schools. The students liked the variety of books on offer and welcomed this pupil-centred mode of learning which allowed them to work at their own pace and be responsible for their own learning. Moreover, except for a couple of classes in one or two schools, the classroom operation was smooth in the classes visited. The students were familiar with the classroom procedures and most were able to read independently under the guidance of their teacher.

A number of points were noted during the visits. In some classes, all the reading records provided were used and as a result, students had to spend rather a lot of time filling in records. Teachers were therefore advised to utilize only the reading records they found useful. Secondly, some teachers had observed that a few students in their class had difficulty reading books of the level indicated by the results of the placement test, and we advised those who had not already done so to move these students down a reading level. We recognise that even though the placement test is a very accurate indicator of the students' proficiency, it is not foolproof and needs to be supplemented by the teacher's observation of the students' performance in the teacher-pupil conferences and in answering comprehension questions after reading the books. Any student found to have reading difficulties should be given easier books to read, for learning will not take place if the input is not 'comprehensibie' and the student is reading at a frustration level. As Nuttall (1982:185) puts it, reading skills will develop much better if a student 'reads a lot of books that are too easy rather than a few that are too difficult'.

Another interesting point emerged from our observation during the school visits. We had emphasized that the students' main task was to read, understand and enjoy the books, not to do comprehension exercises or to learn new vocabulary. Most students had understood this and were engaged in reading, but there were a few individuals who were more concerned about answering comprehension questions than reading, or were frequently looking up words in the dictionary even when the meaning of the words could easily be inferred from the context. This is not surprising as most secondary 1 students are more used to intensive study of short passages in coursebooks than to reading extensively for pleasure, but it is important to wean them from these habits as they will eventually kill off interest in reading. Moreover, it is important to teach the students to use the dictionary judiciously and to encourage them to 'guess the meaning of new words from contextual clues' when possible because this is a skill expected of 'fluent readers' (Hedge 1985: 32).

Evaluation of the Scheme in July 1992

A survey was done with the help of the ERS Co-ordinators of the 19 schools to ascertain the number of books read and the general effects of the Scheme one year after its implementation. The data were collected during the follow-up visits in some schools and correspondence with the ERS Co-Ordinators in others. According to the teachers, students had in general read a lot of books. Without counting the reading cards which were bridging materials, the average number of books read by a student ranged from 15-25 in some schools up to 60-70 in other schools. There were also cases of students having read nearly or over 100 books: the fastest reader had read 137 books, and there were others who had read 80 or 90 books. Most students had also moved up 1 to 2 reading levels. Teachers interviewed agreed that the Scheme had helped in developing a reading habit in their students and pointed out that the Scheme remained popular with most, though not all, students.

As for the effects of the Scheme, teachers found that the increased exposure to English through participation in the Scheme had helped most students to become less afraid of English and more confident of their ability to read independently. Teachers were also asked whether they had observed any improvement in students' productive skills. Some teachers reported their students had more ideas when writing compositions, and others observed improvement in expression in writing. However, such improvement was not observed across the whole population. This is not surprising as it has been widely acknowledged that extensive reading only produces long term effects but not short term ones. Nuttall (1982: 168), in discussing the effects of extensive reading, points out that it may take some time before the teacher can notice in the students 'any marked improvement in the productive skills; but then it often comes as a breakthrough that results in their progressing at increasing speed and far outstripping their classmates who have not developed the reading habit.' Whether there will be significant improvement in the HKERS population will be one of the main areas to be examined when the students are in the second and third year of the programme.

In addition to the survey, evaluation instruments aimed at measuring the effects of the Scheme with a view to improving it have also been developed.

A questionnaire for students to examine attitudes towards extensive reading and improvement in reading skills and strategies was administered to half of the student population at the beginning of the school year and again to the other half of the population in July 1992 so that comparisons could be made between pre-HKERS and after-HKERS responses. Tabulation of the data is now under way.

The students will also be administered a progress test, which is part of the package developed by the University of Edinburgh, in September 1992. The scores, when compared with the Placement test scores, will measure progress in English made during the year. However, these tests only measure general proficiency in English and are not specific to reading. In order to measure more accurately the development of students' skills in extensive reading, an extensive reading test is being developed jointly with Professor Alan Davies of Edinburgh University. The test will be administered to the students in the coming academic year.

HKERS Awards

To further increase the students' interest in reading extensively, an HKERS Award Scheme was set up. The awards were sponsored by Zonta Club of Hong Kong East and included certificates and plaques of merit and book coupons.

There were 2 main categories of awards. In the first category, schools were asked to choose a Best Reader of the Class from every class and a Best Reader of the Form from among the Best Readers of the Class of their school. These best readers were chosen for having read a large number of books, having shown a good understanding of the books read and great interest in reading during Teacher-pupil conferences and having consistently obtained reasonably accurate answers in doing the Question Cards. The second category was an Inter-School Book Report Competition. There were 10 awards, 5 for the best written book reports and 5 for the best designs in book cover, book mark or illustrations for the books read.

The details concerning the awards were sent to the schools in January 1992 and the prize-presentation ceremony took place on 14 July 1992. The Ceremony attracted a lot of media attention and feature articles on the students who had read nearly or over 100 books appeared in several newspapers. The attention of the media is a pleasing indication that extensive reading has become accepted as an important part of students' education.

Discussion

The HKERS has had a fruitful first year. The main objective, which is to vastly increase the students' exposure to English, has been well achieved as judged by the large number of books read by the students. It is especially heartening that students who read a lot were not necessarily from Band 1 schools; many were from schools with students of lower abilities.

We believe the pleasing quantity of reading achieved was largely the result of incorporating the Scheme into the curriculum. If students are expected to read a large number of books they must be given time to do it. The class time allocated to extensive reading in the Scheme got the students started on books and, once hooked on them, they were more willing to finish reading the books at home. Moreover, the extensive reading lessons enabled the teachers to monitor the students' progress and give help, encouragement and feedback.

An important skill the Scheme has helped to foster in the students is the ability to read independently. Self-access learning is still a comparative new concept in Hong Kong classrooms, and teachers who are used to being firmly in control of all classroom activities are sometimes doubtful about the practicability of giving their students so much autonomy. The Scheme, however, shows that even Secondary 1 Students are capable of independent learning, and it is interesting that according to the teachers' reports, students actually welcomed this mode of learning as it allowed them to work at their own pace and gave them more control over what they would like to learn. The smooth classroom operation in most classes also proves that discipline problems will not occur if procedures like borrowing, lending and filling in records are explained clearly to the students.

Another point worth noting is that even students in the same class had very different levels of language and reading abilities, and usually books of two to three different levels were used within a class. This highlights the problems faced by many teachers when the whole class is required to use the same class reader, as is the common practice in many Hong Kong schools. The class reader chosen is likely to be too difficult for some students and too easy for others. Moreover, as Law (1992:4) points out in an article on extensive reading, the problem will be even more acute when students in the weakest class of the school 'are asked to read the same English books' as students in the top class. This problem, however, can be overcome in an extensive reading programme, when students can each choose a different title based on his or her English ability. This will ensure that the input provided by the reading materials is 'comprehensible'.

A further important point brought out by this year's experience is that the teachers' attitude and orientation towards extensive reading are important factors that can determine the success or failure of such a programme. In seminars held before the implementation of the programme, we pointed out that the ERS teacher needed to assume three new roles – the Monitor/Facilitator who would monitor the students' progress through discussions with individuals and checking reading records, the Motivator/Enthusiast who would encourage the students to read and convince them of the value of extensive reading, and the Administrator who would ensure that the classroom procedures were smoothly carried out (Yu 1992:7). The observations during school visits showed that teachers who were enthusiastic about taking up these new roles usually generated a good response from the students who not only read a lot but had also developed a genuine love of reading. On the other hand, teachers who were not interested in reading (fortunately there were only a few of them) could not convince their students of the importance of reading. In one extreme case the teacher, for the sake of convenience, ignored the fact that her students should be reading at three different levels and only brought books of one level into the classroom. Worried about discipline problems if students were allowed to leave their desks to choose books that interested them, she just gave the books out to the students. It was not surprising that the lesson was a disaster and the students were not reading the books but were chatting to one another. The teacher thought that her approach would simplify matters, but ironically this had led to discipline problems because she had failed to interest the students in reading. This was in sharp contrast to other ERS classes where students worked attentively even though they were given the freedom to leave their desks to choose books they liked, get question cards and fill in records.

In the coming year, when the Scheme enters the second year of implementation, it will be interesting to continue to chart its progress. The following questions still need to be answered: Will the increased exposure lead to improvement in English proficiency across the HKERS population in the long run? Will those students who have read a lot continue to do so, or was the enthusiasm just generated by the Hawthorne effect? Will books at the higher levels interest the students as much as books at the lower levels, which have colourful illustrations and are easy to read? Will the Scheme lead to sustained interest in reading and improvement in reading skills and strategies? These are some of the areas that will be investigated in the coming year, and the findings will be reported in future volumes of ILEJ.

July 1992

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Appendix I

SCHOOLS IN PHASE I OF THE HONG KONG EXTENSIVE READING SCHEME IN ENGLISH

BAPTIST LUI MING CHOI SECONDARY SCHOOL
BELILIOS PUBLIC SCHOOL
CHRISTIAN ALLIANCE S.C. CHAN MEMORIAL COLLEGE
COGNITIO COLLEGE (HONG KONG)
DMHC SIU MING CATHOLIC SECONDARY SCHOOL
HO TUNG TECHNICAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS
JOCKEY CLUB Ti-I COLLEGE
KWUN TONG GOVERNMENT SECONDARY SCHOOL
MING YIN COLLEGE
OUR LADY'S COLLEGE
PO LEUNG KUK CENTENARY COLLEGE
STFA LEE SHAU KEE COLLEGE
ST. FRANCIS' CANOSSIAN COLLEGE
TANG KING PO SCHOOL
TANG SHIU KIN VICTORIA TECHNICAL SCHOOL
TRUE LIGHT MIDDLE SCHOOL OF HONG KONG
TWGHs LI KA SHING COLLEGE
WONG SHIU CHI SECONDARY SCHOOL
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語文教育學院出版之中，英文教師手冊可於中環郵政局大廈政府刊物銷售處購買。

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Volume 10 of ILEJ will be published in December 1993. Contributions will be welcomed. They should be sent to the editors before 30 June 1993 at the following address:

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1405

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目錄　CONTENTS

		Page
朱寶元 **陸　逐**	語文教師和語文教學	11
何國樑	「日知錄」答問	17
何國祥	八種常用工具書所用粵語羅馬拼音系統的比較	23
張　旭	職前與在職教師培訓的關係	34
張厚感	義務教育初中語文教學大綱的幾個重要問題	38
張樫壽	論漢語文教師的職前培養和職後進修	43
楊永泉	九十年代中學語文教學何去何從	46
劉蘭英	外語院校學生的漢語學習	60
陳基藩	閩南方言汕頭話「物」的語法特點	66
鄭遠漢	規範・風格・變異	70
J L Clark	Some Thoughts on Quality and Standards in Education with regard to the Target Oriented Curriculum	76
Phil Glenwright	'Lessons for Analysis' in Pre-Service Courses	82
David R Carless	Reflections on Developing In-Service Courses	90
Gertrude Tinker-Sachs	Graded Tasks and Learner Differentiation in the Classroom	101
Lynda Poon, Anne Lo and Stella Kong	Developing Learner Responsibility in the Early Stages of Writing	121
Carol H G MacLennan	Metaphor in the Language Classroom: A Case for Change	137

REPORTS, VIEWS AND SUMMARIES

Ho Kwok-Cheung	Report on a Field Study in China: Targets for Putonghua Teachers	155

Sean O'Halloran Half-Way House or Institute of Education? Reflections on the TESU93 Seminar on 'Hong Kong Teacher Training in Transition' 163

Three views on the future Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIEd):

Ip Kin-Yuen The HKIEd: Its Limits and Opportunities 170

Andrew J Taylor The HKIEd: Some Academic Considerations 172

Bob Adamson The HKIEd and China's Reform Programme 175

Action Research Report Summaries by ILE Secondary English Refresher Course Participants:

1 Language Enrichment through Exposure to Authentic Audio-Visual Materials 177

2 Improving Students' Interest and Skills in Writing Short Stories 181

3 Promoting Interaction in Group Discussion at AS Level 185

4 Simulated Activities for Improving Students' English in the Workplace 190

1406

前言

《語文教育學院學報》是一本以語文教師、語文教育工作者、語文學者為對象的學術刊物。本期論文共有十六篇，分為中文、英文兩輯。中文論文十篇的排列次序，原則上按作者的姓名筆畫作先後：筆畫少的在前，筆畫多的在後。

十篇中文論文的內容，可約略分為三類。有關語文教師的文章有三篇：朱寶元、陸逐的《語文教師和語文教學》，主要是討論語文教師如何教語文的問題，同時也在教師角色變換方面，提供了一些值得參考的意見；張旭的《職前與在職教師培訓的關係》，主要在探討語文教師的職前和在職的培訓問題，作者認為，合格教師的語文素質，是由職前與在職培訓所共同組成的；張樫壽的《論漢語文教師的職前培養和職後進修》，也在強調：提高中小學生語文水平關鍵在教師，而提高語文教師的水平，又賴於切實做好職前培養和職後進修的工作。有關語文教學的文章有四篇：何國樑的《「日知錄」答問》，是一篇採取答問形式的寫作教學試驗報告，作者為語文教師介紹了一個經過驗證而認為可行的寫作訓練模式；張厚感的《義務教育初中語文教學大綱的幾個重要問題》，主要是闡釋《教學大綱》中提到的幾項重要要求，並提出自己的看法；楊永泉的《九十年代中學語文教學何去何從》，是一篇談論語文教學取向的文章，作者分從教學反思、教學方向、教學重點、課內閱讀、考試改革五方面提出自己的意見；劉蘭英的《外語院校學生的漢語學習》，主要是談論外語院校漢語課內容的改革，作者的論據，有自己實際的經驗和體會作為基礎。還有三篇屬於語文問題的文章：何國祥的《八種常用工具書所用粵語羅馬拼音系統的比較》，主要是想通過多種常用工具書所用粵語拼音系統，來說明粵語拼音的掌握，並非想像那麼困難；陳基藩的《閩南方言汕頭話「物」的語法特點》，是一篇研究方言語法的文章，根據研究結果，作者認為：汕頭話是中國最古老的方言，而在語法方面，比現代漢語有更強的穩固性；鄭遠漢的《規範・風格・變異》，則是一篇從三方面探討語言規範問題的文章，作者指出：語言規範是客觀存在的事實，規範不會抹煞語言風格的多樣性，而文學語言的藝術性和語言的規範性，在本質上是調協一致的。

FOREWORD

The English section of this tenth issue of ILEJ has as its theme 'Educating for Change', encompassing changes that are currently taking place both in the teaching profession and in the classroom learning situation.

On the one hand, the initiative for the Target Oriented Curriculum is focusing the attention of teachers much more on targets for learning, on assessment related to these targets, on task-based activities, and on the individualisation needed to help each child realise his or her potential. On the other hand, the Education Commission's Report No. 5 has called for a major upgrading of the teaching profession, with the eventual provision of 35% graduate posts in primary schools, and with the amalgamation of the Colleges of Education and the ILE into a new, autonomous Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIEd).

The editors are particularly glad that this issue of ILEJ features contributions from lecturers in the Colleges of Education as well as the ILE: teacher educators who will be at the forefront of this change.

Articles in the English section are followed by a series of reports, including a report on a seminar about the new Institute of Education and three personal views of what the Institute might do for teacher education in Hong Kong.

John Clark's article begins with the premise that as the aim of Hong Kong's Target Oriented Curriculum (TOC) is to improve the quality of learning there should be some indication of what the concept of quality refers to. He examines the factors involved and points out that TOC sets out to reconcile these factors in a cross-curricular framework to be realised in each subject. He also reminds us that educational standards are 'quality benchmarks' against which performance can be judged. In TOC these are set out as targets and bands of performance that describe progress in working towards these targets.

Phil Glenwright describes the procedures involved in running Lessons for Analysis (LFAs) in his College and analyses the responses obtained through questionnaires from student-teachers and lecturers. He examines alternatives to LFAs and suggests a school attachment programme might prove to be a more suitable vehicle for the development of a 'teaching culture' in which both schools and teacher education institutions would be 'vigorous' partners in promoting self-development and 'justified change'.

David Carless examines ways in which INSET courses could be made more 'productive and worthwhile', particularly in the post-course implementation of new ideas, techniques etc. He discusses the Hong Kong constraints and drawing on experience gained from elsewhere, e.g. Denmark and the University of Lancaster (UK), suggests that post-course implementation might be enhanced in Hong Kong through 'follow-up' and 'follow-through' procedures and teachers drawing up their own implementation plans.

1410

Gertrude Tinker-Sachs examines the implications of the difficulties experienced by Primary teachers of English attending the 3-day TOC seminars with particular reference to the session on lesson planning. Teachers were required to develop procedures to support the teaching of a chosen task and to produce accompanying graded worksheets to accommodate the needs of different learners. She analyses the difficulties experienced by teachers in designing the graded worksheets and outlines some recommendations which would materially help teachers overcome the problems encountered.

Lynda Poon, Anne Lo and Stella Kong were concerned with developing learner independence in the earlier stages of writing. In their article they describe the series of check-lists they devised for use by students and teachers which would allow and encourage that development to take place.

Carol MacLennan outlines the difficulties L2 students experience when presented with metaphorical items used in everyday communication. Her study indicates that metaphor in discourse is a significant cause of student comprehension failure. She feels that its neglect in language programmes is a cause for alarm and suggests that the supposed difficulties in teaching metaphor might not be so great, given that metaphors exist in the learners' L1.

The report section begins with *Ho Kwok-Cheung's* account of the fact-finding visit made to China by members of his research team engaged in the Hongkong Bank Language Development Fund (HKLDF) project on Putonghua. His report details how their experience there, through the ideas and materials obtained, was instrumental in helping the team develop a language profile scale for teachers of Putonghua in Hong Kong.

The reports continue with *Sean O'Halloran* reflecting on the seminar, 'Hong Kong Teacher Training in Transition', organised by the Teacher Education and Study Unit (TESU) in Northcote College of Education. He gives a resume of the major points raised by the speakers in areas such as the HKIEd as a degree-awarding body, the upgrading process, academic and administrative structures, quality assurance and assessment, management culture etc. and adds his own observations. This is followed by three personal views on the future role of the Institute of Education. *Ip Kin-yuen* questions whether the establishment of the HKIEd will solve the problem of 'quality' in attracting suitable teachers for Primary schools and makes a plea for a broader, more open type of curriculum to be used by the HKIEd as well as for entry to Primary teaching from university degree courses. *Andrew Taylor* welcomes the establishment of the HKIEd and advocates that it should become involved as soon as possible in areas such as degree courses, staff development, research, collaboration with other tertiary institutions, language policy and quality assurance. *Bob Adamson* speculates on the links that could be established between the HKIEd and mainland China and suggests that links could be forged in three main areas: curricular reform, methodological innovation and knowledge transfer.

Finally, of particular interest to practising secondary teachers, are four summary reports of action research projects carried out by secondary ILE participants during their refresher courses. These cover a variety of areas: short story writing; vocational English; speaking skills with particular reference to group discussions; and the use of authentic audio-visual materials. These may be helpful not only as examples, but also for the recommendations they contain for future development and implementation.

1412

語文教師和語文教學

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教語文在有些人眼中彷彿是挺容易的事，然而一旦上手卻絕非那麼簡單。有不少頗有經驗的語文教師常常說：「越教越不會教」。這不是謙虛的說法，卻道出教語文的個中三昧。

語文教師如何教語文？這似乎是不成問題的問題，然而值得我們細細研究。

一、樹立大語文觀是教語文的基礎

語文作為教材，目的是使學生掌握怎樣使用語言，不管什麼體裁什麼主題，只有在使用語言中，在閱讀能力或寫作能力的體現中才能確定，因此對語文而言，語言就不能不估首位了。

語言是從人們的交際活動中抽象概括出來的一種符號體系，然而我們在語文教材中可見的卻都是個人語言實際運用的成品，是語言行為的產物，所以學生接觸的是「言語」。學生是在學習言語中學習語言的，語言表示的是符號之間的形式關係，即「語形」；言語表示的是符號的「能指」與「所指」的關係，即「語義」，以及符號與使用者的關係，即「語用」。

在語文教學中「語義」的內容顯然估很重要的分量，然而「能指」與「所指」的關係必須在「語用」中才能落實。從寫作講，「觀念層、意念層、語言層」間的轉換是「語用」的過程；從閱讀講是逆向還原的「語用」過程。

在解決文字之後，「語義」的教學就居於語文教學的前哨了。如果說「能指」與「語形」關係密切，有着明顯的體系性，那麼「所指」的體系就其大無邊了，普天之下什麼不是它的範圍呢？於是信息論跳出來告訴我們：「所指」就是信息，「語用」就是傳達，「語形」就是載體。這樣一來就有問題了：如果把「所指」歸在語文教學之中，那豈不有改變語文課的「使學生掌握怎樣使用語言」的性質之虞嗎？把「語形」歸在語文教學之中，豈不有把語文等同於語言的憂慮嗎？看來語文教學只能把「語用」

作為重點，即是「傳達信息」，必須培養學生的閱讀能力與寫作能力，具體體現在「聽、說、讀、寫」能力的培養上。

從信息的傳達角度看，「聽」與「讀」，重在信息的接受，「說」與「寫」重在信息的輸出，這樣一來又產生一個問題：光靠語文課學生能接受多少信息？學生輸出的信息難道都是語文課上接受的嗎？一方面語文課不可能也不應該把「所指」全納入自己的範圍，一方面學生輸出又涉及「所指」的全部內容，這便常常使語文教師處在「兩難」境地而進退維谷了。

其實語文課只能起到指導學生如何接受與輸出的方法培養接受與輸出的能力的作用。在這樣的指導中，我們的對象是人，是對人的作用，使學生成為能夠比較完善處理信息的接受、加工、貯存、改造、輸出的語言「過濾器」。我們雖然不能窮舉「所指」但卻必須攬日月精華、文化精神、科學文明、道德情操來使學生的語言「過濾器」逐漸完善。陸游有「功夫在詩外」的說法，千年耐人尋味，然而卻有忽略教材與教師的作用之嫌，在我們看來「詩外」與「詩內」的結合，才是最重要的。

語文教師必須樹立這樣的大語文觀，雖然着眼於語言訓練，卻既要呼風喚雨，包羅萬象，又要深入腹地，在「語用」中下功夫。這項任務是很艱難的，光靠能讀會寫是不能教好語文的。

二、語文媒介語與系統的控制

我們常常發現這樣的情況：有的教師教學非常「謹嚴」，與教學要求無關的不講或少講，然而效果不理想；有的教師教學看似隨便，海闊天空，往往偏離教學要求，然而效果卻未必不好。這是什麼原因呢？是媒介語中負載的信息在起作用。信息量多，符號與使用者的「語用」關係接觸頻繁，客觀上是能起到一些積極的作用的。

我們無意貶褒。事實上，二者都不值得推崇。然而我們可以從中明確：語文教學是個系統，教師與學生是系統中的物質要素與能量要素，能量體現在教師與學生的「異質同構」的「同化」、「順應」之中，也即教師對信息的控制、調整，以及學生對信息的接受與反饋之中。

語文教學媒介語中負載着哪些信息呢？

(1) 語音、語詞、語法以及修辭規律的信息，它們以語言符號模式與寫作模式的形式存在。它們是信息的載體，也傳達着本身的信息。

(2) 上述模式的「所指」，即自然萬物及其規律的信息。包括教材中的信息。

(3) 相應的語境信息。課堂的氛圍、教師的情感色彩等等。

當教師的媒介語負載的信息以(1)或(1)與(3)為主，便呈現「為語文而教語文」的情況；以(2)或(2)與(3)為主便呈現海闊天空放馬式的情況；如果(1)、(2)、(3)結合，並且經教師控制、調整，三者融為一體，則能出現最理想的教學效果。

這是因為信息經過教師與學生的語言「過濾器」的轉換。外界的信息、教材的信息以及教師的觀念的信息，經過轉換變成有序的言語形式。這種轉換是逐層進行的，直至學生聽懂接受為止。教學水平高的教師，能夠經過一次或很少的轉換，達到信息傳達的目的。

其次是時空的轉換，教師把古今中外直至未來的信息，超越時空轉換成在課堂中就能讓學生接受的言語樣式，讓各種文化模式以及不同的參照體系在課堂中有序地呈現在學生面前，並且被學生接受。

再次是語言符號模式、寫作模式的貯存。在言語的具體的頻繁的轉換與使用中，學生逐漸接受並貯存了這些模式。

最後是教師與學生二者的影響與被影響。教師的水平、能力的完善程度，人格光彩，在教學情境中，藉助媒介語對學生起着影響，這就是「名師出高徒」的基本道理。

作為一個系統，教師的媒介語具體體現着系統的控制的指令，它使系統的多因素之間協調，使之成為一個可控系統。在這個系統中，媒介語的調控有着多種可能性，教師本身的條件與學生的情況不同，顯示着語文課的不同樣式。在這個系統中，媒介語的調控目標有着多項選擇性，總體目標的選擇必須體現在具體的目標的選擇中。在這個系統中，媒介語又調控着一定的方向，這個方向體現着預定目標，有利於學生的接受。當然媒介語的調控結果又是相對的，然而經過反饋能使結果變得趨近於理想。

三、語文媒介語的擴展

語文教學媒介語既然具有對語文教學系統的控制指令作用，那麼就應該得到足夠的重視。傳統上人們一直把口語看作教學媒介語，直到現在口語確實是最主要的媒介語，然而近20年來單用口語作為媒介語便顯得力不從心了。如果說過去我們當學生時能從教師的口若懸河的口語中獲得十分豐富的信息，把語文課看作是最有興趣的一門課，那麼隨着廣播、電視、錄像、錄音等傳播媒介的變化，教師已很難光靠口語來控制語文教學了。並不全是口語負載的信息有多少變化，然而所負載的信息常常不是缺乏新鮮感，就是缺乏刺激力。

我們不必為這種變化而黯然神傷，我們應該為這種變化表現了社會對語文教學的參與而感到高興。我們必須進一步積極地謀求語文教學的出路，這就得從信息、從媒體出發加以認真的考慮。

從信息出發，就是謀求更有效地讓學生接受信息，輸出信息，也即是謀求學生語言「過濾器」的建構與完善，提高閱讀能力和寫作能力。教師要把有關信息加以有機組合，轉換成學生能接受的模式，在師生的心理溝通中有效地完成語文教學的任務。這樣教師就必須更多地研究教材、教學方法，研究學生的實際情況，創設適宜的情境，花更多的功夫。

從媒體出發，我們要改變單一口語作為媒介語的傾向，採用多種媒體使媒介語擴大。除了口語外，還應有下述媒體或媒介語的介入：

1. 書面語。板書(含掛小黑板形式)、作文批改、語文園地、投影(文字)等。書面語作媒介語的優點是：不受空間限制；表達比較謹嚴；可保存相當時間。缺點是：有時費時較多；在與課堂變化的氛圍的適應上存在一定的差距。
2. 錄像、幻燈、電影等。可以有文字、聲音、畫面等。這些媒體的優點：形象生動；質量可靠；可以保存。缺點：製作費時費錢費精力；與課堂氛圍的呼應不完全吻合。
3. 體勢語。指教師的非語言性的聲音和動作。可以使教師與學生心靈溝通更加默契，可以傳遞許多不可言傳，意味深長的意思或信息。
4. 輔助語言。即口語中聲音的音質、音量、聲調、語速、節奏，以及嘆息、笑聲等等，其各方面均有豐富的變化，能夠表達豐富的思想和感情。
5. 藝術性的非語言手段。如「舞蹈語言」、「音樂語言」、「美術語言」等等。

上述種種可以看作是語文教學媒介語的擴大。如果教師能根據自己的條件揚長避短，綜合運用，那麼對語文教學的調控手段就會多得多，語文課就不會令學生感到枯燥乏味，而是生動活潑，情趣盎然，教學效果也會理想得多。

然而，語文教學媒介語擴大的最高層次不能不說是教學藝術了。教學藝術的構成，不僅是教師所賴以教學的綜合媒介手段，還包括教師的學識水平與人格光彩，更體現在對語文教學的高度把握上。從這個角度說，教師是語文媒介語的總成，這是一個高效的系統，學生經過這個系統的「點化」便能得到事半功倍的效果。它不需要超長的時間和空間，卻能超越時空，把握着現時教學中的學生接受，並且把握學生的未來。

四、指導性與非指導性教學

教學藝術對語文教學的舉重若輕的駕馭，表現在對語文教學的認識之中，從大語文觀看來，語文教學並不只是在課堂上的傳授，還包括課外的

活動；不只是教師的傳授，還包括社會各界人士，以及學生自己；並不只是語文基礎知識的傳授，還包括各種文化模式以及社會文明對學生的影響……這一切在教學藝術的統率下都有效地指向語文教學。

傳統的語文教學歷來把指導性教學看得很重。指導學生「聽、說、讀、寫」，指導學生觀察、想象、記憶、思維……指導學生如何對待人生等等。這些指導都在課堂教學過程中進行。語文教學的知識點與各種技能堪以萬千計，一一指導是不可能的。雖然許多教師非常刻苦，忘我地投入，唯恐有疏漏，然而終難免有疏漏。這種指導並非沒有效果，靠着它自古到今不知培養了多少人才。然而指導性教學總是免不了令學生生厭，如果遇上挫折，則學習積極性驟減，而且極難復甦。教師在指導性教學中只承擔了一個角色——一個站在學生對立面的「監工」式的人物，你縱然可以和藹可親，有獨到的教法，卻不可避免地對學生的思維發展、視野拓展、潛能的發現與發展帶來某些抑制。

殊不知教師是無法創造一個完人的，完人的種子在學生心中。教師不能「灌輸」生命，只能給予陽光、水分、空氣、養料，促使，幫助學生成為完人。指導性教學的出發點正是「施予」而不是「幫助」，它可以十分完善，但與學生總是有着深深的隔膜的。

在這種指導性教學中，語文媒介語縱然豐富，卻不能成為陽光、水分……越是效果不理想，越是加強指導，這樣便構成一個惡性循環，成為差生大量造成的「溫床」。不少學生見到上課、寫作文就害怕，逢到測驗、考試就做惡夢，有的逃學、棄學——這是對指導性教學的一個懲罰。

這些「不愛學習」、逃學、棄學的學生需要甚麼？需要撫愛、輕鬆的氛圍，需要玩耍、於我們感興趣的東西，一句話他們需要「閑暇」，這是生存的權利，誰也不該剝奪這個神聖權利。

於是教學藝術就在「閑暇」中做文章了。從教育的產生看，人類最初的教育就是在閑暇的遊戲中進行的；從教育史的發展看，寓教於樂本來就是先人留給我們的珍貴遺產；從社會的發展看，終身教育就包括着「閑暇教育」的內容。

非指導性教學就從這里產生了。一些教師屬意於學生語文課外活動的指導，讓學生自己看書、看電影，自己遊戲，交往……他們或者事先給學生一些學習任務，或者根本不作任何佈置，然而學生在「閑暇」中進步很快。一些教師甚至把「閑暇」引入了課堂，為甚麼課堂一定要嚴肅得讓空氣也凝固呢？於是在輕輕鬆鬆之中，不知不覺之中，漫不經心之中，語文教學的任務完成了，並且高質量地完成了。

我們說過，語文這門學科是十分特殊的，它甚至包括人類文明的一切信息。既然這樣，為甚麼不把課堂的範圍放得大一些呢？為甚麼在家庭，

社會就不能學語文呢？於是「無牆教育」、「家庭教育」、「社會教育」出現了，它們本來就應該有語文教學的一席之地，問題在於教師肯不肯是不是去佔領。

教學藝術的一個基本點就是教師的角色變化，他既是教師，又是朋友，像父母兄長，又如導遊總是引人入勝，頑童總是這般天真爛漫……然而他絶不是「監工頭」。教師在語文教學天地自由地變換角色，轉換媒體，教師自己也成為一個最佳的教學媒體了。

「日知錄」答問

何國樑
廣州市教研室

作文是一種複雜的心理技能。作文訓練具有創造性、綜合性、長期性的特點。因此，學習作文須經歷一個相當艱難的、長期的、時有反覆的過程。要讓學生較為順利地完成這個過程，就得促進學生多讀多寫並合理地安排作文訓練的序列。迄今為止，似乎還沒有一個作文教法能圓滿地解決這兩個難題。所以，大多數作文訓練仍然是費力多而收效少，弄得教師辛勞，學生厭倦。

筆者在廣州五中任教期間曾與科組同事考察傳統作文教學的利弊得失，探討促進學生自覺實行並堅持多讀多寫的方法，進行「日知錄」寫作訓練試驗。由於學校領導大力支持，師生積極參與，終於取得令人滿意的成果。

「日知錄」訓練改變了傳統的觀念，把作文訓練和成才目標聯繫起來，衝破了「文章」的內容和形式的限制，讓學生在求知與成才的內驅力推動下，運用語言工具「記錄」塑造自己的歷程。這樣，一篇篇「日知錄」文章展示着自己不倦的探索，反映着自己進步的足跡，又轉過來激勵自己不斷進取。學生撰寫「日知錄」時並不覺得自己在作文，而是自然而然地運用語言工具探索新知，積學長才，因而不但毫無勞苦厭倦之態，反而覺得有濃厚的趣味，甚至感到不寫不舒服。而這些為塑造自己成才而寫的文章，由於沒有心理負擔，都是有感而發，因而思路較為清晰，文字較為通順。教師的批改也較為輕鬆，讀到學生有真情實感的「日知錄」文章，也饒有興味。表面看來，撰寫「日知錄」不太像作文，而實質上是真正的、切用的作文。它不但能提高學生的寫作能力，還豐富學生的學問修養，有利於學生的個性發展。它的教育功能比傳統作文訓練更豐富而影響深遠，它的語言訓練比傳統作文訓練更廣泛而切合實用。可以說，「日知錄」訓練為我們提供了加強語言教學與訓練的一個模式。

在「日知錄」試驗過程中，筆者曾與同行交流、切磋，答覆過有關「日知錄」試驗操作的問題，現在整理出來，供大家參考，請予批評指教。

1. 「日知錄」是甚麼？
   ——「日知錄」是廣州五中語文科設計並實施的一個作文教學與訓練的方法。學生的作文本就叫《日知錄》。

2. 「日知錄」寫作訓練方法有甚麼特點？
——簡單、易行、有效。既便於教師施教，又便於學生自學。

3. 「日知錄」寫作的宗旨是甚麼？
——探索新知，積學長才。

4. 探索新知，積學長才的基本方法是甚麼？
——讀萬卷書，行萬里路。日知其所亡(無)，月無忘其所能。

5. 怎樣撰寫「日知錄」？
——撰寫「日知錄」的方法簡單而有趣：

(1) 採用22開軟皮或硬皮抄本，以便保存。

(2) 選一條自己準備奉行的格言或名人名言抄在扉頁上，以鞭策自己堅持探索新知，堅持撰寫「日知錄」。

(3) 留空數頁，準備日後寫序言、編目錄。每頁編上頁碼。總之，「日知錄」編成一本書的形成，這是反映自己成才歷程的「著作」。

(4) 每篇「日知錄」文章要寫上題目(「無題」也是題目)，寫上寫作日期和所花的時間，以便日後查閱、分析、修改、小結。

(5) 注意適當美化。可在標題或文後畫上花邊、圖案，或用不同字體增加美感，也可以剪貼，但注意適度和自然。

6. 「日知錄」寫作有沒有內容和形式的限制？
——沒有。學校、家庭、社會、道德、學問、能力、方法，數理化、文史地，古今中外，天南地北，大至宇宙恒星、小至原子分子，荒漠冰川之遙，手觸目接之近，凡能領悟其中蘊含的妙理而有所感觸者，都可寫在《日知錄》中。

三大文體，書信筆記、計劃總結、摘錄按語，乃至圖表、剪貼等形式都可以採用。

7. 「日知錄」是否規定每天寫一篇？
——不是。有內容、有體會，就寫；沒有內容、沒有靈感，可以不寫。我們追求的是經常寫，而不是天天寫。

8. 確寫不出「日知錄」怎麼辦？
——確實寫不出就不寫。可以寫上「今天寫不出」，「今天沒東西可寫」或「今天沒靈感」，以備將來研究自己寫作靈感及個性特點的參考。

9. 「日知錄」寫不出，要不要補寫？
——不要。補寫，不論是教師要求還是學生自律，都會造成心理負擔，會降低寫「日知錄」的興趣。

10. 確寫不出「日知錄」時，有甚麼辦法把「日知錄」寫作堅持下去？

——有。方法也很簡單：寫「摘錄．按語」。摘錄，是閱讀分析、篩選；按語，是創作。摘錄要註明出處，按語要自擬題目。

退一步，按語寫不出，只作摘錄也極有效。一可以拓闊視野，擴大積累；二可以鍛鍊意志，提高自信心；三可以學到做學問的基本功。此外，還附有其他「副產品」，如認真抄錄，能培養語感，練習書法；適當美化，能豐富藝術修養等。

11. 怎樣做「日知錄」小結？

——「日知錄」小結可以用表格形式（最好讓學生按自己擬定的目的要求設計），這裏提供一款參考。

「日知錄」小結（或「統計」）表

項目	課外閱讀		寫作	
	圖書	雜誌報紙	摘錄	文章
數量				
所用時間				
合計				
存在問題				
今後策略				

表中只要有一欄不是「0」，就顯示出自己的進行，就足以提高信心。

12. 「日知錄」要不要精批細改？

——「日知錄」不搞「精批細改」。批改的目的只在鼓勵學生的自信心，保持濃厚的興趣，把「日知錄」寫作堅持下去。

精批細改，大量時間花在批改上，延長了學生訓練作文的周期（目前作文一般是兩周一次）。這種本末倒置的做法，實質上變成教師「學」批改，而不是學生學作文，其結果是教師勞而無功，學生「兩周曬網，一天打魚」，得益甚少，也枯燥無味。事實上，大量「日知錄」文章像潮水般湧來，再有本領的教師也不能精批細改。與其浪費時間精批細改，妨碍學生經常練筆，不如放手讓學生多寫。

13. 「日知錄」批改的原則是甚麼？

——勤收，少改，多評。

勤收（不一定全收，可輪收），能督促學生堅持寫作，又能及時發現學生的進步或偏差，有針對性地給以鼓勵、引導。

少改，指每次只收四五本，每本可在瀏覽幾篇後挑選一二篇批改。批改要有針對性，評學生的思想學問的同時結合作文知識序列着重批改一二個問題(如錯別字、詞語、句式、修辭、章法、記人、敍事、寫景、議論、說明、觀察、分析、聯想、想像……)，不要面面俱到，更不要期望批改一次，學生便能領悟、掌握，企圖畢其功於一役是不切實際的。少改，給教師留有充分的時間思考，駕馭全局，正確引導。

多評，旨在提高學生的自信心，激發寫作興趣。因此，講評不僅評寫作技法，還要注意評道德學問和思想方法。講評的方法很多，可以堂上集中講評，也可以分散在講讀課中，聯繫語文課對某篇「日知錄」，或「日知錄」寫作某個優點、某個缺點適當的點撥，也可以讓學生互評。多評的「多」，可以是次數多，可以是評文多，但最要緊的是鼓勵多。

14. 「日知錄」是否要請家長評改？

——在某種條件下可以請家長評改。目的是讓家長看到其子弟的進步，了解「日知錄」訓練的作用，並給其子弟以鼓勵。但要注意：(1)事先徵得學生本人同意。(2)老師先對學生「日知錄」作適當介紹，肯定其努力。(3)千萬不能利用「日知錄」向家長告狀，或請家長代替教師批改文章。

請家長評改「日知錄」這個方法不可濫用，但用得恰當則有奇效。

15. 「日知錄」要不要給分？

——不用評分，也不可能準確評分。分數雖有一定鼓勵作用，但也包含不少消極因素。「日知錄」不用分數作鼓勵手段，而通過各種方式讓學生體會「日知錄」的作用，認識自身的價值，堅持撰寫「日知錄」。

16. 怎樣編「日知錄」板報？

——「日知錄」訓練節奏很快，每個班每天總有新意的「日知錄」習作。單靠講評也跟不上這種節奏。因此除了鼓勵學生互相交流「日知錄」之外，還應編輯出版「日知錄」板報。

「日知錄」板報完全交給學生編輯出版(可組織編輯小組，也可分組輪值)。教師當熱心的讀者，當然也有指導的責任。這樣可以培養學生獨立性、創造性。

具體方法是：

(1) 採用小黑板，貼上底紙。
(2) 刊頭、通欄、專欄標題、圖案等畫在硬卡紙上，並剪好，備出版之用。

(3) 小組長選出本組「日知錄」佳作二三篇。

(4) 負責劃版的同學把裁好的書寫紙交作者抄寫。

(5) 責任編輯把刊頭、專欄圖案和「日知錄」，習作按版面編排藍圖貼上或用圖釘釘好。

這種微型板報易編、易出版，能及時反映全班同學探索新知，積學長才的情況，是激勵撰寫「日知錄」的有力手段。

17. 怎樣進行「日知錄」寫作輔導？

——「日知錄」寫作輔導方法很多。堂上專題輔導依據教學大綱和教材，按讀書、觀察、表達的方法和要求來設計和編寫。有針對性地指導學生掌握探索新知提高思想修養和寫作能力的方法。注意不要光教寫文章的方法。

18. 「日知錄」與命題作文是否相抵觸？

——傳統命題作文的弊病是：(1) 束縛學生思想。(2) 訓練周期太長，與技能訓練規律相違背。因此費力多而收效少。近年無論是教學與考試對命題作文已作大的改革，採用材料作文為主。但是命題作文在適當時候作點訓練，對思維能力和寫作能力的培養還是有作用的，不應簡單地全盤否定。「日知錄」每篇文章都是命題作文，只是命題者是作者本人而不是教師。這就吸取了傳統命題作文的積極因素。在一定時候，教師出個題目讓學生寫「日知錄」以衡定其訓練成績，也是必要的。但仍然要堅持寫不出可以不寫，或寫一篇解釋自己寫不出的緣由的「日知錄」文章也可以。

因為「日知錄」本身已是自己命題的作文，所以目前規定的每二周一次大作文也就可以適當減少，以免造成學生過重的負擔。

從根本上說，「日知錄」訓練與命題作文並無抵觸。且更適應考試的要求。

19. 開展「日知錄」寫作試驗有甚麼條件限制？

——沒有。「日知錄」是促使學生在成才的目標指引下自覺實行並堅持多讀多寫的方法。教師可以運用這個方法去研究教育與教學問題而發展個人的教學特長，形成自己的風格。學生撰寫「日知錄」，不論其層次高低，必能取其才分之所當得，絕不致勞而無功。所以各層次學生都可以進行「日知錄」寫作訓練。

20. 進行「日知錄」寫作試驗要注意甚麼問題？

——要使「日知錄」寫作試驗得以順利進行，應注意：

(1) 轉變觀念(如甚麼是文章？寫文章的目的是甚麼？到底是誰學作文？精批細改有甚麼弊病？)首先是學生轉變觀念，同時要向領導和家長宣傳，以取得共識。

(2) 教師首先要從精批細改中解放出來，才能有充分時間思考、設計，駕馭全局，指導學生多寫。

(3) 堅持鼓勵為主，千方百計誘發興趣。

(4) 「日知錄」的批改與講評都應堅持「先道德而後文章」，調動非智力因素。

21. 「日知錄」試驗已取得哪些成果？

——「日知錄」試驗改變了傳統的作文觀念和作文訓練方法，把作文與成才的目標聯繫起來，突出了道德培養和學問探索的地位和作用，而把作文當作提高道德、學問修養的工具，這就正確解決了作文與做人的關係，真正體現作文的價值。學生寫「日知錄」時，着力於探索新知(包括道德與學問)，而不是應教師之命去作文，這就消除了畏難、厭倦心理。而一篇篇「日知錄」習作的積累，又顯示出學生努力進取的軌迹，提高了他們的自信心和興趣，便自然能把「日知錄」寫作堅持下去。由於文章觀念的拓展，「日知錄」沒有內容和形式的限制，學生便能通過各種題材和不同體裁的表達，獲得盡量廣泛的、切實的語言(各種各樣的詞語、句式和修辭技巧)的訓練。

簡言之，「日知錄」解決了促使學生自覺進行並堅持多讀多寫這個作文訓練的難題，同時提供了一個加強語言訓練的模式。

22. 「日知錄」試驗還有哪些值得探索的課題？

——作為讀寫訓練工具的「日知錄」，還有不少值得探索的課題。如：

(1) 怎樣安排訓練的合理序列？

(2) 寫作訓練序列與語言訓練序列的關係如何？二者如何結合(或穿插、統一)？

(3) 怎樣加強課外閱讀的指導，幫助中學生熟練掌握語言工具以探索新知？

(4) 怎樣運用「日知錄」發展學生的個性？

(5) 怎樣運用「日知錄」促進學生對其他學科的學習？又通過各科學習促進學生語言能力的進一步發展？

(6) 怎樣完善「日知錄」訓練，探討作文教學面向現代化的問題？

以上僅個人所見提出的課題，每位研究和試驗「日知錄」的教師還可以就自己的教學實踐提出新的課題。

八種常用工具書所用粵語羅馬拼音系統的比較

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1. 前言

1.1 漢字有形、音、義三個要素。一般人翻查字典、詞典等工具書，往往是因為碰到某個漢字（或詞語）而不知它的音、義，便查檢工具書，希望從中找到答案。字義（或詞義）可從字典（或詞典）的漢字解釋中獲得；至於讀音，一般人只靠同音字注音（即「直音」），如果同音的字也不懂，便束手無策了。字典的羅馬拼音及傳統反切，大家都說這是專家才懂的東西，很少人會花時間作較深入的探討。至於「執筆忘字」，更少人會利用粵語音序檢字法找出需用的漢字或詞語（正如懂普通話及漢語拼音，可以通過拼音字母序檢字）。在這資訊發達，講求效率的時代，這大大窒碍了中文的推廣和中文水平的提高。

1.2 本文嘗試比較八種常用工具書所用粵語羅馬拼音系統，說明粵語拼音並非想像中那麼困難。

2. 本文所用八種工具書

2.1 《粵音韻彙》重排本，黃錫凌著，中華書局香港分局出版，1987年（初版1941年）。

2.2 《辭淵》，施庸鑫、茅榮甫主編，華通公司出版，1986年（初版1948年），香港。

2.3 《中文字典》，喬硯農編著，香港華僑語文出版社，1984年（初版1963年）。

2.4 《同音字彙》，余秉昭司鐸著，光華圖書出版公司，1982年（初版1971年），香港。

2.5 《中華新字典》，中華書局香港分局出版，1986年（初版1976年）。

2.6 《李氏中文字典》，李卓敏編，香港中文大學出版社，1980年。

2.7 《廣州音字典》，饒秉才主編，廣東人民出版社，1983年，廣東。

2.8 《常用字廣州話讀音表》，香港教育署語文教育學院中文系編，何國祥主編，1992年修訂本（初版1990年）。

3. 羅馬拼音系統與國際音標系統

3.1 國際音標(International Phonetic Alphabets)為準確，因此用了許多特製音標符號；羅馬拼音要求便利，因此限定只用26個羅馬字母(如漢語拼音便用了26個字母［沒有用V，但加上ü符號］)。

3.2 國際音標是一套可以標注各種語言的拼音系統，語音間的細微差異也可用不同符號顯示，所以採用符號較多，其中有不少更是樣子古怪的符號。《李氏中文字典》，《中華新字典》和《粵音韻彙》的粵語拼音系統大部分採用國際音標，因此也有些特製符號如ɐ、ɛ、ɔ、ŋ等(另見下文4.2及5.1節)。

4. 聲母比較

以下就漢語傳統聲、韻、調角度比較第二節提及八種工具書所用粵語羅馬拼音系統的異同。本節先討論聲母符號。

表一　聲母比較表

廣州音字典 1983(1983)	李氏中文字典 1980(1980)	中華新字典 1986(1976)	同音字彙 1982(1971)	中文字典（喬） 1984(1963)	辭　淵 1986(1948)	粵音韻彙 1987(1941)	常用字廣州話讀音表 1992(1990)	國際音標及例字	
					①				
b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	[p]	玻
p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	[pʻ]	抛
m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	[m]	摩
f	f	f	f	f	f	f	f	[f]	科
d	d	d	d	d	d	d	d	[t]	多
t	t	t	t	t	t	t	t	[tʻ]	拖
n	n	n	n	n	n	n	n	[n]	你
l	l	l	l	l	l	l	l	[l]	李
z(j)	dz	dz	dz	z	z	dz(dz_2)	dz	[tʃ]	支
c(q)	ts	ts	ts	ts	ts	ts(ts_2)	ts	[tʃʻ]	雌
s(x)	s	s	s	s	s	s(s_2)	s	[ʃ]	思
y	j	j	j	j	j	j	j	[j]	衣
g	g	g	g	g	g	g	g	[k]	家
k	k	k	k	k	k	k	k	[kʻ]	卡
h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	[h]	蝦
ng	ŋ	ŋ	ng	ng	ng	ŋ	ng	[ŋ]	牙
gu	gw	gw	gw	gw	gw	gw	gw	[kw]	瓜
ku	kw	kw	kw	kw	kw	kw	kw	[kʻw]	誇
w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	[w]	蛙

4.1 綜覽表一聲母比較表，19個聲母中(不算零聲母)，以下12個拉丁字母均為各系統採用：

脣音：b、p、m、f
舌尖音：d、t、n、l
舌根音：g、k
喉音：h
圓脣音：w(或稱半元音)

4.2 《李氏中文字典》、《中華新字典》及《粵音韻彙》所用羅馬拼音系統以國際音標為主，因此仍用[ŋ]而不用拉丁字母ng；《廣州音字典》採用「廣州音拼音方案」，用gu、ku表示其他系統的圓脣音gw、kw。這些符號均屬近似，毋須強記。

4.3 各系統採用的聲母符號中，差異較大的為舌面音。八種工具書中，有五種採用dz、ts、s、j，相當於國際音標的[ʧ]、[ʧʻ]、[ʃ]、[j]；《中文字典》和《辭淵》則只用z表示塞擦音[ʧ]。《粵音韻彙》分dz、ts、s和dz_2、ts_2、s_2兩組，目的是給學習普通話的人做參考：凡有小號數字2的字，在普通話讀作翹舌音[2](即漢語拼音的zh、ch、sh)。兩組讀音在粵語是完全一樣的。要留意的是《廣州音字典》的「廣州話拼音系統」也採用j、q、x和z、c、s兩套舌面音符號，目的是為了使廣州話注音與普通話注音在形式上接近，便於互學，出現在i、ü[y]兩個元音之前的用j、q、x，出現在其他元音之前的用z、c、s。[3]此外，半元音[j]也仿效漢語拼音用y表示。

5. 韻母比較

本節比較八種工具書粵語韻母系統所用拉丁字母或符號的異同。

1420

表二　韻母比較表

廣州音字典 1983(1983)	李氏中文字典 1980(1980)	中華新字典 1986(1976)	同音字彙 1982(1971)	中文字典（喬）1984(1963)	辭淵 1986(1948)	粵音韻彙 1987(1941)	常用字廣州話讀音表 1992(1990)	國際音標及例字	
④					①				
a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	[a]	椏
ai	ai	ai	aai	ai	ai	ai	aai	[ai]	挨
ao	au	au	aau	ao	ao	au	aau	[au]	坳
am	am	am	aam	am	am	am	aam	[am]	三
an	an	an	aan	an	an	an	aan	[an]	翻
ang	aŋ	aŋ	aang	ang	ang	aŋ	aang	[aŋ]	盲
ab	ap	ap	aap	ap	ap	ap	aap	[ap]	鴨
ad	at	at	aat	at	at	at	aat	[at]	壓
ag	ak	ak	aak	ak	ak	ak	aak	[ak]	軛
ei	ɐi	ɐi	ai ④	ae	ae	ɐi	ai	[ɐi]	哎
eo	ɐu	ɐu	au	au	au	ɐu	au	[ɐu]	歐
em	ɐm	ɐm	am	em	em	ɐm	am	[ɐm]	庵
en	ɐn	ɐn	an	en	en	ɐn	an	[ɐn]	分
eng	ɐŋ	ɐŋ	ang	eng	eng	ɐŋ	ang	[ɐŋ]	盟
eb	ɐp	ɐp	ap	ep	ep	ɐp	ap	[ɐp]	急
ed	ɐt	ɐt	at	et	et	ɐt	at	[ɐt]	不
eg	ɐk	ɐk	ak	ek	ek	ɐk	ak	[ɐk]	厄
é	ɛ	ɛ	e	e	e	ɛ	e	[ɛ]	爹
éi	ei	ei	ei	ei	ei	ei	ei	[ei]	你
éng	ɛŋ	ɛŋ	eng	eing	eing	ɛŋ	eng	[ɛŋ]	餅
ég	ɛk	ɛk	ek	eik	eik	ɛk	ek	[ɛk]	尺

廣州音字典 1983(1983)	李氏中文字典 1980(1980)	中華新字典 1986(1976)	同音字彙 1982(1971)	中文字典 (喬) 1984(1963)	辭　淵 1986(1948)	粵音韻彙 1987(1941)	常用字廣州話讀音表 1992(1990)	國際音標及例字	
è	œ	œ	oe	oe	oe	œ	oe	[œ]	靴
èu	œy	œy	oey	ey	ey	œy	oey	[φy]	居
èn	œn	œn	oen	oen	oen	œn	oen	[φn]	津
èng	œŋ	œŋ	oeng	oeng	oeng	œŋ	oeng	[œŋ]	香
èd	œt	œt	oet	oet	oet	œt	oet	[φt]	卒
èg	œk	œk	oek	oek	oek	œk	oek	[œk]	響
o	ɔ	ɔ	o	o	o	ɔ	o	[ɔ]	柯
oi	ɔi	ɔi	oi	oi	oi	ɔi	oi	[ɔi]	愛
ou	ou	ou	ou	ou	ou	ou	ou	[ou]	澳
on	ɔn	ɔn	on	on	on	ɔn	on	[ɔn]	安
ong	ɔŋ	ɔŋ	ong	ong	ong	ɔŋ	ong	[ɔŋ]	喪
od	ɔt	ɔt	ot	ot	ot	ɔt	ot	[ɔt]	渴
og	ɔk	ɔk	ok	ok	ok	ɔk	ok	[ɔk]	惡
i	i	i	i	i	i	i	i	[i]	衣
iu	iu	iu	iu	iu	iu	iu	iu	[iu]	腰
im	im	im	im	im	im	im	im	[im]	艷
in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	[in]	燕
ing	iŋ	iŋ	ing	ing	ing	iŋ	ing	[Iŋ]	英
ib	ip	ip	ip	ip	ip	ip	ip	[ip]	葉
id	it	it	it	it	it	it	it	[it]	熱
ig	ik	ik	ik	ik	ik	ik	ik	[Ik]	適

廣州音字典 1983(1983)	李氏中文字典 1980(1980)	中華新字典 1986(1976)	同音字彙 1982(1971)	中文字典（喬） 1984(1963)	辭　淵 1986(1948)	粵音韻彙 1987(1941)	常用字廣州話讀音表 1992(1990)	國際音標及例字	
u	u	u	u	u	u	u	u	[u]	烏
ui	ui	ui	ui	ui	ui	ui	ui	[ui]	杯
un	un	un	un	un	un	un	un	[un]	碗
ung	uŋ	uŋ	ung	ung	ung	uŋ	ung	[Uŋ]	甕
ud	ut	ut	ut	ut	ut	ut	ut	[ut]	闊
ug	uk	uk	uk	uk	uk	uk	uk	[Uk]	屋
ü	y	y	y	y	y	y	y	[y]	於
ün	yn	yn	yn	yn	yn	yn	yn	[yn]	冤
üd	yt	yt	yt	yt	yt	yt	yt	[yt]	月
m	m	m	m	m	/	m	m	[m]	唔
ng	ŋ	ŋ	ng	ng	ng	ŋ	ng	[ŋ]	吳

5.1 相對於聲母而言，各系統採用的粵語韻母符號歧異比較大。採用國際音標的工具書有《李氏中文字典》、《中華新字典》和《粵音韻彙》。為方便使用，[ø][œ]均用œ；[i][ɪ]均用i；[u][ʊ]均用u。

5.2 因為普通英文打字機鍵盤沒有[ɐ]、[œ]及[ε]，電腦也不懂閱讀這些符號，因此在國際音標系統基礎上再進一步修改的有《同音字彙》和《常用字廣州話讀音表》：用aa表示長[a]（除沒有韻尾的[a]仍用單a外）；單a表示短[ɐ]（《同音字彙》採用草體ɑ）；[ε]改用e；[œ]則分寫作oe；[ɔ]、[o]均用o；[ŋ]作ng。這樣，所有韻母符號都可用一般打字機或電腦鍵盤處理，而《讀音表》也因此可以採用電腦編印粵語音序索引⑤。

5.3 《中文字典》及《辭淵》採用同一系統，用單a表示長[a]；長[a]韻母中，[ai][au]用ai、ao表示；短[ɐ]的[ɐi][ɐu]則用ae、au表示；其他短[ɐ]韻母則改用e符號。為免eng[ɐŋ]、ek[ɐk]與[εŋ]、[εk]二韻混淆，二韻中間另加-i-，變成eing、eik；此外，[œy]寫作ey；其他各組韻母（包括o、i、u、y各組）則與國際音標相同。這個粵語拼音系統較為複雜，而且長短a韻母符號與一般慣用者不同，是要花點時間才能熟習。

5.4 《廣州音字典》採用的「廣州話拼音系統」是另一個與國際音標距離較遠的羅馬拼音系統。為了與專用以拼寫普通話的漢語拼音在形式上接近⑥，與普通話音近的粵語韻母儘可能採用與漢語拼音相同的符號表示，如：

漢語拼音			*廣州話拼音*		
ɑ	[a]	啊	ɑ	[a]	啊
ɑi	[ai]	挨	ɑi	[ai]	挨
ɑo	[au]	凹	ɑo	[au]	凹
ɑn	[an]	翻	ɑn	[an]	翻
ɑng	[aŋ]	盲	ɑng	[aŋ]	盲
en	[ən]	分	en	[ɐn]	分
eng	[əŋ]	罌	eng	[ɐŋ]	罌
o	[o]	哦	o	[ɔ]	哦
ou	[ou]	歐	ou	[ou]	澳
i	[i]	衣	i	[i]	衣
-iu	[-i^{o}u]	休	iu	[iu]	燒
in	[in]	因	in	[in]	煙
ing	[iŋ]	英	ing	[iŋ]	英
u	[u]	烏	u	[u]	烏
-ui	[-u^{e}i]	歸	ui	[ui]	杯
ü	[y]	於	ü	[y]	於
ün	[yn]	暈	ün	[yn]	冤

跟漢語拼音形式相同但音值差異大的有e、é、ê三個主要元音及有關韻母，分別表示國際音標的[ɐ]、[ε]和[œ]，這是特別要注意的。至於入聲韻的韻尾-p、-t、-k改用-b、-d、-g也是這系統的另一大特色。

6. 聲調比較

表三　聲調比較表

廣州音字典 1983(1983)	李氏中文字典 1980(1980)	中華新字典 1986(1976)	同音字彙 1982(1971)	中文字典（喬） 1984(1963)	辭　淵 1986(1948)	粵音辭彙 1987(1941)	常用字廣州話讀音表 1992(1990)	國際音標及例字
1	1	1	上平	1	1	¹X	1	˥55.˥˧53 分
2	2	2	上上	2	2	ˊX	2	˧˥35 粉
3	3	3	上去	3	3	¯X	3	˧33 訓
4	4	4	下平	4	4	₁X	4	˨˩21 焚
5	5	5	下上	5	5	ˏX	5	˩˧13 憤
6	6	6	下去	6	6	_X	6	˨22 份
1	1	7	上入	7	7	¹X	7	˥5 忽
3	3	8	中入	8	8	¯X	8	˧3 發
6	6	9	下入	9	9	_X	9	˨2 佛

6.1 八種工具書中有六種採用阿拉伯數字表示不同的聲調。《中華新字典》、《中文字典》、《辭淵》及《常用字廣州話讀音表》用1至9表示連入聲在內的九個聲調，即《同音字彙》所用的上平、上上、上去、下平、下上、下去、上入、中入、下入。上入、中入和下入三個入聲調的調值分別與上平、上去和下去相同(見表三)，只是較短，因此，《廣州音字典》和《李氏中文字典》中的三個入聲調仍分別用數字1、3、6顯示。

6.2 《粵音韻彙》的聲調符號系統則比較特別，在漢字左上角用直線、斜線、橫線分別表示上平、上上和上去調。這三個線狀符號在漢字左下角則分別顯示下平、下上、下去；而三個入聲調仍用上平、上去及下去符號表示(見表三)。

7. 如何引導港人利用已有的粵語羅馬拼音知識學習粵語羅馬拼音系統

7.1 我們香港人對粵語羅馬拼音概念應該不會感到陌生，電話簿有「廣州話拼音檢字表」可以說明這一點。事實上，如果要我們把「何國祥」、「陳大文」、「藍田」、「油蔴地」音譯成英文，我們會不假思索地寫出「Ho Kwok Cheung」、「Chan Tai Man」、「Lam Tin」、「Yau Ma Tei」等「粵語羅馬拼音」。利用這些音譯已有知識(以下稱「音譯」)，可以嘗試引導香港人掌握一套完整的粵語羅馬拼音系統。如果以《常用字廣州話讀音表》所用粵音系統為目標，要注意的地方有：

7.2 聲母：注意送氣音和不送氣音的分別。「音譯」一般用ch和ts，但往往混用(如「占」作Chim，「尖」又作tsim)；g、k「音譯」都用k；d、t多用t。此外，還要留意「音譯」用近似英文的y，而《讀音表》用j。

7.3 韻母：注意長短a(或前後a)，「音譯」一般不分，如「快」faai、肺fai「音譯」均作fai，「疇」tsau、「巢」tsaau均作chau。oe相當於「音譯」的eu或un，如「祥」tsoeng作cheung，「春」tsoen作chun。yu相當於「音譯」的uen，如「全」tsyn作chuen。yt相當於「音譯」的uet，如「雪」作suet。

7.4 明白上述差異後，再作整體學習，當會事半功倍，語音專家的專利品就如探囊取物了。

7.5 聲調方面，對從未接受語音訓練的人來說，這確是完全陌生的。如要準確視讀聲調符號，最簡單的方法是接受數調訓練，如「分、粉、訓、焚、憤、份、忽、發、佛」這也說明為什麼大部分工具書的粵語羅馬拼音系統均用數字標調的原因。

7.6 如果教師能利用一點點時間，指導學生學習粵語羅馬拼音系統，這對學生學習中文的興趣及對中文水平的提高，一定會有顯著的功效。

附註：

① 原書並無說明所用粵音符號系統，本表所列為編者根據書中注音歸納所得，大致與《中文字典》(喬)所用的粵音符號系統相同。

② 《粵音韻彙》重排本，黃錫凌著，中華書局，1989年，頁66。

③ 《廣州話方言詞典》，饒秉才，歐陽覺亞，周無忌編著，商務印書館香港分館，1981年12月初版，頁268。

④ 為方便打字，這裏用「a」代替「ɑ」，用「g」代替「ɡ」，「œ」分寫作「oe」。

⑤ 《常用字廣州話讀音表》，香港教育署語文教育學院中文系編，何國祥主編，1992修訂本，頁285至318。

⑥ 同註③。

職前與在職教師培訓的關係

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0. 本文探討對象是語文教師的職前與在職培訓的關係。作為短期的業務培訓，兩者的目標有所不同：前者強化的內容在「攝入」，後者強化的內容在「釋出」。但兩者並非絕無關聯，它們共同組成作為合格教師語文素質的兩個方面，因而都屬於語文教育的內涵。

1. 釋語文

1.1 在中國，「語文」是一個差不多人人都熟悉的常用詞。可是，它的含義是甚麼，就未必人人都能回答得出，更不用說回答得正確了。人們常常這樣釋說它的意思：語文即語言和文字，或者語文即語言和文學，似乎語文二字正是由相應的兩個詞綜合、縮略而來。

但文字是把語言變為可見形式的一個符號系統，它從屬於語言，而不可能是一種可以與語言並列的東西。文學則又是以語言為工具或材料的藝術創造，或者是這種藝術創造的作品，它之不能與語言並列而成為「語文」，也是很明顯的。自然，語文一詞的形成可以跟語言與文字或者語言與文學沒有字面上的關聯，而事實上被賦予了相應的綜合二者的含義，但這很難得到詞源學上的有說服力的證明。

我們認為，瞭解語文一詞的真正內涵，須從它的實用性着眼。語文的實用性，不僅是人們在掌握了一定數量的語言建築材料單位——詞(word)——之後，按照漢語的語法規律自由造意；還須是對於漢語所服務社會的文化達到相當程度的瞭解，而後用語言去表現，去解釋，去交流。這種栽入了文化成分的語言，或許便是我們所說的語文。

1.2 西方有所謂「語文學」(philology)，是比較語言學的術語，專門用來指根據文學作品和書面文獻的研究所進行的歷史語言分析，所以在內涵上與漢語沒有關係。在英語詞典裏找不到一個可以與漢語的語文相對應的詞。北京的語言學院，譯成英語時叫做Language College；香港的語文教育學院，譯成英語時叫做Institute of Language in Education。在這裏，語文等於語言。作為中國人，我們總覺得把語文和語言譯成英語時應當保持它們的某些區別。如果沒有區別，那麼，要是我們說「語文教育學院講的是語文

而不是語言」，改用英語表述後，就不僅不合邏輯，而且也違反了事實。前面我們說過，語文是載入了文化成分的語言，它是以語言為主體的。我們大膽地給英語創造一個新詞：Cul-language，用它來對稱漢語的「語文」。

2. 語文教師的職前培訓與在職培訓

2.1 語文教師的培訓，其主要目的自然在於強化語文教育，使培訓對象提高語文素質以便更好地適應語文教學。通過前面我們對語文的內涵所作的分析，可以看出，這種培訓不應該是純語言的，其中包含了以語言為載體的文化內容。

結合於語言的文化內容，自然不等同於某個語言社會的全部文化。就語文教育而言，首先應當考慮的，是隨同語言自身的發展、變化而融入語言詞彙單位的那一部分文化內容。遣詞而造意，人們在通過語言進行思想交流時所注入的文化內容，范圍上更廣，程度上更深。但它並不屬於語言，而是人們運用語言的產物，語言學上稱之為言語或言語作品。言語所承載的文化，表現不同個人的不同的文化素質，因此不可能被納入語文教育的目標之內。

2.2 職前語文培訓的目的，在於使受教育者的語文素質提高到合格的水平上來。在這裏，第一位的工作，無疑當是進行語言規範的教育，即在不同的層次上強化受教育者的語音、詞彙、語法等方面的純語言知識。這是一個方面的工作。另一方面，則須着重考慮融於語言詞彙單位的文化內容的教育。

語言的詞彙單位，按照我們的理解，不止包括詞，還當包括英美人稱之為idiom的習用語單位，它們是詞的等價物。特別是這些習用語，由於其中注入了形形色色的文化內容，常常使得域外甚至本族人大惑不解。譬如漢語的「胸有成竹」，如果缺乏對其所由產生的背景的瞭解，就很難正確掌握它的真實含義。英語也是如此。譬如，to have an axe to grind，之所以表現了「另有企圖」這樣的含義，也當有其特定的產生背景。這種不形諸字面而又有礙理解的東西，其實就屬於載入語言的文化內容，應當同純語言知識一樣，一並納入語文教育。以全面提高語文素質為目標的職前培訓，不可忽視語言文化內容的知識增進，它是達成合格的語文教師的必要的準備。

在職語文培訓，其目標自然也不外乎造就合格的語文教師，但其着重點卻並不僅僅在於提高語文教師的語言素質，而還在於改進他們的教學方法，即通過培訓而使培訓對象學會針對不同類型的學生對象進行有效的教學。後者，對於相當數量的在職語文教師而言，甚或成為全部培訓過程的主要目標。在一般情況下，在職語文教師因為具有年齡、閱歷、學識等方

面的相對優勢，其對語言的社會文化背景的瞭解程度，往往是職前培訓對象所不及的。

教學方法的培訓，作為語文教師培訓的一項內容，其價值絕不可稍有低估。就筆者所見聞，許多在職教師，其不能勝任工作而必須對他們進行培訓，不是因為缺乏足夠的語言知識——這裏，我們不討論因為缺乏責任心、對工作敷衍其事那類屬於道德品質不合格的特殊情況——，而恰恰就是因為不懂得教學規律和沒有掌握一套行之有效的教學方法。我們說，在職語文教師培訓的意義在「釋出」，主要就是指教學方法的培訓而言的。

但是，所謂教學方法，不是一種一成不變的死程式；它集中地表現為對語文知識的積極而生動的表述，這種表述使得教師和學生在語文知識的範疇裏最大限度地溝通起來，並把儲存於教師一方的知識內容順暢自然地傳輸到學生那裏。從這個意義看來，教學方法的培訓當然也就並非在職語文教師的培訓所獨，職前語文教師的培訓雖不側重於此，但顯然也是不可或缺的。

3. 語文知識表述的培訓

3.0 一般說，表述是任何一位語文教師都必須具備的素質。這種表述，不應單純地理解為口頭表達。在這裏，我們給表述一詞賦予特殊的含義，指語文教師把所待傳授的語文知識以他所可以做到的方式，準確、簡潔地傳達給學生。因此，在表述的全部含義裏，包括了語文教師的全部教學手段，諸如板書提示、課堂練習、口頭或書面測試等等。

3.1 表述之所以作為在職語文教師培訓的一項主要內容，是因為通常情況下，考核在職教師往往以教學效果為依據，而評估教學效果又往往特別強調教學方法。

自然，教學方法，或稱表述，也有水平上的高下之分。好的語文教師，不會出現類似「左是右的反面」「右是左的反面」這種左右互訓而其實等於沒有解釋的笑話，他會盡可能做到，把需要準確釋義的詞語毫不含糊地解釋出來，而又能把意思比較模糊的概念，放在他為學生設計好的空間聯想的適當位置。這樣看來，表述與知識之間並不能截然分開。一個語文教師，當他所具備的知識與表述能力有機地融為一體的時候，無疑他已達到了水平的上乘。

3.2 職前培訓，原是對一些尚未走上崗位的語文教師進行知識上的強化教育。雖然也不排除對他們進行教學方法方面的灌輸，但無疑那只是空中樓閣，在他們的心目中若明若暗，而不會有深切的體會。所以，在我們看來，職前培訓的目標是「攝入」，即盡可能地使培訓對象掌握盡可能多的知識；而選擇適當時機，對在職語文教師進行表述能力的訓練、指導，即培

養他們把知識傳輸給學生——釋出——的能力，則是在職培訓的題中應有之義。

3.3　要是把職前培訓和在職培訓聯繫起來看，可以認為，兩者共同組成培養語文教師的全過程。前者為基礎性培訓，目標是使培訓對象攝入足夠的語文知識；後者是提高性培訓，目標在於加強培訓對象的教學方法即表述能力的培養，以保證其語文知識的有效釋出，從而最終達成語文教師素質的合格化。

義務教育初中語文教學大綱的幾個重要問題

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《義務教育全日制初中語文教學大綱》，經審查通過，即將頒布實行。

這個《大綱》簡明扼要，實事求是，教師、專家認為是好的。

以下就幾個比較重要的問題，談點個人的理解。

認識語文是基礎工具

《大綱》開宗明義，指出：「語文是學習和工作的基礎工具。」明確肯定語文的性質。這個性質不是別的，而是「基礎工具」。什麼是基礎工具呢？

先說基礎。大綱說：「學好語文，不但對於學好其他學科十分必要，而且對於將來從事工作和繼續學習會產生深遠的影響。」換句話說，就是：語文既是學生學習各門學科的基礎，又是他們走出校門，從事工作和繼續學習的基礎。

普通中學教育，是基礎教育；各門功課都是基礎課程，而語文則是基礎的基礎。有的學者認為，知識有三層樓，最高一層是專業知識，第二層是一般文化科學知識，最底一層就是語文。這個比喻非常形象生動，非常深刻。蓋高樓大廈，先要打好地基。學生要成為國家棟樑之材，先要學好語文；即便是做普通工作，如果沒有一定的語文基礎，也會遇到許多困難的。

再說工具。語言是思維的工具，交際的工具，或者說是傳遞信息的工具。語文，口頭說出來的是語，寫下來的是文。過去，語文課本稱「語文」或「國語」。「語文」這個名稱，是建國後確定的。1951年使用的語文課本的《编輯大意》指出：「說出來的是語言，寫出來的是文章，文章依據語言，「語」和「文」是分不開的。語文教學應該包括聽話、說話、閱讀、寫作四項。這套課本不用「國文」或「國語」的舊名稱，改稱「語文課本」。」

語文教學，主要是語言教學。學習語言，一要向大眾學，二要向古今作品學，三要向外民族學。口頭語言要學，書面語言要學。語文教學的任務，就是指導學生掌握語文這個工具。

但是，語文工具要比生產工具複雜得多。當人們運用語文工具的時候，就不單純是運用語言的問題，必然要牽涉到思想意識，文化傳統等因

素。從這個意義上說，語文工具是有思想性的。就字詞句篇等語言材料來說，有語言形式和思想內容統一的問題；就讀寫聽講等語文教學活動來說，有語文訓練和思想教育相輔相成的問題。過去很長時期，關於語文的工具性和思想性的關係，我們在認識上，表述上，實踐上，搖擺幅度很大，總體看是「左」，曾給語文教學帶來嚴重損失，是個教訓。

1963年制訂的中學語文教學大綱，趕上平和的政治氛圍，提出了語文的工具性，但後來沒有很好貫徹。現在大綱再次明確肯定語文是基礎工具，在強調語文訓練的同時，重視思想教育，而且特別注意正確處理二者的關係：

> 正確處理語文訓練和思想教育的關係。語文訓練和思想教育是統一的，相輔相成的。要因文解道，因道悟文，引導學生通過語言文字正確理解課文的思想內容，又在領會思想內容的基礎上，加深對語言文字的理解，收到語文數學應有的效果。

從這段話裏可以看出，由於認識明確了，表述也就更加準確。相信會在教學實踐中取得良好的效果。這是語文界的進步，時代的進步。

正確理解和選用祖國的語言文字

初中階段，怎樣才算掌握語文工具呢？《大綱》說：「在小學語文教學的基礎上，指導學生正確理解和運用祖國的語言文字」。這是初中語文教學的根本目的，也可以看作總體目標。離開這個目標，到其他地方去游走，開設語文課就失去了意義。

一、「理解和運用」。理解，是在讀和聽中吸收，是信息輸入；運用，是通過寫和說來表達，是信息輸出。理解和運用語言文字，就是使學生「具有基本的閱讀、寫作、聽話、說話的能力」。如果要進一步問，什麼叫「基本的」？大綱「教學要求」中提出的各項要求，就是基本的。比如，「說話能力」的要求是：「說普通話。問答交談，講述見聞，介紹事物，發表意見，做到語音清晰，意思明白，條理清楚，態度自然。」其中，說話訓練的範圍、要求，都有所規定。要求不算高，但要真正做到卻不容易，需要認真訓練。

這裏有兩點要說明一下。一是「閱讀能力」這個項目中，要求「具有一定的語言感受能力」。語感，是對語言的直接感受，要求快速敏捷。這種能力非常重要，要重視培養，但不是短時能奏效的，需要在語文實踐中長期積累，需要有一個從直接感受到理性認識再到直接感受的過程，才能通悟，才能運用自如。前一個「感受」層次比較低，後一個「感受」卻升華了。常常有這種情況：有的文章不通，竟然往外拋，或以之示人，或付諸鉛印，而作者自我感覺良好。為什麼這樣？因為作者語感不強，又不懂一點語法，

其文不通而感覺不出來。二是「寫作能力」項目中，要求「能寫記敍文、簡單的說明文、議論文和一般應用文」。「簡單」一說，從前同是用來限制「記敍文」的，現在後移了，只限制說明文和議論文。這是為了突出記敍文的培養。對寫作記敍文的要求，比過去有所提高。

這需要說明一點，「初步具有欣賞文學作品的能力」，這是新增加的教學要求。文學作品具有認識、教育、警世、娛樂作用，而且作用於人的思想感情，感染力很強，對於學生的全面發展會產生深遠的影响。教學中，要通過體會作品的語言、形象、感情，指導學生欣賞作品，辨別真假、善惡、美醜，逐步提高欣賞能力，培養健康高尚的審美情趣。

二、「在小學語文教學的基礎上」，說的是，初中語文教學不是從零開始的，要注意與小學階段銜接。銜接問題，目前缺乏深入研究，有關表述比較原則、籠統。只有擴大識字量一項具體，要求「在小學的基礎上，達到3 500個字」。小學要求認識3 000個字，掌握2 500個。初中說的3 500個字，是根據國家語委公布的常用字、次常用字提出來的。至於詞匯、句式、篇章等問題，就難於量化。詞匯可以量化，但還缺乏科學的統計。句式、篇章則不便量化。所以都沒有作出具體規定，只在文字表述上，注意與小學有所銜接。

初中語文教學，特別是在初一年級，教師應瞻前顧後，注意搞好銜接，了解一下小學語文的教學情況，從學生的實際出發，既要考慮填平補齊，又要避免重複勞動。埋怨小學階段「欠賬」，埋怨小學生基礎差，不是解決問題的辦法。

憑借課文進行語文訓練

《大綱》關於「教學內容」這一章，有四項內容：課文，能力訓練，基礎知識，課外活動。其中把課文列為首位，表示重視，認為「指導學生學習課文，是語文課堂教學的主要內容。傳授知識，訓練語文能力，進行思想教育，培養審美情趣，主要以課文作為憑借。」語文能力從語文實踐中來，因此，必須指導學生進行語文訓練。要訓練，要舉一反三，就得有憑借或依託。架空訓練是不成的。

一、課文。葉聖陶先生說，課文無非是個例。我想，當然可以用這樣那樣的例，但課文是經過挑選的文質兼備的好例子，是沒有疑問的。大綱規定的選文標準，可以概括為三條。1. 思想內容好，即「內容要有助於增強學生熱愛祖國的感情，……」；2. 語言文字好，即「語言文字要合乎規範，在用詞、造句、布局、謀篇等方面具有典範性」；3. 適合教學，即「課文要難易適度，適合教學，……」。前二者應用的，是語言形式與思想內容統一的尺度，後者應用的是教育心理的尺度。

《大綱》規定的108篇(按篇數計而不是按課數計)基本課文，是各種初中語文課本的基本課文。數量比原來有所減少。又規定初中階段課文總數不少於180篇，這是個下限。說明對基本課文之外的課文也很重視。理所當然，基本課文是要學好的，但這還不夠，其他課文也要學好，主要是指導學生自學。沒有相當的閱讀量，根本不行。如果認為其他課文不考試，就可以不好好學了，如此近視，是學不好語文的。

二、能力訓練。《大綱》規定的「能力訓練」項目，就讀、寫、聽、說諸方面，從內容到方法，從整體到局部，共有48項之多。全面而具體，可操作性強，比過去前進了一步。所排列的順序，不是教學順序，應當靈活運用。進行單項訓練或是綜合訓練，可視教學需要而定。教學中要把握住基本內容，但不應搞一刀切。因為語文學科的綜合性很強，模糊性、可塑性也很大，難於作定量分析。況且課文營養很豐富，而學生基礎不一，生活經驗有別，上一堂語文課，有的得此，有的得彼，有的吸取多一些，有的吸取少一些，是很正常的事，完全符合學習語文的規律。教師的種種努力，在於指導基礎較差的學生有所得，掌握最基本的東西，又讓基礎較好的學生充分發揮聰明才智，學到更多的東西。

三、課外活動。語文課外活動是語文教學的組成部分。開展課外活動，也是在進行語文訓練。課外活動可以和課堂教學適當配合，但不必時時處處配合，要讓學生學得輕鬆一些，興味濃一些，使之生動活潑得到發展。

根據新的課程教學計畫，課外活動第一次納入教學內容，還缺乏經驗，有待廣大師生大膽創造。

養成學習語文的良好習慣

一個好習慣，能造就一個人；一個壞習慣，可以毀掉一個人。習慣成自然，習慣成了人的思想行為的一部分之後，就很難更易。學習語文是個慢功，着急不得，突擊不成，就像收獲橡膠，要一點一滴積累，到了一定程度之後，才能通悟。因此，《大綱》強調「養成學習語文的良好習慣」，至關重要。大綱就讀、寫、聽、說方面，提出的具體習慣有：讀書看報習慣，修改文章習慣，專心聽話習慣，有禮貌說話習慣等。這些習慣的養成，不是朝夕功夫，不是一般號召一下、強調幾次就能辦到的，要經過長期訓練、反復糾正，才能見成效，才能成為自自然然的行為素養。

《大綱》重視扎扎實實的打好語文基礎，提出：「字要規規距距的寫，話要清清楚楚的說，課文要仔仔細細的讀，練習要踏踏實實的做，作文要認認真真的完成。」這是妙語。話聽來平常，實際深刻；看似不難，其實要

花大力氣才能做到。教學中，一定要嚴格要求，認真落實，堅持下來，使之成為習慣。

語文能力和語文習慣是什麼關係呢？呂叔湘先生的一席話非常精彩。他說：

> 使用語文是一種技能，跟游泳、打乒乓球等等技能沒有什麼不同的性質，不過語文活動的生理機制比游泳、打乒乓球等活動更複雜罷了。任何技能都必須具備兩個特點，一是正確，二是熟練。不正確就不能獲得所要求的效果，不成其為技能。不熟練，也就是說，有時候正確，有時候不正確，或者雖然正確，可是反應太慢，落後於時機，那也不成其為技能。從某種意義上說，語言以及一切技能都是一種習慣。凡是習慣都是通過多次反復的實踐養成的。

習慣是通過實踐養成的，知之者不乏其人。語文能力是一種習慣，知道的人恐怕就不多了。

論漢語文教師的職前培養和職後進修

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我從事中學漢語文教師的培養教育工作已三十五年，職前培養和職後進修都擔當過，積累不少經驗，深知其中甘苦。現將職前培養與職後進修各自的特點，相互的關係以及教育的任務、內容、方法、考察等，分述於後，求教於海內外方家。

在中國大陸，漢語文教育實質是母語教育。中國雖有五十六個民族，漢族卻是主體；各少數民族雖有自己的語言乃至文字，但在祖國大家庭的共同生活中，一向以漢語為日常交際語言。在漢語流通的廣大區域內，雖有吳語、閩語、粵語等諸多方言，但只是語音不同，文字、詞彙、語法等等基本上一致，書面語完全相同。漢語早已成為中華民族的共同語言；漢語文教育對中國人來說，就是母語教育。

西方各種語系都是拼音文字，只要掌握字母和拼音規則，一般能說就能寫。母語教學不需很多時間就能奏效。漢語則不然。第一、漢字是表意文字，需要一字一字地認，明瞭其形、音、意才算認準漢字；而一般需認三千五百漢字才能應付社會生活之需要，所以識字過程很長，乃致大學生也還需識字。第二、漢語一直存在言文不一致現像。古代文言文和口語完全脫節，現代白話文也不是口語實錄，而是從口語中提煉出來的規範化書面語。因而就必須進行系統的規範化語言的教育和訓練。基於上述原因，中國大陸的漢語文教育，從小學到中學都把語文列為基礎學科，總計約需2 700多課時才能完成漢語文教育任務。傳統的漢語文教育，通常是用一年半到兩年的時間集中識字（識兩千多漢字），然後便選取範文講讀，大約需讀各種體裁的範文七百多篇，從中進行閱讀和寫作訓練，結合範文傳授語言知識、文學知識、寫作知識和邏輯知識，以助提高學生之讀寫水平。

中小學漢語文教育狀況，是確定中學漢語文教師培養目標和教學計劃的根據。第一、中小學漢語文教育是以講讀古今中外各種體裁的範文為中心，高等師範培養未來的中學漢語文教師就必須博覽古今中外的名著，文、史、哲、政、經都應涉獵。第二、中小學漢語文讀本涉及語言、文學、邏輯、寫作等等知識，未來的中學漢語文教師，在培訓期間就應系統完整地掌握語言知識、文學知識、邏輯知識和寫作知識。第三、中小學漢

語文教育是通過各種教學活動，有涉驟，有計劃地訓練學生的聽、說、讀、寫能力，培養未來的中學漢語文教師，也要把培養語文能力放在第一位，不僅能說能寫，會聽會讀，還要會使用語文工具書，會檢索蒐輯資料，會講流利的普通話（國語），會用鋼筆、粉筆、毛筆書寫整齊美觀的漢字，會指導學生開展語文課外活動。中小學需要的是知識廣博、興趣廣泛、多才多藝的漢語文教師，高等師範也要據此確定自己的培養目標，不要向綜合大學看齊，不要把學生培養成語言研究專家或文學研究專家，脫離中學漢語文教育的需要。

基於以上的認識，我們把職前培養中學漢語文教師的教學計畫，設計為四種課型：第一種，教育理論與實踐課，開設普通教育學、教育心理學、漢語文教學法、教育實習與考察等四門課。第二種，基礎課，開設（一）名著選讀課，包括中國古代文學名著選讀、中國現代文學名著選讀、外國文學名著選讀、中國古代文論選讀、西方文論選讀等。（二）文學知識課，包括中國古代文學史、中國現代文學史、西方文學史、文學概論、文藝學等。（三）語言知識課，包括語言學概論、現代漢語、古代漢語、形式邏輯、寫作學等。第三種，基本能力訓練課，開設習作與作文批改、習字與書法、普通話與朗讀、語文工具書使用法、口才訓練、漢字微機處理等六門課。第四種，提高課，一般由學生選修，開設美學、社會語言學、中國古代文學理論、中國傳統文化、藝術欣賞、影視評論等課程。在中國大陸的高等師範教育，為幫助青年學生樹立遠大理想，確立為人民服務的人生觀，培養高尚的道德情操，堪能為人師表，十分重視思想政治教育，並開設馬克思主義基本原理、中國社會主義建設、思想品德修養、師德規範等課程。高等師範還把外語課列為公共必修課，要求學生到畢業時至少學懂一門外國語。

執行上述教學計劃培養出來的高等師範漢語文專業的畢業生，一般都具有中學漢語文教師必備之專業知識和基本能力，能勝任中學漢語文教學；有些畢業生經過四五年的教學實踐，便鍛煉成為漢語文學科的骨幹教師，學科帶頭人。

經過職前培訓的中學漢語文教師，雖然具備必需的基礎知識和基本能力，但絕不可能受益終身。尤其在今天，漢語文教育不斷在發展，新知識、新學說、新觀念、新理論層出不窮，與日俱增；語文學科又與社會思潮、社會生活緊密聯繫，語文教師就必須不懈地更新知識，更新觀念，才能跟上時代的腳步，日新又新。因此，對廣大的中學漢語文教師就必須定期施行職後教育，使他們通過職後進修，總結經驗，更新知識，更新觀念，不斷前進

接受職後教育的漢語文教師，一般需具有五至十年的教齡。只有經過較長時間教學實踐的鍛煉，才會知不足，才會生困，才會帶着問題來求解答，才有強烈的驅動力來進修。進修的時間不宜過長，也不能太短，一般以半年到一年為宜。進修的內容應緊緊扣住總結經驗、更新知識、更新觀念這一目的，開設幾門反映科學研究新成果，具有新知識、新觀念、新方法的課程。不求全求深，本着少而精的原則，達到學以致用。我們為漢語文教師進修班開設的課程大致可分三類：

第一類，圍繞總結漢語文教學經驗，提高教育理論水平和方法論水平的課程，如青少年心理學、教學方法論、系統論、信息論等。以進修學員自學為主，輔以必要的講授，然後反思自己的教學實踐，深入總結，撰寫論文。

第二類，圍繞近期有關漢語文學科各個領域的科研新成果，加以分項介紹，達到更新知識。如漢語教學語法體系與暫擬語法體系比較、漢文字學與漢字新說、中國現代文學重新評價、關於文學中的人性論和人道主義、西方現代文藝思潮批評等。這些課題，通常采取專題講座，介紹主要見解，不作系統講授，學員領悟深淺多少，不作統一要求。有爭議的問題，如中學生能不能讀武俠小說？電影《菊豆》該不該禁映？怎樣評價汪國真詩？等等，悉由學員討論解決，允許見解不一。

第三類，圍繞提高漢語文能力而設立，一般以活動來代替講授，通過活動提高能力。我們做過的有：普通話朗誦比賽、板書比賽、即興演講比賽、辯論對抗賽、徵文比賽、《紅樓夢》知識競賽、書法作品展、楹聯作品展、課堂教學評議、優質課評選等等。這是最有效也最有趣地提高教師能力的方法。

職後進修結業的考核，我們一般不採取考試，而是在學員結業返回學校執教一至二月後，我們會同地方教育行政機關和學校領導人，隨堂聽課，參加學生的課外活動，徵求其他教師和學生的意見，參考進修時寫的論文、作業和各種比賽的成績，綜合評定。從實踐中考察進修的收穫，比較準確，也能促進參加進修的教師把理論知識運用到實踐之中，改進教學，提高質量。

積多年經驗，我深刻認識到，提高中小學生漢語文水平關鍵在教師；提高漢語文教師的水平，又賴於切實做好職前培養和職後進修，二者不可缺一。

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九十年代中學語文教學何去何從？

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九十年代中學語文教學何去何從？有人評論了「四十年來語文教學的總體失誤」；有人提出「語文教改怎樣走出困境」，「語文教改的出路」，「中學語文教改的突破口」；有人指出要「跳出語文教學嚴重脫離語言實踐的『怪圈』」；有人提出「深化語文教改必須加強語言教學」的建議。本文打算從建國後中學語文教材建設、語文教學的回顧與評估；優化課堂教學的總體方向；教學重點仍應放在培養學生的語文基本能力上；必須加強課內閱讀指導；應該對標準化考試進行改革的時候了等五個方面來論述九十年代中學語文教學何去何從的問題。

一、建國後中學語文教材建設、語文教學的回顧與評估

1949年新中國成立以後的四十多年，我國語文教育工作者在探索語文教學民族化、科學化的道路上艱難曲折的前進。當代的中學語文教材建設和語文教學的歷史，可分為六個階段。

第一階段(1949——1952)，這是建國初期，國民經濟恢復時期。課程名稱定為「語文」。1951年出版了初、高中語文課本，清除了舊社會國文課本裏封建的買辦的思想內容，編寫了以現、當代為主、兼顧古今中外的一套系統的教材，推行了「課堂民主討論」的教學方法，使語文教學以嶄新的面貌出現在中學教壇上。

第二階段(1953——1957)，這是第一個五年計劃時期。1953年在「學蘇聯」、「一邊倒」的熱潮中，在凱洛夫的《教育學》的思想指導下，觀摩、學習、討論了「《紅領巾》教學法」，強調了提問、談話法和作品中的文學因素。各地教學因此重視了思想教育，注意了調動學生的學習積極性，對舊的逐句講解注入式是一次較大的衝擊。1956年秋季全面實施了漢語、文學分科教學。由於教材內容太深，分量太重，教學時間太緊，脫離了漢語特點和當時師生的實際水平，1958年停止。這個教材知識豐富，系統性強，加強了語言和文學知識教學，提高了教學質量，其成果和教訓為後來的教改試驗提供了有益的借鑒。

第三階段(1958——1959)，這是「大躍進」時期。在當時狂熱的思想指導下，「左」傾思想嚴重，強調語文教學要為無產階級政治服務，要與生產勞動相結合。在沒有大綱、急於使用的情況下，倉促編寫了緊跟政治形勢、結合生產勞動的語文教材。教材分量單薄，古典文學作品很少選，卻選入了很多宣傳性強、文字質量不高、不適合教學的作品，增加了不少政論文，還選進了反映「一天等於二十年」的「大躍進」民歌。為了體現「大躍進」精神，還盲目地提高教學要求，教學方法簡單化、形式化，搞生字詞過關檢查崗，提出走出課堂拜工農為師，作文寫煉鋼、寫反右、寫人民公社，結果教學質量不斷降低。

第四階段(1960——1966)，這是國民經濟調整時期。經過「關於語文教學目的任務」和「怎樣教好語文課」的一場討論之後，廣大語文教學工作者統一了思想認識，明確了語文的工具性和基礎性，提出了文質兼美的選材標準，規定了課文的數量，編寫了一套選材廣泛，體裁多樣，內容豐富多彩，適合教學，能培養學生讀寫能力的綜合型教材。還重視了教學方法的改進，加強了「雙基」教學，取得了較好的教學效益。

第五階段(1966——1976)，這是「文化大革命」時期。教育首當其衝，被「革了命」，大部分語文教師被紅衛兵當作封、資、修的兜售者或推銷員，在不同程度上挨了批鬥。前期有很長時間是「停課鬧革命」。後來逐漸「復課鬧革命」，許多學校把語文課改為「政文課」，上課多是讀報紙，背「語錄」，「活學活用」，「立竿見影」。當時，全國沒有教學大綱，也沒有統一的語文教材，在「與十七年對着幹」的思想指導下，由各省、市、自治區以至基層學校自編教材。這些教材無一例外地均以「階級鬥爭」、「路線鬥爭」為綱，完全不顧語文教學規律，還美其名為「高舉」、「緊跟」的好教材。走「五七」道路，課堂搬家，到工廠、農村或學農基地參加勞動，勞動之餘就地找個地方上課，請工農兵憶苦思甜，請「革命小將」上講臺；作文教學以寫「革命大批判」、「學工學農的心得」等文章為主，公式化、假大空的文章泛濫成災。考試時則提倡「抄比不抄好」，互相抄襲成風。結果個個都獲得優良成績，學生們還自詡道：「大家都繼承發揚了革命的優良傳統，不是優，就是良」。語文教學基本上處於一片混亂之中，正在成長中的一代青少年學生的文化學習被嚴重地耽誤了。「文化大革命」的結果是大革了青少年文化的命。這是歷史的倒退，是一場不堪回首的災難。

第六階段(1977以後)，結束「十年動亂」，進入了撥亂反正、正本清源的新時期。語文教學園地重新迎來了陽光明媚的春天，語文教師裏歷史上的冤假錯案陸續得到了糾正，教學上的禁忌和框框條條大大減少，人們逐步心情舒暢地走上講臺。1978年4月教育部召開了全國教育工作會議，同年8月又頒布了《全日制十年制中學語文教學大綱(試行草案)》，1980年進

行修訂，1986年又進行一次修訂，並定名為《全日制中學語文教學大綱》，於1987年初正式頒布。根據《大綱》精神，編寫了全國通用中學語文課本（試用本）。隨後中央教育科研究所編了《閱讀》、《作文·漢語》分編的初中語文課本，以及閱讀、寫作分編的高中語文課本。這些教材各具特色，帶有實驗性質，供全國不同層次的學校選用。新課本把教學大綱的聽說讀寫能力訓練和知識教學的內容具體化、序列化了。全套書的單元教學要求，課文學習要點，語文能力訓練，思考的練習，都有一個系統，保証了大綱所規定的教學目的和教學要求的落實。

七十年代末期以來，知識分子普遍得到了尊重，並調動了廣大語文教師的積極性。全國各中學普遍開展了語文教學改革試驗，重視了教學思想的現代化，嘗試了教學方法的最優化，強調了能力訓練的全面化。教改試驗的人數之多、範圍之廣、成果之著，都是前所未有的。中學語文教學又登上了一個新臺階。

歷史經驗證明，合格的教師，穩定的教材，安定的學習環境，正確的教學方法，這四要素是不斷提高教學質量的重要條件。語文教材建設有語文教材建設的規律，語文教學有語文教學的規律，以行政手段干擾它，以政治運動衝擊它，是不明智的，其教訓也是慘痛的。如，「大躍進」和「文化大革命」便是。解放後，在廣大語文教師勤勤懇懇的工作下，數以萬計的高、初中畢業生提高了文化水平和文化素養，具備了一定水平的聽說讀寫能力，在各條戰線上參加社會主義建設勞動。同時，還為高一級學校輸送了一批又一批合格的新生。中學語文教學取得了很大成績，這是無容置疑的。從小學到中學，語文教學時間最多，用兩千七百多課時學習本國語文，卻仍然有不少人過不了關，這也是事實。其原因是多方面的，都和上面說的四大要素有關，教育部門的領導者可要注意啊！切勿掉以輕心。七十年代末期以來，寬鬆的政治氣候，語文教材建設的多樣化，語文教學的顯著效果，都使人感到無限欣慰並充滿了無限希望。

二、優化課堂教學的總體方向

傳統的語文課堂教學有聽講型和問答型兩種。

聽講型的主要表現形式是教師運用口頭語言向學生解說，學生只是聽、記、抄、背、寫。它的長處是能迅速解決學生閱讀中的疑難問題，保證知識傳授的系統性和連貫性。這種單向傳導，往往容易滋長學生的依賴性，學生思維不活躍，學生獲得的只是知識的堆積。天長日久，學生的學習機械化了，興趣索然，只能亦步亦趨。他們只能努力記住要點，進行呆板記憶或「復制活動」，無法跳出教師講課的框框，提高學生的智力都成問

題，哪裏談得上培養學生的創造才能呢？這種教學法只能在「傳道授業解惑」的圈子裏踏步，對學生的智力開發是不利的。

後來提倡啟發式，就一改為教師問，學生答，於是問答型便產生了。老師在課堂上邊講邊問，學生隨意回答：個別回答或集體回答，總離不開「是」、「對」、「不是」、「不對」這些內容。表面上課堂氣氛熱烈，單向傳導變成了雙向傳導。因為教師的提問是隨意的，學生的回答大多是盲目的隨聲附和。學生仍處於被動狀態，實際上滿堂灌變成了滿堂問。

從五十年代開始，蘇聯凱洛夫的教育學「五環節」的教學法：「組織教學——復習舊課——講授新課——鞏固新課——布置作業。」在我國得到了廣泛傳播，並成了語文課堂教學結構的基本模式。它的特點是以傳授知識為中心，以教師為中心，以課堂為中心。只要學會了這一套程式，又有了配套的教學參考書，那就什麼課文都能應付了。觀摩課如此，大專師範學生的實習課也如此，代代相傳。遺憾的是學生動手不動腦，只知道接收、接收、再接收。結果是學生成了接收器，求甚解而不好讀書，對語文學習逐漸失去了興趣。

無數的實踐證明，「三中心」的傳統教學法已到了非改革不可的時候了。改革首先要破除舊觀念，形成新觀念。即把以傳授知識為中心改成在教學中既傳授系統知識又積極發展學生的能力，把知識與能力結合起來；把以教師為中心改成既充分發揮教師的主導作用，又積極調動學生的主動性，把師生的兩個積極性結合起來；把課堂為中心改成課內課外相結合。

怎麼改呢？怎樣的教學法才是好的教學方法呢？廣大語文教學工作者在繼承傳統、學習外國經驗的基礎上，大膽試驗，認真總結，提出了不少值得重視和推廣的教學方法。歸納起來，有如下五種較有代表性的課型①：

1. 以培養學生自學能力為主型。教師在課堂上有目的地指導學生自學課文，領會課文大意，劃出難句，找出疑難問題。教師將學生提出的重點疑難問題，放回學生中去，並指導他們自學解答，最後由教師小結。其公式是「自學——解疑——深化——小結」。學生自始至終都處於主體地位，自學自練，教師只起指導作用，有利於培養學生自學能力。

2. 以學生為主體型。教師在課堂上指導學生精讀課文，然後讓學生提出課文的主要問題和難點；教師稍作點撥，再放到學生中去議論。最後結合課文佈置寫作或練習，並在寫練之後指導他們自己評改。其公式是「預習——讀議——寫練——評改」。在整個教學過程中，學生始終處於主動積極狀態，因而閱讀和寫作能力都能得到很好的培養和訓練。

3. 舉一反三型，又叫單元導讀四課型。教師先示範性教學生閱讀，並授之以法。隨後組織並指導學生按教師所教方法模仿閱讀新課文。接着

讓學生相對獨立地用仿讀練習的方法嘗試性的自讀第三篇新課文。最後，教第四課時，要求學生個人獨立閱讀獨立分析，並舉行檢測。檢測可以採用書面的，口頭的，可測全班，也可測部分。其公式是「教讀——仿讀——試讀——測讀」。這是教學主體轉移法，學生由被動到主動，由依賴到獨立，由生疏到熟練，閱讀能力將不斷提高。既提高了時效，又能使學生收到觸類旁通的效果。

4.　漸進探索型。每堂課由教師把教師重點告訴學生，使學生心中有數。然後讓學生圍繞重點自學，自學解決不了的，由小組討論或由教師答疑，最後由教師或學生進行小結。這種方法學生一直是積極主動地學習，不單培養了能力，而且還能使學生的智力得到充分的鍛煉。

5.　教練結合型。教師佈置學生自學課文，並進行重點講授，然後佈置學生當堂練習，以加深認識，加深理解。其公式是「自學課文——講解重點——深化練習。」

這裏只提五個有代表性的課型，除此還有序列型、綜合型等。

中學語文課堂教學的優化設計決不是唯一的某種形式，根據語文教材篇幅的長短、體裁特點、文章深淺的不同，學生素質、理解能力的差異，可以設計出各種各樣型式的課堂教學來。柯大偉認為，它的總體方向必須體現以下幾個因素：(1)課堂教學要富於啟發性，善於啟發學生動腦動口動手，在啟發誘導中讓學生去分析問題理解問題解決問題。(2)在教學上要體現少而精的原則，克服「四多」現象，即注入多、資料多、死記硬背多、題海戰術多。(3)要注重對學生的思想教育，教書又育人，寓思想教育於教學中，注意發揮教材、強調教育性，使學生在學習過程中潛移默化地受到思想教育。(4)在教學中要體現以教師為主導，學生為主體的原則，兩者互相配合，協調融會，讓學生在教師的指導下在內部誘因的作用下主動接收、獲取、貯存，轉化知識和訓練能力，使學生獲得最佳學習效果。(5)教學要講藝術(指符合教學規律的藝術，不是為教學藝術而藝術)，使學生喜歡聽老師的課，喜歡學教師講授的知識。(6)在課堂上教師要把握好整個教學進程，從關心熱愛學生出發，嚴格要求學生，曉之以理，動之以情，嚴慈結合。同時要適當安排好授課量，不拖堂不延時，依時完成一堂課的教學任務。這幾方面要具體體現在教學的全過程中，互相滲透，互相制約②。

事實證明，我們在教學實踐中，運用任何切實有效的教學方法或課型，都不能一成不變，甚至依葫蘆畫瓢。如果哪一位語文教師硬要將某一種法式固定下來，他的教學一定要走入死胡同，他的教學肯定不會有效果的。法無定法，定則無法，定法也不是法，「運用之妙，存乎一心」，從實際出發，靈活運用，有的放矢，才是法的根本。我們必須因人制宜，因時制宜，因文制宜。

三、教學重點仍應放在培養學生的語文基本能力上

語文指口頭語言和書面語言。語言是工具，是人類社會交際的最重要的工具，是人們從事學習和工作的基礎工具。語文運用於聽說讀寫，是交際工具；運用於思考，是思維工具；總的來說，它是傳遞和儲存信息的工具。工具性是語文科的本質屬性。語文科的工具性還表現在它是學習各門科學知識的基礎。沒有語文這個基礎，不論是文科大廈，還是理科大廈，都無法建造起來。葛大滙說：「在知識信息傳遞的過程中，由於語義(內容)的分析概括作用，由於語言形式(包括文章的結構形式)同內容間的轉移關係，語言刺激了各科的專門的思維活動，加強了思維的力度，使認知活動步入更高的階層。所有這些，都是因為語言和思維是不可分的，所以語文能力便成了各科的統攝力量。」[3]《全日制中學語文教學大綱》開宗明義地指出:「語文是從事學習和工作的基礎工具。」「語文學得好，對其它學科的學習會產生積極的影響，對於將來從事工作和繼續學習也是十分必要的。」因此，語文教學的重點應該放在培養學生的基本能力上。

怎樣培養學生的語文基本能力呢？

(一)要重視語文基礎知識教學

一般說來，對初中一年級學生首先要進行調查研究，查缺補漏，幫助他們過好漢語拼音、識字寫字、積累詞彙三關。正確掌握和使用漢語拼音，是進一步擴大識字量，學好普通話，將來使用電腦的前提，也是提高口語表達能力的基礎。初中生都必須學好它。初中生還必須掌握三千五百個常用字，如果不夠，就得採取各種方法補齊。中學階段與小學階段識字教學不同的地方是，它要求學生能從形、音、義的結合上真正認識三千五百字，並使他們能初步了解這些字的本義和引申義，能從形聲字的剖釋上大批地識字和辨字，加深字義的理解。要教給他們查字典、詞典的方法，訓練他們養成經常查閱工具書的良好習慣。教材中出現的新字、新詞要逐篇落實、單元驗收，要抓好寫字教學，既練鋼筆字，又練毛筆字，要寫得對，還要寫得好、寫得快。還要用組詞，同義詞、近義詞、反義詞的比較和練習，聽寫測驗等辦法，不斷增加學生的詞彙量和提高他們的辨詞、識詞的運用能力。

其次，要結合讀寫教學，認真做好練習，整理歸類，智力競賽，檢查考查等辦法，幫助學生學好句子、篇章、語法、修辭、邏輯、文學常識等方面的知識。這些知識都有自己嚴整的系統，內容也很多。不要系統詳盡全面地向學生講這些知識的名稱、術語、定義等，只能選出最切實用的要點，配備適當的練習進行訓練。其目的在於教會他們運用這些知識去觀察分析生動的語言現象，去總結、歸納語言運用上的一些規律，積累豐富的

語言材料，提高自己的語言素養和文化水平。學習這些知識不要要求過高，超過他們的接受能力，只能限於教材所接觸到的，不能再擴大範圍。

(二)繼續提倡熟讀深思

熟讀深思是學習和掌握漢語言文字的一種重要手段。歷來教育家、思想家、文學家都是這樣提倡的。古代偉大的思想家、教育家孔子提倡「時習之」，「溫故而知新」。傑出的思想家、教育家荀子主張「數誦以貫之，思索以通之，為其人以處之。」魏朝的董遇是一位很有才學的人，有人向他請教學習方法，他不肯教，只是規勸求教者回去好好重讀學過的知識，他說：「讀書百遍，而意自見。」梁朝教育家顏之推認為「鈍學累功，不妨精熟。」北宋傑出的散文家、詩家、詞家蘇軾勸勉落第秀才安惇的詩是：「舊書不厭百回讀，熟讀深思子自知。」宋朝後期的教育家、思想家朱熹說：「大凡讀書，須是熟讀，熟讀了自然精熟。精熟後理自見得。」又說：「泛觀博取，不若熟讀而精思。」明代教育家王守仁主張「順導性情」，「貴精熟」。現代散文家、教育家朱自清說：「除教師講解外，在學生方面，熟讀的功夫是不可少的。」

歷史上由於熟讀深思而成名的人是不乏其例的。例如，戰國時期蘇秦游說秦王失敗後，回到家裏，打開幾十個書箱，找到了姜太公專講戰略的兵書《陰符》。夜以繼日，憑几誦讀，精選熟記，反復揣摩，仔細推敲。學成後，以「合縱」學說游說六國團結起來，使秦兵不敢出函谷關以東達十五年之久。唐朝著名的文學家、教育家韓愈所取得的成就，和他本人「口不絕吟於六藝之文，手不停披於百家之編」；「焚膏油以繼晷，恒兀兀以窮年」的勤奮努力是密不可分的。北宋著名的史學家司馬光，幼年時記憶力並不好。由於他反復攻讀，默記背誦，深入思考，終於使他獲得驚人的記憶力，嫻熟了上千年的史料，寫出了卷帙浩繁的《資治通鑑》。

誦讀過程也是學生識記的過程。第一次誦讀時，識記的進程比較緩慢。等到第二遍、第三遍，融會貫通、理解文章的邏輯結構和思想內容時，識記的進程就會大大加快。俗語說得好：「一回生，二回熟。」隨着認知的發展和深化，人的認知也會發生變化。俗語又說：「熟能生巧。」這是說熟練以後就能掌握技巧，運用自如，得心應手。熟讀能使學生對文章產生深厚的感情，他們在口誦心惟的過程中，認識活動也會向縱深發展，對字詞句篇的理解也會因此得到不斷修正和調整，並變得日益精確。熟讀還能使學生在口頭上逐步熟習文章的用詞造句規律，自然地吸收書面語言，使讀和寫溝通起來，並提高他們的記憶力。

語文的普遍性問題與能力有關，而能力又與他們的語言直覺有關。王力在《古代漢語．緒論》中說：「感性認識是學習語言的必要條件，感性認識越豐富，語言的掌握也就越牢固越熟練。」多讀熟讀將大大有助於學

生的感性認識。如果他們腦子裏留存的現代漢語典範的例句越多，理解能力就越強；儲存的詞彙越豐富，基本功就越深厚，他們的語文表達能力就一定會隨着提高。多讀熟讀是學生掌握語言的不可缺少的重要過程。王力先生的見解是他的豐富經驗的總結，是不可忽視的。

熟讀主要是接受語文信息的傳遞，使學生獲得語文的感性認識；深思主要是語文的智能訓練，把知識轉化為技能，使學生獲得語言運用的能力。熟讀和深思是互相聯而又各自獨立的兩個方面。孔子說：「學而不思則罔，思而不學則殆。」用現在的話來說，只熟讀不深思不好，會受蒙蔽而無所得；只深思不熟讀也不好，想得過多會弄得精神疲倦而無所得。熟讀和深思應該緊密結合起來，正如朱熹說的：「讀書之法，讀了一遍，又思量一遍；思量一遍，又讀一遍。」「大抵觀書，先須熟讀，使其言皆若出於吾之口，繼以精思，使其意皆若出於吾之心，然後可以有得耳。」（《讀書》）當然我們現在可以在熟讀課文之後採用課後練習，評論作品，寫讀後感等辦法，引導和督促學生把熟讀和深思結合起來。

深思就是啟發學生進行深入的思考。深入思考的方法是多種多樣的：有時可以從正向去啟發，有時可以從反向去引發；經過正反對比和智慧逆轉的訓練，學生的認識才會全面，日臻完善。有時還可以從縱向去啟發，有時還可以從橫向去引發；經過縱橫兩方面的啟發誘導，學生的視野才會變得更加寬廣，知識面也跟着擴大。但是啟發引導學生深思要有一個長期的計劃，根據「一課一得」的原則，啟發深思要由「多向」走向「單向」，注意「多向化」時，還要注意「綜合化」，同時還要防止簡單化，凝固化和絕對化。從熟讀到深思，一般要經歷由語言文字到思想內容，再由思想內容到語言文字這樣一個循環往復、逐步深入的過程。隨着這種過程的推移和進展，學生的認知能力和思維能力將由感覺到知覺，從具體到抽象，由表及裏，從現象到本質，由淺入深，從簡到繁，由局部到整體，從片面到全面，螺旋式地逐步上升，學生的智力和能力也會得到發展和提高。

我主張每學期精講十來篇，循環往復地熟讀深思其中某些精彩的段和句子，另加背誦五六篇或三四篇有韻或無韻的文言文與十來首詩詞。其餘十來篇可指導學生試讀、仿讀、略讀或測讀，提點問題，作點作業，少講或不講。文章或詩詞中的描寫、記敍、抒情、特殊句式、慣用詞語、個別詞語的特殊意義、比喻、典故；文章或詩詞組織結構的變化、段落的巧妙安排、文題的深意等等，可按「一課一得」的原則，分為多次啟發和講解。啟發誘導時，最好採用暗示和旁敲側擊的辦法。以誨人不倦的精神，耐心地幫助他們發現問題和解決問題。回答不了的，可讓他們再讀、再深思，直到能回答為止。經過熟讀和一番咬文嚼字的教學訓練以後，他們自

然會深得作家用詞造句的妙趣，分析鑑賞和正確使用漢語言文字的能力也會隨着提高。

（三）以讀帶寫，以寫促讀

學生語文學習得怎麼樣，作文是衡量的重要尺度。透過作文，我們可以看出他們語文基礎知識掌握的情況，看出他們知識轉化為能力的情況，還可以看出他們對事物的認識、理解水平，看出他們的思想、感情和觀點。語文教學和思想教育的效果都可以從作文中得到很好的檢驗。因此，我們必須十分重視作文教學。提高作文教學的途徑有兩條：一是以讀帶寫，二是以寫促讀。

閱讀可以幫助學生獲取寫作所需要的間接生活材料，可以幫助學生學習別人看問題的立場、觀點和方法，還可以給學生提供可資借鑒的寫作經驗、技巧和寫作範例，還可以學習別人成功運用語言文字表達思想感情的範例，從而不斷提高自己的語言素養。因此以讀帶寫時，就必須緊緊抓住這四方面的內容進行寫作指導。沒有一定材料的積累，「巧婦難為無米之炊」，還是不可能寫出好文章來的。為此，除了從閱讀中獲取間接生活材料外，還要指導學生深入生活，學會觀察、記取、分析周圍的人和事，才能深刻地認識生活，積累資料，從人民群眾中學習生動活潑的語言，獲取第一手材料。不善於攝取範文之「神」，學不到作家看問題的立場、觀點和方法，寫作時不會立意，又不懂得文章的剪裁，材料的棄取，又沒有一定的寫作方法和技巧，在表達思想感情時又沒有豐富的詞彙儲藏和靈活多變的句式，還是寫不出好文章來的。因此，範文的分析與指導，信息的儲存，想象、聯想能力的培養，邏輯思維能力的培養，寫作方法和技巧的學習，就成為教學上的重要環節了。

要學會寫作，首先要善於模仿。作文能力發展到一定程度時，就要鼓勵他們丟開「模仿」這根拐棍，尋求自己的獨立創造。以讀帶寫，一般都要經過「積累——模仿、借鑒——創造」這樣的途徑。結合課文教學，對學生進行寫作指導，使學生將課文學習的所得運用於寫作，這種運用閱讀帶動寫作的方法就叫以讀帶寫。

以讀帶寫的意義，首先它能改變過去閱讀和寫作脫節的毛病。閱讀是為了作文，要認真作文回過頭來又能促進閱讀。在教學中，兩者結合得好，學生的讀寫能力就會協調一致地發展。其次，它能改變過去作文訓練隨心所欲的無政府主義狀態。現在讀什麼，就寫什麼，或者寫相關的其他問題，按照教材編寫的順序，閱讀和作文互相緊密結合，有機地構成了體系完整的訓練序列。按照這個訓練序列，既能突出訓練重點，又能兼顧其他。再次，閱讀任務明確，學生就會按照教師的指導有目的地去學習作者如何觀察事物和提取題材，學習作者如何確立觀點和突出中心，並按照

定的思路去安排文章結構，學習作者如何選擇詞語和運用不同句式去表達思想。這樣就能使學生閱讀時就想到了寫，想到模仿和借鑒，讀和寫就會有機地結合起來。

反過來，結合課文先由教師命題，然後讓學生認真、反復地閱讀課文，並就課文的內容和形式方面的某個問題進行作文，這種教學方法就叫以寫促讀。如縮寫、擴寫、改寫，分析課文的人物形象或結構層次，分析課文的寫作方法和寫作特色，對課文的某一觀點進行評議，不同課文或同類課文的分析比較，寫讀後感等。

以寫促讀有什麼好處呢？聯系課文的命題在前，學生帶着作文的目的學習課文在後，他們學習課文的主動性、積極性就必然會大大提高，並有利於提高他們的學習興趣。帶着寫的任務閱讀，能促使他們認真、深入細致的研究，加深對課文的理解和消化，並有利於改變他們讀書敷衍了事，不愛思考、不求甚解和死記硬背的習慣。由於聯系課文作文，要求學生獨立思考去完成，這就有利於使學生真正成為學習的主人，充分體現教師為主導、學生為主體的原則，對提高學生的語文能力有重要作用。以寫促讀的某些文題帶有專題研討的性質，有利於發展學生的創造力，並能初步培養他們的研究能力。

(四)加強聽說訓練

加強聽說訓練，是社會發展和我國「三個面向」的需要。隨着現代化電聲傳訊設備的發展，現在通過聲波傳遞信息進行直接交際的範圍越來越廣，使用頻率也大大超過書面語言。心理實驗表明，看和聽的思維效率低，寫的思維效率較高，而說的思維效率最高。為此，加強聽說訓練對發展學生的智力有重要的作用。從「我手寫我口」的角度看，也有利於提高學生的寫作能力。

長期以來，語文教學存在着重文輕語，重讀寫忽視聽說的傾向，再加上「滿堂灌」的教風盛行，教師總是講的多，學生說的少。課堂上老師又常常為學生不願說和不會說而苦惱，埋怨學生啟而不發。因此在課內外要盡可能地給學生一些口頭表達的機會，造成一種大家願意說的氣氛和環境。時時、處處、事事都像談家常和老朋友促膝談心那樣輕鬆自然，互相影響，互相激勵，讓他們在練中學，在練中提高，養成良好的說話習慣。

教師的積極態度是加強學生聽說訓練的重要條件。一是教學的口語要起示範作用；二是要熱情鼓勵，多「激」少「逼」。當學到好文章時，讓學生聽寫幾句優美的話，詠誦一段或幾段好文字，復述或概述一篇情節或內容，使學生得到美的感受。當遇到疑難問題時，讓學生質疑、回答、討論、爭辯，激起他們的求知欲，促進他們的思考，引發他們的說話動機。

當學生有一定見聞後，讓他們登臺述說，描繪。有些教師採用課前三分鐘讓學生講述見聞活動，已取得了一定的效果。

聽說訓練的形式有課堂聽講，回答問題，口頭作文，評述作家和作品，傳達會議精神，口頭通知，復述，講故事，交談，討論，演講，辯論等。只要把聽說訓練引入教學計劃，持之以恒，就會取得效果的。

四、必須加強課內閱讀指導

加強課內閱讀指導的辦法是每周劃出兩課時開設閱讀課，在教師的指導下，根據教學大綱要求、教材內容和個人興趣愛好選擇閱讀大量的各類讀物。不僅讀文學作品，還要讀非文學作品。一、採取自由閱讀和定向閱讀相結合的方式。以學生獨立自由閱讀為主，定向閱讀為輔，它們之間的比例，一般以七比三為宜。二、採取個體活動和群體活動相結合的方式。以個體活動為主，群體活動為輔。可以摘錄、製卡片、寫心得……，可以把這些材料張貼在牆報上，或出版油印小報，也可以開展口頭形式的專題講述，或舉辦討論、競賽、論辯等閱讀專題欣賞。

課外閱讀指導有什麼意義呢？

一、閱讀是生活、從事生產和科學研究不可缺少的一種技能。現在的學生，將來要適應信息社會，要迎接新技術革命的挑戰，他們必須具備處理成倍激增的書面材料的能力，要讀得既多又快，還要及時而準確地作出反饋。這種能力只能在大量的獨立閱讀實踐中訓練出來。每周兩課時的閱讀課，為這種訓練提供了有利的條件。

二、學生進行閱讀理解時，總要調動自己已有的知識，憑借自己的生活經驗，從不同的角度去感受作品的思想。在語文教學中加強學生自主學習活動，讓他們有更多機會讀自己喜歡的書，說自己想說的話，寫自己願意寫的文章，這樣就能極大地提高學生學習語文的積極性和自覺性。在教學中，要鼓勵學生不「惟書」，不「惟上」，積極質疑發問，對教材作出自己的分析、鑒賞、評價，並開展師生間、學生間不同認識的論辯和不同情感的交流，為學生的自主學習活動創造良好的氣氛和環境，使他們的個性得到充分發展。

三、由於減少了教課課時，它就迫使教師改變教學觀念和習慣的教學組織方法，迫使教師摒棄教學過程中的廢話、套話、淺表層的頻繁問答，教學內容上的不必要的重複，教學組織上的鬆散、拖沓現象，以較快的節奏和較大的容量完成教學任務。④

這項教改試行三個學期之後，上海市曾經以虹口區和閘北區的試驗班作比較，對閱讀理解、語言推理和詞彙理解三項語文能力作了測試。結果所得的九組對比數據中，有八組成績是試驗班高於非試驗班，只有一組成

績低於後者。上海市鞍山、華東模範等中學經過三年教試驗的班級，語文學科高考或中考成績也都明顯高於非試驗班。

這些材料和數據，至少告訴我們，把學生從教科書和課堂的狹小天地的「封閉」中「開放」出來，吸收點精神世界的新鮮養料，對於他們語文能力的全面發展是有好處的。它對形成學生語文素養的作用也非常重要。不論是目前學好其他各門學科，或者是將來從事何種職業，還是在科技發達的信息社會中生存，閱讀教學都有舉足輕重的意義。另外，劃出課時讓學生自己讀書，不僅是語文教學某個方面教法的改革，而且是學科的整體改革。⑤

日本、法國、蘇聯等國家，都能從比較廣闊的視野看待語文學習，認為學習語文不單純是課堂裏的事，把課外閱讀納入教學計劃，提倡課堂學習與課內外閱讀實踐活動緊密結合起來。這是值得借鑒的。

五、應該是對標準化考試進行改革的時候了

考試是控制、檢測教育教學質量之一，教育教學目的必定要通過考試手段反映出來。近十年來，標準化考試風靡語文教壇。大到升學考試，小到單元測驗，從小學升初中到高中畢業考大學，無不採取這種考試方法。所謂「標準化」，一是說，試題是客觀的，以避開解答中的主觀成分；二是說，評定成績是客觀的，以避開評分中的主觀成分。其積極效果主要表現在答案明確唯一，不受評卷人主觀因素的影響，又可以用電腦操作評分，能比較準確地評出一份試卷的成績，便於高一級學校按成績擇優錄取新生。

實踐證明，這種考試的後果是弊大於利。世界上最早實行標準化考試的美國教育界已對標準化考試提出了異議。大多數教育家認為，標準化考試採取單一正確的答案形式，而沒有考慮到有的題目會有複合式答案和多種解答方式。一位教育家說：「標準化考試不管學生能否綜合信息、解決問題和獨立思考，只測量他們能識別什麼。」一位大學教師說：「從採用標準化考試時起，包括優美文學作品的課就開始在美國的課堂上消失了，對於優美文學作品的欣賞讓位於閱讀技巧的強調。」另一位教育家認為，「標準化考試強調孤立的學習，而不強調把事實和思想綜合為一個整體，把思考的速度看得比思考的深度更為重要。這種考試誘導教師把全部課程狹隘化了，過於強調應付考試的技巧。」結果，美國的中學生連一個沒有錯誤的短文都寫不出來。因而美國36個教育和公民權利團體的聯合組織呼籲：希望對標準化考試進行改革，而選用多種形式的考試去測量教育的效果。⑥在我國，好幾年前，通過標準化考試進入大學理科和醫學院的學生，後來被

發現有的學生不會寫實驗報告，有的不會寫病歷，因而不得已增設了大學語文課。

我國不少教學工作者也對標準化考試提出了尖銳的批評。

趙建之認為標準化考試的弊端集中表現為「三重三輕」：(1) 重符號輕表達。標準化考試的題型無論是選擇、判斷、還是填空等，都把現成答案編成序號，讓學生去圈正確答案，缺少文字表達，這樣不利於對考生文字表達能力的考查和培養。(2) 重結論輕過程。標準化考試片面追求對思維結果的再認識，而輕視對題解過程的重現。這既不利於發現考生解答題目過程中的錯誤，又容易使考生發散思維的火花被泯滅。(3) 重識記輕思維。標準化考試重視對考生識記能力的考查，輕視創造性思維能力的發揮。考生在現成的答案面前，只要下過死記硬背的功夫，就不愁答不出來。標準化考試對考生思維能力的培養與發揮，都是不利的。標準化考試「三重三輕」的症結是「活」中有「死」。從題型上看，這種形式的考試命題死板，框框居多，用「死」的框框去套「活」的思維，導致學生頭腦呆板和學習過程的僵化。[7]

高佳俊說：「科學主義作為一種思維、一種理論、一種方法和手段浸入到社會各個領域後，人們多是只看到它帶來的成果，卻無視同時造成的消極影響和危害。科學主義的颶風刮進語文教學領域，於是，大家爭相設計各種教學程序的系列化、教學方式的模式化、考試命題的標準化。這些科學化手段固然解決了一些傳統語文教學中無法解決的問題，但又是以犧牲學生的個性化特徵為代價的。學生的思想情趣、愛好、想像、意志全都淹沒在『標準化』的冰水之中，學生成了一臺機器！」[8]語文是一們「最辯證、最靈活的一種科學，也是最復雜、最多樣化的一種科學。」(馬卡連柯語)語文教學要用教師的感情去促使學生個性化，促使學生與周圍人的接近與合作，為學生將來步入現代社會作好精神準備，把學生當作機器人來訓練，是缺乏人道主義的表現。因為標準化考試的形式主義和教條主義的兩條繩索束縛了廣大語文教師的手腳，以致本來應當充滿活力的語文課變得索然無味，學生無法從課堂上享受到無窮的樂趣，想像力、創造力受到壓抑，感情生活也變得十分枯燥。沒有愛，沒有人道主義，這是語文教學上的失敗。

由於標準化考試，旨在檢測學生思想道德水平的試卷、試題，已經很難看到了。語文教學中的思想教育內容無形中便被閹割了，也就談不上讓學生的思想在潛移默化中得到淨化和提高，更遑論如何使學生懂得做人的道理了。這無疑是標準化考題的又一重大缺陷。

當前有不少教師和學生可以說是隨着高考這根指揮棒進行教和學的。怎麼考就怎麼教，怎麼教就怎麼學。近年來，圍繞着高考這一指揮棒，中學生使用的各種形形色色的練習冊，多得不可勝數的模擬考試題，無一不

是對高考命題最蹩腳的摹倣，久而久之，學生們那種豐富多彩的，不同層次的思維，因為得不到教師的指導和幫助，而得不到良好的發展，甚至於變得呆板簡單化了。

對標準化考試，胡格非的批評既中肯，提的方向也正確。他說：「語文水平的高低主要表現在(包括文言和白話)的閱讀與寫作文手上，而這兩方面的水平實際上還反映了學生的認識水平與分析能力。所以語文高考只考能力不考知識。作一篇文、分析評論一段現代文、翻譯或標點、注釋一段文言就能考出真實水平，簿簿的兩頁就夠了，留給學生以足夠的思考時間。不必出什麼選擇題、是非題、填充題等，每考必厚厚的一本。只考能力還有一個好處，可以促進教材編寫上的百花齊放。只要你能培養學生達到大綱規定的讀寫水平，用那本教材均無不可。這樣可以讓教師放開手腳大膽實踐。」[9]

這一段話實質上是對標準化試題的大膽否定。高考語文命題者值得三思，從國外到國內，從實踐到理論，應該是改革標準化命題考試的時候了。

趙曉虎認為高考應增設論文考試。他說：「21世紀國際間的競爭迫切需要善於思考和具有獨立創造能力的人才。現行的高考制度對善於記憶、模倣的考生來說比較有利，而對於具有創造能力而又疏於記憶、模倣的考生來說卻不太有利。因此，『高分低能』現象總是難以避免，而許多有發展潛力、創造精神突出的學生卻得不到深造，人才浪費十分嚴重。針對這種現象，高考實行學力和論文分離考試。即統考成績達線的考生還須接受各大學的論文考試，論文考試優勝者優先錄取。這樣不僅可以提高大學生素質，還可以給中小學教育以正確的引導，扭轉目前中小學教育中只重分數的教學現狀。」[10]

附註：

1 這部分內容參考1988年6月《湛江教育》，柯大偉《中學語文課堂教學的優化探討》轉引時，有較大的修改。
2 1988年6月《湛江教育》，柯大偉《中學語文課堂教學的優化探討》。
3 1991年6月《上海教育科研》，葛大滙《語文能對其它學科的統攝意義》。
4 這部分內容參考1989年7月《語文學習》，劉京海等《讓學生回到廣闊的語文天地裏去》，轉引時有調整和刪節。
5 這部分內容參考1989年7月《語文學習》，徐振維《閱讀是表達的基礎》，轉引時有刪節。
6 這部分內容參考1991年12月《教育研究》，趙建之《對標準化考試在美國受到冷遇的分析與思考》，轉引時有刪節。
7 1991年12月《教育研究》，趙建之《對標準化考試在美國受到冷遇的分析與思考》。
8 1990年6月《語文學習》，高佳俊《完形理論在語文教學中的應用》。
9 1991年1月《上海教育學院學報》，胡格非《關於中學語文課的教學問題》。
10 1992年第4期《中國青年》，趙曉虎《高考應增設論文考試》。

外語院校學生的漢語學習

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中國大陸有十所外語院校，他們是：北京外國語學院、北京第二外國語學院、上海外國語學院、廣州外國語學院、天津外國語學院、西安外國語學院、大連外國語學院、四川外國語學院、解放軍洛陽外國語學院、解放軍南京外國語學院。除此以外，還有外貿、外經、外交等各類以學外語為主的專業學院，綜合大學也有外語系。總之，大陸高校中有一大批以漢語為母語的學生在學習其他各種語言。這些學習外語的學生的母語水平直接影響外語學習，已故的上海外國語學院的院長王季愚先生曾把學生的外語水平和漢語水平比着兩條腿走路，那一條腿不健全，都會影響行走，這個看法是有見地的。因此，這些以學外語為主的院校都要開設漢語課。

外語院校的漢語課既不同於綜合大學中文系的課程，也不應與中學語文教學相似，還不應該與其他開設公共漢語課的院校一樣，而應該有自己的特色。但長期以來，外語院校的漢語課就是文選與習作，即選一些可供模仿的範文編一本課本，然後一篇一篇的講，講兩三篇就寫一篇作文。先講記敘文，再講議論文，有時還講一些應用文。範文是給學生提供模仿的樣本，講什麼文就寫什麼文。分析範文時一般是時代背景、作者介紹、主題思想、寫作特點等方面，作文是命題寫作。這種教學內容普遍不受學生歡迎，教學效果很不理想。

1978年6月，作者參與發起組織了全國外語院校漢語教師代表在上海外國語學院召開了漢語教學研討會。在會上大家探討了單純文選習作的弊端，提出了改革課程內容的初步設想。會後，我們在教育部領導下，制訂了新的教學大綱，又編寫了幾本教材。下面從幾個方面談談我們改革教學內容的認識。

（一）

單純的範文與習作，教學的目的就是為了讓學生寫好一篇文章，教學內容是給學生一些可供模仿的文章，讓學生通過仿照來提高寫作水平。這種做法與我國傳統的語文教學的做法是相似的。

我國的語文教學有悠久的歷史，傳統的語文教學確在針對漢語特點方面下過工夫，積纍了一套行之有效的教學方法，如集中識字等。但傳統語文教學是面向選吏，面向科舉的，目的就是讓學生寫好八股文，好中舉做官。教學是讀文章、背文章、模仿前人寫文章，方法是靠老師耳提面命，學生死記硬背，自己體會模仿而慢慢提高的。這種方法在當時就是費時費工的，「十年寒窗苦」，要成才得走多少暗中摸索的彎路。現代社會要求高效率，要求大面積的提高語文水平。對於語文水平的要求也不是單純寫好一篇作文，而是聽說讀寫全面的能力，還要求有合理的知識結構。因此，今天的語文教學要吸取傳統語文教學好的經驗，但必須剔除其中不合理不實用的部分，語文教學必須科學化、現代化。

傳統語文教學的重要缺點之一是忽視知識教學，單純的文選習作正是承襲了這一缺點，是不可取的。為了培養合乎現代社會要求的外語人才，外語院校的漢語教學應該把豐富學生的語文知識與提高學生的閱讀能力、表達能力相結合，不可偏廢。

首先，沒有知識指導的單純模仿的寫作實踐是盲目的實踐。我國中小學的語文教學很重視作文，但也注意擴大學生的知識面。如給學生講古今中外的名篇，以擴大文學知識，課本中還有許多知識短文，給學生介紹一些語法、修辭、邏輯的知識。大學生有更高的理解能力，需要更多的知識來武裝他們，指導他們更好地分析語言與運用語言。單純的文選習作，比中學語文教學還後退了一步，必然不受學生歡迎，也達不到提高學生寫作能力的目的。

其次，高等院校的學生，應該有較廣博的知識，其中包括中國語言文學方面的知識，才能更好地勝任將來的工作。拿我們學校來說，將來培養出來的學生，大部分要在旅遊系統充當導遊翻譯，沒有較豐富的中國言語文化知識，是沒法工作的。已經畢業的學生，就有不少因知識面窄而影響工作的。70年代畢業的一個日語學生曾經告訴我，他有一次給一個日本代表團團長當翻譯，這位團長談到李白和阿布仲麻呂的友誼，並用日語吟誦了李白的《哭晁卿衡》一詩，他由於沒有這方面的知識，翻譯得很糟糕。這不是他日語水平問題，而是缺乏中國文學史的知識，如果他讀過李白這首詩，他這次翻譯會是勝任愉快的。其他還有一些學生帶團參觀古迹，說不清對聯的意思，參觀佛寺，不懂宗教常識等。這些都說明作為一個大學生，要有較寬的知識面，才符合培養的要求。當然漢語課學時有限，不能全部擔當起擴大學生知識面的任務，但理應擔負一部分任務，應把傳授知識與培養技能很好的結合起來。

為此，我們改變了單純文選習作的教學，改為一、二年級開設《語法與修辭》、《中國現代文學》、《中國古代文學》、《寫作》四門必修課，並以此指

導學生加強語言運用的訓練，三、四年級再開設一些以擴大知識面為主的選修課。

（二）

無疑的，外語院校的學生運用漢語的能力是極待提高的，漢語教學中必須花大量的精力來指導學生分析語言和運用語言，教學中必須讓學生動手動口。但是單純的命題作文是不可取的。在教學研討會上，外語院校的漢語老師根據自己的教學體會，總結了命題作文如下的缺點：(1)命題作文往往把學生的注意力首先引導去構思一個故事與情節，而對語文基本功字詞句等的錘煉和推敲反而有所忽視。我們的培養目標是外語翻譯人才，而不是培養作家與記者，我們的課時極其有限，力量要用在刀刃上，什麼「記」，什麼「論」之類的文章是不值得提倡的。(2)學生在校期間生活面和知識面窄，為構思題材而搜索枯腸，難以成文，他們反映：「老師題目好出，我們題材難找」，寫不出來祇好憑空編造或抄襲，甚至改頭換面重抄中學舊作文交差，根本達不到練筆的目的。(3)學生從小學三年級開始寫作文，直到高中畢業，寫了十多年命題作文，到大學還是這一套，感到厭倦，提不起學習的興趣。(4)批改作文費時多，對老師來說負擔極重，而對學生實際幫助不大，作文卷子發下來，學生祇看分數，很少推敲、研究老師的批改，教師的辛勤勞動未得到應有的效果。(5)外語院校的學生外語學習任務重，大量中文作文，耗時過多，造成學生負擔過重，也影響到外語學習。

有鑒於此，我們取消了命題作文的做法，不把學生的精力和有限的教學時數引導到寫文藝性的散文寫作上去，而是多作有針對性的練習，比如語法練習，修辭練習，古文今譯，改寫、縮寫，綜合摘要等，還寫一些應用文。這些練習內容明確，無須構思故事與情節，祇要集中精力斟酌字句即可，費時不多，而收益頗好，且針對性強，可以根據具體要求，設計各種類型的練習，有計劃地訓練邏輯思維與語言運用能力。批改時也較為好批改，減輕了教師的負擔也減輕了學生的負擔。

另外，也可作一些口頭語言練習，口語的訓練是傳統語文教學所忽視的。現代社會信息交流很快，通訊技術空前發達，口頭語言的運用機會很多，而且人機對話的發展，將不一定用程序語言，而可以用自然語言，所以，培養學生的口頭表達能力是十分重要的。目前由於我們的課時太少，課堂太大，練習口語不太可能。所以，祇有加強課外的一些口語活動，如組織演講比賽，辯論會，答問競賽一類的活動。我們也在進一步努力，讓口語教學進入課堂。

（三）

外語院校的公共漢語課的教學內容，還應突出與其他院校公共課不同的特點，因為我們的學生都是以外語學習為主的，漢語是他的母語，外語是他的目的語。要學好兩種語言，必須有兩種語言的對比認識，因此教學中貫徹漢外對比的精神有很重要的。我們在78年的討論會上收到了老一輩的語言專家們王力、葉聖陶、呂叔湘、朱光潛等先生寄來的書面發言（注），他們幾乎都提到了外語院校的漢語教學中的漢外對比問題。我們經過反覆的討論取得了如下的認識，採取了一些措施。

漢語是漢藏語系的重要語言，與印歐語系的語言以及其他各種語言在語音、詞彙、語法等方面都有顯著的不同，外語學院的學生祇有很好的掌握母語和目的語的異同，才能更好的掌握和運用兩種語言。朱光潛先生說：「翻譯界有一種明顯的不健康現象，就是外譯漢時把外文的遣詞造句的框架硬套在漢文上面，結果造成外文式的漢文；漢譯外時也是把漢文的遣詞造句的框架硬套在漢文上面，結果造成漢文式的外文，流行的翻譯作品和自編的外文課本助長了這種歪風，此風不除，不但外語學不好，就連漢語也會日趨拖沓生硬，難達到規範化和純潔化。」可見吃透並掌握兩種語言的特點，對於外語院校的學生今天的學習與將來的工作都是很有用的。

至於如何進行漢外對比的教學，這是一個重大的課題，不單是漢語老師在漢語課中能夠完成的，所以，朱光潛先生又說：「單是設漢語課還不能解決這個問題，首先必須進行幾年有計劃有步驟的中外文對比分析的工作，特別要找出中外文的差異。這種研究工作可按一般語法遣詞造句的次第陸續進行，其中尤以句型的差異為重要。等到大致就緒時，就要編出一部「中文和外文的差異」簡明教材，作為外語教學師生進行這種研究的基礎，不但教師要做，學生也要學着做；不但漢語課裡要做，外語課裡也要做。」呂叔湘先生在書面發言中導我們研究漢外對比時要請外語老師參加會議。葉聖陶先生在書面發言中教導我們請既精通漢語又精通外語的專家來參加會議。張志公先生在我們製定教學大綱時同我們談話中也指出應該漢語比過去，外語比過來，互相配合。

那麼，漢語課進行漢外對比的主要方式是什麼呢？王力先生指出：「目前學英語的人最多，可以拿英語來比較。譬如說，語音方面，漢語普通話沒有濁塞音和濁擦音，漢語拼音方案用的b，d，g，j，z等，實際上都是清音；漢語沒有複輔音，等等。語法方面，詞彙方面，可以比較的更多。」我們體會王先生的意思，是要我們突出漢語的特點，適當聯系外語。講透漢語的特點，是我們漢語課進行漢外對比的主要方式；外語課則在主要講外語的基礎上可聯系母語來進行比較。通過討論我們決定編寫一本貫徹漢

外對比精神的《語法與修辭》教材，我擔任了這本教材的主編。在開始編寫時，我們討論了漢外語言比較問題。我們認為學生把母語與所學目的語言進行比較，能更好地認識母語的特點，也有助於外語學習。但外語院校學生所學語種很多，拿一種語言進行比較，不能對所有學生都有實際意義。如果同時作好幾種語言的比較也是不合適的。因此，我們決定在本教材中貫徹漢外對比的精神，主要講透漢語的特點，引導學生自己去與所學語種比較。教材中不對某種外語作具體比較分析。行文中儘量避免出現外文。另外，組織編寫《漢英語法比較》、《漢日語法比較》、《漢德語法比較》、《漢法語法比較》、《漢俄語法比較》等輔助教材，以《語法與修辭》為本同各種外語語法進行比較。

在《語法與修辭》中對於具有漢語特點的語法現象，都加以重點講解。詞法中量詞、助詞、語氣詞等都是具有特色的詞，除了重點講解外，還應突出說明這幾類詞體現的漢語特點。句法中重詞序與虛詞的特點，也都作了較突出的闡述。比如，詞組一章中介紹了決定漢語詞組類型的三種語法手段。一種是詞序：「工作積極」(主謂)——「積極工作」(偏正)。一種是虛詞：「春天的美麗」(偏正)——「春天美麗」(主謂)。另一種是語境，即要考慮上下文來區分一些歧義詞組，如「愛護學校的學生」如果出現在「這裡一個愛護學校的學生」種，則是偏正詞組，出現在「老師愛護學校的學生」中則是動賓詞組。

在修辭中，對於一些能體現漢語特點的辭格，如對偶、回文、頂真等，都要說明它們的特點，指出這些辭格是其他一些語言所不能有的。對於比喻等各種語言都有的辭格，也強調喻體的民族性。語言風格一章中也比較注重「民族風格」的闡述。

教材中語法部分的一些章中列有專節來講漢語的特點，如「漢語詞法特點」、「漢語復句特點」等。

練習中也注意突出漢語特點並進行漢外語言比較。有些練習題使學生體會到漢語語法的特點，如給學生「送」、「我」、「他」、「書」、「的」、「是」六個詞，請他們按不同的順序組句，並分析出所組句子的成分。這樣的題能使學生充分認識漢語詞序的重要性。有些練習要求學生進行漢外語言的具體比較，如拿「一本書」、「他正在吃飯」、「我看過報紙了」、「這是你的書嗎」等句子，請學生譯成外語，並比較兩種語言在語法上的異同。

該教材一九八一年初版至今，已七次再版，印刷數已超過五十萬冊。全國外語院校以及其他一些院校廣泛採用作為公共漢語課教材，許多自學者也選擇這本教材作為自學書籍。《語法與修辭》歷年來都被廣西南寧新華書店評為暢銷書。一九八八年在承德召開全國教育圖書出版部門會議，頒發了全國第一次優秀教育圖書獎，《語法與修辭》獲榮譽獎。一九八九年獲

北京市優秀教育成果獎，同年，臺灣新文化知識出版社在臺灣用繁體字印刷出版了《語法與修辭》，並稱該教材為大陸「著名教材」，「它的最大特點是結合外語、漢語教學的不同點，加入漢、外語法比較的內容。」

以上是我們在擴大知識面，改變命題作文，進行漢外對比等方面對外語院校漢語課內容所做的一些改革，祇是一種嘗試，目前，教學工作中問題還很多，有待進一步改進。

閩南方言汕頭話「物」的語法特點

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現代漢語普通話和閩南方言汕頭話裡面有一個共同的單音節詞「物」。「物」指「事物、名物或東西」。東漢許慎在《說文解字》中說：「物」：「萬物」。還指出：「牛為大物，天地之數起於牽牛，故從牛，勿聲。」這表明作為形聲結構的「物」，具有名詞的性質，可以充當主語或賓語。隨着社會生產的發展和日常生活的需要，現代漢語普通話單音節詞「物」已擴展成為雙音節名詞，如「物體」、「物質」、「物價」等。作為單音節詞或雙音節名詞語素的「物」，都讀第四聲。但是，閩南方言汕頭話有八個聲調，作為單音節名詞的「物」要讀第八聲，作為雙音節名詞「物食」(指食物)、「物配」(指送飯時吃的菜)、「物件」(指「東西」)中的語素「物」，則要變讀為第四聲，同時，與現代漢語普通話相比較，語序顛倒。這是閩南方言汕頭話名詞或名詞性語素「物」的特色。

「物」的本義是「牛」，「雜色牛」。作為閩南方言的一種次方言——汕頭話對「物」這個詞的形旁「牛」加以強化，發揮用手出力「牽牛」的效能，使「物」主要用作動詞，經常充當謂語。「物」表示各種動作行為的轉義相當豐富廣泛，如「搞、弄、辦、干、打、取、拿、抓、撞、修理、製作、爭取、使用、對付、建設」等。本文着重談談動詞「物」的一些語法特點。

一、汕頭話的「物」經常受副詞、形容詞或能愿動詞修飾，能帶賓語。例如：我唔物(我不搞)。你勿物(你別搞)。伊不會物(他不會搞)。你孬物(你不好搞)。伊未物(他未做)。伊散物(他亂搞。「散」與「亂」同義)。伊定着物(他一定干)。他無定着物(他不一定干)。伊散四物(他隨意亂搞)。你就物(你馬上修理)。伊就頭物(他隨便安排)。你草略物(你簡單修理)。你猛物，伊慢物(你快動手，他遲動手)。你物內，我物外(你對付裡面，我對付外面)。伊欲物只塊，你猛猛物許塊(他要取這個，你快快取那個)。

古代漢語「勿」字後邊的動詞一般不帶賓語。閩南方言汕頭話動詞「物」前面加「勿」卻可以帶上賓語。例如：你勿物伊(你別動他)。伊也勿物你(他也別動你)。

二、汕頭話的「物」經常充當謂語中心語，可帶補語。補語一般由趨向動詞、形容詞、數量詞群或介賓詞群充當。例如：你物〈起〉物〈落〉(你提

〈起〉放〈下〉）。你物〈起來〉（你扶〈起來〉）。伊物〈落去〉（他推〈下去〉）。你物〈一下〉（你抓〈一下〉）。伊物〈一帀〉（他干〈一次〉）。伊物〈到半死〉（他做〈到半死〉）。伊物〈到入入〉（他插得〈很深入〉）。伊物〈到半夜三更〉（他工作〈到深夜〉）。伊物〈到倒移顛倒〉（他弄〈到東歪西倒〉）。伊同孬物物〈到好物〉（他從不好使用修理〈到可以使用〉）。伊物〈到你乜個囉看唔見〉（他弄得〈你甚麼東西都看不見〉）。

三、汕頭話的「物」能帶動態助詞「着、過」，充當謂語帶補語或賓語。例如：伊物着〈艱苦死〉（他干得〈很辛苦〉）。伊物着〈好死〉（他玩得〈很開心〉，「死」相當於程度副詞「很」。）伊物着〈易易〉（他干得〈很順利〉）。伊物着〈畏畏〉（他干得〈很厭煩〉）。伊物着〈無辦〉（他干得〈無辦法〉）。伊物着〈全個孬物〉（他干得〈認為完全不好辦〉）。伊物着人囉（他撞着人家了）。伊今日物着頭獎（他今天中着頭等獎）。

以上各例表明動詞「物」有「干、玩、撞、中」等意思。汕頭話的「着」有第八聲和第四聲兩種聲調。「着」附在「物」之後讀第八聲（相當於漢語普通話第四聲）時，後面一般由形容性詞語或動詞性詞語充當補語，如上述前六例。「着」附在「物」之後讀第四聲時，後面一般由名詞性詞語充當賓語，如上述後兩例。此外，「物」還可以與「過」組合，表示動作曾經完成，如「伊膠物過囉」（他曾經做過了）。

四、汕頭話的「物」可以與疑問代詞構成疑問句，還可以用肯定否定並列形式發問。例如：只件事你不看欲〈做呢〉物？（這件事情你看該〈怎麼〉辦？）你雙目金金，囉物乜個？（你兩隻眼睛發亮，在干甚麼？）你不欲物唔物？（你想要干不干？）人個行李收好囉，你物好呀未？（人家的行李收拾好了，你搞好了嗎？）

以上四句，首句是特指問句，第二句是泛指問句，第三句是正反並列問句，末句是是非問句，「物」顯示出動詞的功能。

五、汕頭話的「物」可以重叠，與「物」構成的動詞詞群也可以重叠，表示各種不同的意義特點。例如：

你物物看好呀孬？（「物物」指「試一試」）

伊物物只塊物物許塊囉物無路唓！（「物」指「弄」。「物物」重叠表示強調反復多次。「只塊」、「許塊」分別指「這裡」、「那裡」。「囉」指「在」。）

只個物乞伊物物物物，物物物，住物活起來囉。（三四個「物」字重叠，這是潮陽話所特有的特點，表示反復多次擺動、修理，堅持不懈，很有決心。「乞」即「給」。「住」即「就」。「物」指「弄」。三四個「物」重叠時，第二、四個「物」要連讀變調。）

伊物會成呀物𠀾成？（「物」指「辦」。由「物」構成的動詞性詞群重叠表示沒把握。）

伊物會四直呀物𠊎四直？(「物」指「料理、處理」。「四直」即「清楚」。由「物」構成的動詞性詞群重疊表示有懷疑。)

我無心情物無心情物。(「物」指「完成」。由「物」構成的動詞性詞群重疊表示信心不足。)

伊物過來物過去老是物無歇。(「物」指「弄」。「無歇」即「不停」。由「物」構成的動詞性詞群重疊表示多次反復出現。)

伊無力，物唔得起物唔得起。(「物」指「抬」。由「物」構成的動詞性詞群重疊表示可能性不大。)

伊新干部，物無乜來物無乜來。(「物」指「干」。由「物」構成的動詞詞群重疊表示能力有限，干不來，形容不大會干。)

伊無水平，物唔對頭物唔對頭。(「物」指「抓」，即「領導」。由「物」構成的動詞性詞群重疊表示水平較低。)

閩南方言汕頭話「物」與名詞「物」可以連用。例如：

你勿拉件物物伊！(連謂句)

你欲物件物做呢？(疑問句)

你欲物伊件物做呢？(雙賓句)

閩南方言汕頭話「物」可以與「物」構成的雙音節名詞連用。例如：

你物〈無〉一件物件〈出來〉。(「物」指「拿」，「物件」指具體事物。)

你物塊物食分我食。(「物」指「取」。「物食」指「食物」。)

欲食物配你膠己物。(「物」指「動手」。「膠己」即「自己」。「物配」指供送飯吃的菜。)

汕頭話動詞「物」比名詞「物」更常用廣泛用。講汕頭話的人使用動詞「物」類似人們喜歡使用「搞」這個動詞，常用的頻率比任何動詞都高，幾乎任何動作的表現都可以以「物」這個動詞來代替。但是，閩南方言汕頭話動詞「物」並不等於現代漢語普通話「搞」，因有不同的語法特點：動詞「搞」不能重叠，只有「搞一搞」的說法，沒有「搞搞」的說法，更沒有像潮陽話「物物物」、「物物物物」那種多個重叠式和特點。「搞」原是四川話的一個方言詞。由於漢語普通話沒有這個詞，後來才把它加以吸收使用。

古代漢語的「物」早已用作動詞，有「觀察」、「看」或「選擇」的意思。《左傳》昭公三十二年：「仞溝洫，物其土。」注：「物，相也。」「相」就是「觀察、看」。《周禮・地官・卝人》中記載：「則物其地，圖而授之，巡其禁令。」「物」有「選擇」的意思，是動詞。

《庄子・山木》中說：「物物而不物於物，則胡可得而累邪？」意思是：要支配物而不給物支配。「物物」的前一個用作動詞，指人對萬物的「支配」。

《荀子・天論》中記載：「思物而物之，孰與理物而勿失之也！」意思是：羨慕自然而企圖得到它，何如治理自然物而不使它喪失啊！「物之」

的「物」作動詞用·企圖得到的意思。（見人民教育出版社《古代散文選》上冊·113面）

從現代漢語的情況來看·現代漢語「物」常在文言格式和固定詞群中作為名詞使用·如「物以類聚、物極必反、物傷其類、物換星移、物盡其用」中的「物」·都是名詞。沒有兼動詞這種性質。

從閩南方言其他次方言的情況來看·臺灣話、海南話、雷洲半島話都沒有將「物」用作動詞。廈門話是閩南方言的代表·也沒有將「物」用作動詞。只將「物」用作名詞。不過·廈門話有一個與「物」同音的動詞「扢」[but]·是「用力打」的意思·如「大力扢」·「扢一下」即「打一下」。它不是以「牛」為偏旁。（見廈門大學中國語言文學研究所漢語方言研究室主編的《普通話閩南方言詞典》825面·福建人民出版社出版·1982年10月）廈門話沒有繼承古代漢語「物」用作動詞的特點·「扢」用作動詞也不及汕頭話動詞「物」用得如此廣泛而經常。

從香港粵方言·廣州粵方言和客家方言及其次方言的情況來看·也未發現有以「物」為動詞並廣泛經常使用。

由此可見·閩南方言汕頭話一直保留和引申擴展古代漢語單音節動詞特點是較為穩固的·是更有古代漢語的特色的。難怪有人說：汕頭話是「中國最古老的方言」。從這一點來說·現代漢語語法的穩固性不如汕頭話。

汕頭地區地處廣東省沿海東部·汕頭市已成為中國五大經濟特區之一·有幾百萬人口。隨着社會主義市場經濟的建立和完善·改革關於的深化和現代化建設的蓬勃發展·海內外、國內外交際的頻繁·熟悉、使用和研究汕頭話的特點規律·充分發揮閩南方言汕頭話的效能·具有深遠和現實的意義。

規範·風格·變異

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本文討論語言規範問題，主要是明確語言規範的客觀性，以及語言風格、言語變異同語言規範的關係，澄清一些認識。

語文教學的工具是語言，語文教學的一個重要任務是培養學生的語言能力。而認識和遵守語言規範是獲得語言能力、使用語言的重要條件和基礎。對此，人們不是都有清楚的認識。不少人以為語言規範不過是語言學家們主觀定出來的，強調語言規範就會抹煞個人風格，會使語言僵化。有的人甚至作出「文學語言在本質上是反規範的」這樣的論斷。這樣的一些認識顯然是不正確的，若不加以澄清，就會造成認識上的混亂，影響語文教學中語言因素的正確實施，妨害語文教學任務的落實。

一、語言規範的客觀性

語言(包括漢語)的規範是客觀存在，是語言的社會性決定的，不是某些人主觀做出的要大家遵照執行的規定。有語言，就有規範。沒有使用該語言的全社會成員「約定」的規範，那是不可想像的，那種「語言」是否存在也就成了問題了。

語言是一套信息符號系統。符號及其系統的「製定」是社會約定俗成的，同時為社會所有成員共同遵守。A符號表示a信息，你要自行其是，偏要用A符號去表示別的信息，或者自創一種別的甚麼符號，總之是不按社會約定俗成的規範行事，這如何實現語言的交際職能？

語言作為一套符號系統，隨着社會的發展不斷發展變化。符號系統的發展變化過程也是語言規範不斷發展和「自我調整」的過程。這裡有除舊布新，還有去蕪求精、去偽存真。這是適應社會需要並為社會所決定的。社會要求語言更好地為它服務，要求語言往純潔、健康的方向發展，而絕不會是相反。這是一條客觀規律。沒有火柴這個事物，當然不會產生相應的信息符號，有了這個事物，適應當時的社會狀況和人們的認識，漢語裏產生了「洋火」這個詞；社會發生了變革，人們的觀念有了更新，改用「火柴」這個詞稱呼，一定時期內兩種稱呼並存、並用；以後，普遍地用後者取代了前者。這不過是一個小例子，反映了語言及其規範的發展和「調整」的

社會性和客觀性，除舊布新、去蕪求精、去偽存真是社會的需要，客觀的必然。

在語言發展的歷史長河中，規範或者「純一」是相對的，對規範的沖擊或者不純一是絕對的——總會有，會不斷發生。不純有兩種。一種是社會發展的需要，衝擊了原先的「純一」或規範，逐漸為社會認可，語言及其規範向前發展了，進入新的平衡、統一。另一種是不利於語言有效地實現其社會交際職能，是一種干擾或阻礙，這種不純必將受到社會的抵制、排斥或廢棄。這是客觀規律。

人們在客觀規律面前並非無能為力，客觀規律是可以也應當加以認識的。認識和掌握了語言發展和語言規範的客觀規律，就能夠主動順應規律，促使語言向純潔、健康的方向發展。語言學家和政府有關部門起着尤為重要的作用。深入研究語言發展和語言規範的實際狀況和具體規律，適時地提出語言規範化的具體要求，有步驟地進行有關的語言文字整理工作，等等，這就是語言規範化工作。能夠主動地研究並順應客觀規律，指導人們更自覺地認識和遵守語言規範，從而促使語言向純潔、健康的方向發展，這是人類文明的表現。我們既不能將語言的規範同語言規範化工作混為一談，也不能把二者對立起來。近四十年，漢語規範化工作取得了很大成績，這是順應漢語發展和漢語規範的客觀規律的結果。當然，人們的認識總是有局限的，總是落後於存在的，對於漢語規範的實際狀況及其規律的認識也是這樣，在漢語規範化工作過程中，可能出現某些片面性或處理不盡妥當的問題，因此需要不斷加強研究工作，深化認識。不能因為我們在認識上或工作中可能出現某些片面性，而錯誤地以為語言規範本身有片面性，社會要求人們接受語言規範的制約是片面的。對此，我們必須有正確的認識。

二、語言風格的規範性

以為語言規範（或者強調語言規範）會抹煞語言風格的多樣性，導致語言僵化，這顯然是一種誤解。時至今日，有這樣誤解的人還不少。究其原因，我看有兩個方面。一方面是在進行漢語規範化工作中，對於語言規範的一些基本理論問題，諸如語言規範的客觀性、社會性，語言與語言風格的關係等，研究不夠，宣傳不夠。另一方面是多年來我們的語言研究工作存在一定的偏向，重視一般性規律的研究，比較忽視特殊性規律，重視語言結構的靜態描述，比較忽視語言的運用。因此，很少深入到各風格類型，研究其語言規範的特殊規律和不同要求。呂叔湘在87年寫的一篇文章裏曾指出：「這裏又涉及語言規範問題：對於不同風格的語言恐怕不能作同樣的要求。」[1]足見問題是存在的。

研究語言規範問題，不研究風格是不行的。因為語言風格是語言變體，也就是一種語言的具體表現形式。如果說「語言」是一般，那麼各種變體就是個別。一般存在於個別之中；個別表現一般，同時有自身的特點。我們要研究一般規律，又必須研究特殊規律；離開了個別，無從認識一般，不研究特殊規律，也就很難得到全面、正確的結論。語言規範的客觀性、社會性，就包含了風格，包含了各類風格的語言規範。不同的功能風格，即語體，有不同的特點和規範要求，不是可以脫離規範，可以不受語言社會的制約。個人使用語言形式成個人風格，這是語言的個人表現形式，也就是具有個人特點的語言規範(包括語體規範)的具體表現，同樣不能脫離語言規範，不能不受語言社會性的制約。

以語言成份的省略為例。使用語言，無論是哪類語體，哪種個人風格，完全沒有語言成分的省略，幾乎是不可能的。可是，不同風格適應不同的交際需要，對於省略的要求會有所不同。正式體風格，對語境(特別是聽讀者的聯想活動)依賴少，句子的語義盡可能自足，注意語句的嚴整，語言成分省略的頻率和範圍控制較嚴，一般是承前省(極少蒙後省)，省略主語成份(省別種成份的現象遠不及此)。非正式體風格，多方位地利用語境，包括聽讀者的聯想活動，求語言的經濟、便捷，或含蓄、雋永，顯現的句法成份比實際表達的往往要少，語言成分省略的頻率和範圍比正式體風格大得多，很靈活。[2]可見不同風格有不同的語言特點。這是人們語言實踐的結果，是社會的需要，由社會決定的。尊重不同風格是社會的要求，這本身就是一種語言規範。這是一。不同風格的語言規範有各自的特殊規律，這方面我們以往研究得不夠，今後需要加強；然而有特殊規律不等於沒有規範，特殊規律就是規範。這是二。再者，特殊規律要接受一般規律的指導，就語言成分的省略來說，無論哪種風格都得遵守省略的基本原則，那就是在特定的語境中，句子所省略的成分能得以「補足」，語意明確，信息暢通，否則，無論是哪種風格，都不能說是符合規範要求的。為了說明問題，看兩個實例。其一：[3]

——這五天來，我天天跟她在一起。

——你天天^ ？^ 跟這瘋女人^ ？(跟她在一起，你，在一起)

——是的。……我們天天在那兒。

——那兒？那兒是甚麼地方？

——^ 牌坊。(那兒是)(陳潔《牌坊》)

這是兩個人的日常談話，非正式體風格，語言簡省，便捷，語言成份省略有較大的靈活性，但是根據語境所省略的成分能得以補足(以上括號裏補入的成份)，語意明確，信息暢通。這樣的省略情形既體現了非正式體風格的

特點，反映了非正式體語言規範的特殊規律，又符合語言規範的一般準則。

——兄弟，我跟楚爾卡都愛上她了，我們老是吵架！

——跟她吵架？

——哪兒的話！我們自己吵唄。跟她很少吵架。（高爾基《人間》）

這也是寫兩個人的日常談話，是非正式體風格，語言成分省略的現象也較普遍。有一處省略不當，引起誤解，信息受阻，以至得再費唇舌做解釋，這便有悖於語言規範的一般準則。如果第一個說話人把後一分句說成「我們因為她老是吵架」，就不至於使對方誤解了（也可以改說成「我跟楚爾卡……」，則原句是「我們」指代不明）。作者高爾基正是掌握了語言規範的一般準則，才能如實寫出上述對話的語言。

三、規範是變異的基礎

語言單位或語言成分是一定音義的結合體，這種結合是約定俗成的，具有全民性（社會性）和穩固性特點。為了表達的特殊需要，故意改變有關語言成份固有的音義結合關係（包括語義、語法、語用），這種情形就是我們所指的「變異」。變異是在言語活動即話語中產生的，具有個體性和臨時性；規範語言是「語言」層面，變異屬於言語或話語層面。許多修辭手法是建立在語言變異基礎上的，如借喻、借代、轉品、拆詞、仿詞、移就、拈連等。文藝作品較普遍地使用語言變異的手法。從表層看，變異是對規範語言的背離，有人因此提出「文藝語言本質上是反規範的」這樣的論斷。這樣的論斷似是而非。提出這種論斷的人祇看到表面現象，沒有看到變異與規範之間深刻的內在聯繫。實際上，變異不能不以規範語言為基礎和前提。以言語中存在或可以有變異現象來否定語言規範普遍的制約作用，懷疑或貶低語言規範化工作的意義，是不正確的。

文學語言中的語言變異，是利用別異的辭面獲得特別表達效果的藝術手法。如果我們祇是簡單地將別異的辭面同特別的表達效果之間劃等號，即認為有別異的辭面就有相應的表達效果，那就錯了。事實是，任何能產生特別表達效果的變異，都不可能是絕對「自由」的，而是必須受控制的，包括接受規範語言的制約。這樣說，似乎難以理解：變異是超越規範，怎麼又要受規範語言的制約呢？如果我們不是表面的、片面的而是從實質上、從內在聯系上看問題，就不難理解。

首先，任何有實際價值的變異，都是作者認真掌握了有關語言成分的固有特點（即規範）的基礎上，以此為出發點，有針對性地加以「扭曲」的結果。如果不是這樣，作者對有關語言成分的固有特點沒有認識，隨心所

欲，其結果就不會是有實際價值的變異，不是甚麼藝術語言，祇能是對語言規範的干擾或破壞，是病句。比較兩個例子：

(1) 你的贈書用了「前輩」，你為甚麼要和我開這個玩笑呢？我從來沒有「後輩」過你……你以後別這樣了，我見外了，這是我要責備你的。(《李健吾致師陀書》81年4月26日)

(2) 這幅畫不正寓意文藝工作者在濃墨重彩地描繪我們生氣勃勃的春天嗎？(報)

按規範「後輩」、「寓意」都是名詞，而在(1)(2)裏用作了動詞。前者是作者明知故「犯」，是有針對性的「扭曲」(上文「前輩」的規範用法以及「後輩」轉在加引號以提示，可證)，在這個語境裏，比說成「沒有用『後輩』稱過或待過你」靈活，隨意性風格帶來輕鬆、和諧的氣氛，不如此，則顯得動「真格兒」的了——這便是如是表達的美學效應。後者(例2)不然，作者沒弄清「寓意」的規範用法，誤作動詞用，不是有針對性的自覺的言語行為，不可能產生甚麼藝術效果，而是妨害語言的正常交際，是病句。

第二，任何有實際價值的變異，都一定能為人們理解和接受，是有生命力的。照說，變異既然是有關語言成分超越了固有的音義結合，即超越了社會的規定性，祇會造成人們接收信息的困難，妨害語言的順利交際，為甚麼它能為人們理解和接受，而且有生命力呢？因為變異現象發生在言語活動即話語中，受制於一定的言語場(包括語體、語境等)，顯現於辭面的語言成分，(包括語義、語法關係)在該言語場的制約下引起並通過聽讀者的聯想活動，按照思維、聯想的內在規律，得以「修補」，從而獲得既可理解又有一定美學價值的信息。離開了特定的言語場以及人們根據顯現的辭面聯系特定言語場的思維、聯想活動，沒有或者不能做出相應的「修補」，變異現象就難以成立，或者就不是我們所指的即有實際價值的變異。語言使用者的語言能力就體現在，他能依據特定的言語場選取足以喚起人們的思維、聯想活動的語言形式，使這幾方面取得高度的和諧統一。而人們的思維、聯想活動，以及通過思維、聯想活動對辭面所作的合理「修補」，實際上是潛形式的言語過程，這個言語過程是不能離開規範語言的。宋祁的《玉樓春》詞有一個名句「紅杏枝頭春意鬧」，中國社科院文學所編的《唐宋詞選》收錄了這首詞，編者說：「『紅杏枝頭』句，正得力於這個『鬧』字。有了這個字，就容易使讀者聯想到紅杏盛開的枝頭，蜂圍蝶舞，生意盎然的春天景象。」編者的這番理解，反映了詩句信息溝通的潛言語過程，讀者正是通過這樣的潛言語展開聯想，對變異形式的詩句做了合理的「修補」，而整個潛言語活動是使用規範語言。即就顯現的語言成分說，也不是祇有變異，沒有規範，完全擺脫規範語言制約的。變

異總是處在一個言語片段中，變異是局部的，或者從某一側面看是變異，必須由規範性語言成分作它的基礎或背景，否則變異的效用也無從顯現。如「春意鬧」這個組合從詞義的搭配看是變異，它由「春意」和「鬧」兩個詞組成，這兩個詞各自固有的音義結合關係是變異的基礎，是該變異形式獲得修辭效應的根據：「鬧」有熱鬧、喧鬧的意思，正是從這個基礎出發，喚起人們合理的聯想，從而獲得特別的表達效果。試換成「吵」或「叫」之類，雖然「春意吵(叫)」也是超常組合，恐怕就不能是名句而是敗筆了。可見，變異的言語從實質上說，就全過程看，不可能不受規範語言的制約。將變異形式或藝術語言同規範語言、語言規範絕對地對立起來，分割開來，並從而懷疑或貶低語言規範的普通意義，是不正確的。

再看一個作家對原作做修改的例子：

〔原文〕她遠遠的望見一匹白練似的埃那克河蜿曲的在山下流動着……

〔改文〕她遠遠的望見一條白練似的埃那克河蜿曲的在山下流動着……(鄭振鐸《埃娥》)

這是文學作品，文學語言，作者不是把文學語言同語言規範對立起來，而是嚴肅認真地對待文學語言和語言規範。原文「一匹白練似的埃那克河」，按語法規範也是通的，因為白練可以論「匹」。但是作者把它改成「條」，可謂精益求精，一是原文還可以作另一種理解，即「一匹……河」，這就不通了，二是即使照「一匹白練」這樣理解，用一匹白練形容河也扞格難安(匹，成卷兒；河，平展)。可見，文學語言的藝術性同語言的規範性，在本質上是協調一致的關係：即使有時表面上是矛盾的，而實質上是統一的。

附註：

① 文章題為《語言和語言研究》，見《百科知識》雜誌1987年第7期。

② 拙作《句式與語體》(載《語文研究》雜誌1987年第2期)、《言語風格學》(湖北教育出版社1990年4月版)有典型材料的調查統計，可參見。

SOME THOUGHTS ON QUALITY AND STANDARDS IN EDUCATION WITH REGARD TO THE TARGET ORIENTED CURRICULUM

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Quality

Since the overall aim of Hong Kong's Target-Oriented Curriculum (TOC) is to improve the quality of learning, it is necessary to attempt to give some sort of definition of what is meant by quality. Dictionaries tend to define the quality of something in terms of its 'goodness' or 'value'. It is, thus, necessary to define what is meant by 'goodness' or 'value' in relation to education. Agreement as to what constitutes 'goodness' in education has proved elusive, since perceptions as to what constitutes good education are determined in part at least by ideology. Quality in education means different things to different people. This, however, does not obviate the need for every community to attempt to construct a broad consensus for itself as to what constitutes quality in education.

In recent years, Governments have tended to adopt the operational definition of quality that was worked out and applied by successful Japanese businessmen in the 60s and 70s, when Japanese businesses moved from the production of rather poor quality goods to goods that not only matched but soon surpassed the quality of those of their American and European competitors. This definition was 'fitness for purpose', and purpose was defined as 'customer satisfaction'. Thus the quality of a tin-opener was judged in terms of whether it opened tins in a way that satisfied the customers. Criteria setting out the characteristics to be displayed by a good tin-opener could be negotiated with the customer. This might include such features as a means to ensure that the customer's hand was not cut when operating it, or a means to ensure that it opened all shapes of tin, cut cleanly and did not leave jagged edges etc. The strategy adopted by the Japanese, and now by many businesses worldwide, is generally referred to as 'Total Quality Management' (Juran, 1988).

When applied to education, the concepts of 'fitness for purpose' and 'customer satisfaction' pose problems, however. Who is the customer for whose purpose the education system as a whole is to be fitted? The student is one obvious customer. The parent is another. They are unlikely to see purposes of education in exactly the same way. Employers are also customers of the education system, as is the Government. Teachers and academics who embody the wisdom built up within each subject discipline see the education system as providing them with customers to join their knowledge-based communities. Each of these groups will see fitness for purpose in a different way.

For individual students the quality of the education system will no doubt be judged in terms of the extent to which it responds to their individual characteristics, brings about happiness and a healthy self-image, and leads to the maximum possible all-round development of their intellectual, physical, social, emotional, artistic, moral, spiritual and other capabilities, in the light of their personal characteristics and requirements. For parents, fitness for purpose is almost always seen in terms of whether the education of their children leads to good qualifications and career prospects. For employers, fitness for purpose is seen in terms of the needs of their particular business, and in recent years vocational education has made enormous advances in tailoring training to the needs of the workplace. For Government policy-makers, as self-appointed or elected leaders of a community, the quality of an education system will be seen from the perspective of their particular ideology, and in terms of how they believe economic prosperity and social cohesion can best be carried forward. Among academics and teachers there is often a tendency to wish to hide behind the mysteries of their disciplines and to resist attempts to make what constitutes quality explicit. Thus, for example, Pring (1992) sees more merit in empowering HMIs, academics and teachers to judge quality on the basis of their authority as long-established members of their academic communities, rather than in attempting to make what constitutes quality explicit and risk the danger of trivialising or distorting it. There is, then, the problem of differences of view as to what is meant by 'fitness for purpose' according to who is the 'customer', and there is also the problem of making explicit what is meant by the term 'quality'. There is also the problem that unlike industry's products whose use will be more or less immediate, educational products, in the form of knowledge and capability embodied in human beings, are not designed just to fit the immediate requirements of today but to *improve the quality of life of the community over the longer term*.

There are perhaps four broad educational value-systems at work in the determination of what constitutes quality in education (Skilbeck 1982, Kemmis et al 1983). The first of these, Classical Humanism, sees quality as inherent in the traditions of subject disciplines and in what are perceived to be the higher manifestations of culture in a community. On this view the quality of an education system is judged in terms of the extent to which it inculcates and builds upon the traditions of wisdom and excellence that have already been established. Within this value-system it is academics and custodians of cultural traditions who determine what constitutes quality. A second value-system, Reconstructionism, which is currently in the ascendant, sees quality in terms of fitness for the requirements of social and economic progress interpreted into goals to be attained, and involving the determination of the best means to reach them. A third value-system, Progressivism, is based on a learner-centred view of education which highlights growth through experience towards more personal goals and values that are developed and internalised as the process develops. A fourth value-system, the Social-Critical view, judges the quality of an education system in terms of whether what is being done will lead to a fairer world in which inequalities are overcome, equity pursued and equality of the outcomes of education achieved.

In a pluralistic society it would seem sensible to attempt to work towards the reconciliation of such conflicting views of quality, each of which have obvious merits, into an overall framework which allows for all of them. I have argued the case for this elsewhere (Clark 1987), and, would, in summary, tentatively put forward the following operational definition of what constitutes quality of learning based on the four value-systems outlined above:

Quality of learning will be present when:—

- learners are able to become members of the various communities who embody the wisdom and values of academic disciplines, and are thus able to take part in the sort of investigating, thinking, knowing, communicating, appreciating, and problem-solving appropriate to each discipline: fitness for the purpose of constructing and using knowledge wisely.
- learners' knowledge and capabilities fit the requirements of the world and the community that they live in and provide them with the means to improve the quality of life: fitness for the purpose of further developing the quality of life of the community.
- learners are enabled to develop their intellectual, physical, social, emotional, artistic, moral and spiritual capabilities in line with their own individual characteristics: fitness for the purpose of personal growth.
- progress is being made towards greater equality of educational outcome among learners: fitness for the purpose of realising a fairer world.

Hong Kong's Target-Oriented Curriculum (TOC) sets out deliberately to attempt to reconcile these different views, and to build them into a cross-curricular framework to be realised in each subject.

Standards

It is through setting out standards that quality is assured. Setting an educational standard means producing a clearly defined statement which specifies what must be done if the standard is to be met. In order to have met a particular standard, there must be a goal, evidence of worthwhile performance in relation to the goal, and certain qualities displayed.

Educational standards can perhaps best be seen as quality 'benchmarks' against which performance can be judged. It is a misuse of the term 'standards' to talk about an improvement or decline in educational 'standards', since it is not the standards that go up or down but student performance as measured against them. Standards need to be objective explicit statements against which performance can be judged.

It is, of course, difficult to produce evidence of improvement or decline in performance over the years, unless one has a common, constant standard against which to measure this. Educational standards or benchmarks, however, do not and should not remain static and common across the years, since what a community wants to achieve through its education system and what qualities it wishes to promote, each of which are embodied in standards, change from time to time in response to shifts in contextual requirements and perceptions. Hong Kong's Target-Oriented Curriculum project is an attempt to set out explicit standards in line with today's interpretation of what is meant by quality or fitness for purpose in education. The standards are set out as learning targets and as bands of performance that describe progress in working towards them.

'Targets' and 'Objectives' are distinguished the one from the other, in the sense in which I wish to use these terms. Targets are holistic statements of purpose that attempt to capture the essence of what learners are to learn towards. Objectives are more analytical and focus on individual areas or bits knowledge, and on individual skills and strategies. Objectives have to be integrated within targets. Thus, for example, a learning target in English might be 'to develop an ever-improving capability to use English to exchange simple letters, make simple telephone calls, and send postcards', and within this there might be a large number of smaller more analytical learning objectives such as 'to learn to greet people appropriately' or 'to learn to write an address correctly'. Educational standards have to do with targets, since if learning is to be shown to be effective, it must not just lead to mastery of items of knowledge and part skills, but more importantly to a capability to integrate and apply these in a wide variety of tasks and contexts.

Cognitive models of learning have shown that learning towards holistic targets is best conceptualised as a spiral or cyclical process in which learners revisit knowledge and skill objectives in ever more-demanding tasks and develop ever-improving broad capabilities. Effective learning is not achieved simply by mastering knowledge and skill objectives one after another (Welford 1968, Glaser 1992, Romberg 1992). Performance in relation to holistic educational targets is best seen in relative (ever-improving) terms, rather than in absolute (pass/fail: mastery/non-mastery) ones. We need therefore to capture the essence of ever-improving capability in a series of levels or bands of performance that describe ever-improving capability. Hong Kong's Target-Oriented Curriculum sets out a progressive scale of standards (targets and bands of performance) indicating the various capabilities that different students need to develop as they progress. We try to make clear what has to be done and what qualities have to be displayed to manifest capability at each stage of development. It is a descriptive and progressive view of standards, in which the descriptions of progress that are set out in the bands of performance will be based on the reality of typical progress in learning in the agreed directions. Such a view acknowledges the fact that individuals rise to different levels at different speeds at different times, and that it is unrealistic to attempt to set out hypothetical absolutes that prescribe in advance what should be done by all at a certain fixed time. TOC challenges the deeply-ingrained but I believe unhelpful aspiration prevalent in Hong Kong that there should be an absolute standard or norm that should apply to all students at a certain age, and it challenges the idea that we should label students 'remedial' if they fail to come up to this. Rather, it embraces the reality of differentiated student progress in the development of ever-improving capabilities in different areas of the curriculum, and embodies these in progressive standards which describe stages of progress in the desired directions. It seeks to encourage all students with their differing speeds of learning to learn as fast and as well as they can. Improving the quality of learning means ensuring that more students develop better capabilities and advance through the progressive stages more effectively and quickly.

Finally, it is important to bear in mind that as in 'Total Quality Management', we need to set out standards in education that apply to the process of education as much as to the product. Education, like any other active, productive process is best seen as a system of interrelated phases, involving planning, resourcing, bringing about learning, assessing, evaluation and renewal. Quality has to be assured in each of these phases. The immediate 'customers' of the planners are the resourcers, and the immediate 'customers' of the resourcers are the teachers, and so on throughout the system. It is thus crucially important to recognise that all those involved in the educational process form a team, and that each member of the team is responsible for the quality of the whole and for the quality of their part within it. In a very real sense the quality of the whole is only as good as the quality of the weakest element within it. The car with a faulty electrical circuit is only as good as the electrical circuit allows it to be. An education system with faulty resources, for example, is only as good as the resources will permit it to be. All phases of the education process are equally important, and all those involved in them might usefully seek to formulate standards for themselves in the form of targets and performance indicators that help them to monitor their progress and ensure the quality or 'fitness for purpose' of their contribution towards the whole.

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'LESSONS FOR ANALYSIS' IN PRE-SERVICE COURSES

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Introduction

In Hong Kong the Colleges of Education employ 'Lessons for Analysis' (LFAs) as an important, pre-teaching practice strand of their teacher education programmes. These LFAs are conducted by selected student demonstrators (SDs) and planned through consultation with lecturers. They usually take place in a large hall or lecture theatre where a mock classroom has been created. Pupils from a local school form the class to be taught and the proceedings are observed by an audience of student teachers (STs) and lecturers. The lessons are also video-taped. The intention is to provide a basis for the discussion of possible teaching approaches. A prescriptive element may be present as these lessons essentially retain the format of the former Demonstration Lessons from which they recently evolved.

The Background

The continued existence of LFAs in the Colleges is a matter for debate, despite long traditional usage. One factor is the growing movement away from the artisan/apprentice model of teacher education towards a more humanistic, reflective approach, which recognises the unique nature of each teaching and learning environment (Richards and Nunan, Eds., 1990; Wallace 1991). Moreover, observational research studies that have sought to identify either a 'best' global teaching method or even the 'best' teaching techniques have tended to remain inconclusive, further hastening the trend from prescription to description (Allwright 1988). At the same time, considerable attention has been devoted to the individual nature of learning strategies (Stern 1983; O'Malley and Chamot 1990; Oxford 1990), to learner differences (Skehan 1989), to learner independence and responsibility and to the importance of learning how to learn (Bransford 1979; Ellis and Sinclair 1989). Indeed, the appearance of self-access materials and the like underscores the central importance of independence of thought and action as a desirable characteristic in education (Dickenson 1987). Such factors, coupled with the need for student teachers as learners to experience success repeatedly (Hamachek 1978) in a low anxiety environment that does not raise the affective filter (Krashen 1981), suggest a critical reappraisal.

The pending establishment of the new tertiary Hong Kong Institute of Education is particularly welcome in this context as it offers the four Colleges and the Institute of Language in Education the opportunity to reflect on a wide range of current practices. As part of this on-going re-evaluation process, this article therefore investigates Lessons for Analysis in order to determine their effectiveness and to identify possible alternatives. The study that forms the basis of this informal discussion paper has no claim to absolute scientific validity and considers only English LFAs in one college; the conduct of LFAs will vary considerably among institutions and individual departments.

Lessons for Analysis: The Rationale

In the absence of a comprehensive policy statement elucidating the principles underpinning LFAs, it is assumed that the rationale might include:

- preparing STs for teaching practice;
- relating theory to practice;
- offering samples of differing lesson types;
- illustrating different lesson stages;
- demonstrating a variety of teaching techniques;
- indicating how textbooks can be adapted;
- showing how to exploit visual aids and technical resources, and
- providing examples of appropriate classroom management skills.

The lesson would be conducted in a pleasant learning atmosphere. STs in the audience would be supplied with focused observation forms and the observing students would gain in confidence, collecting ideas relevant to their teaching practice classrooms.

The Study

The study comprised a form with open-ended questions to elicit the views of English Department staff (with a response rate of 60% or 9 replies), and a 24-item questionnaire administered to 54 out of 59 final year English elective students on the three year course, their experience of LFAs being the broadest among the student body. All but three of the 24 items stated the benefits of LFAs in positive terms, with students being asked to respond on a 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree) scale. The three exceptional items asked respondents to specify who should plan and teach the lessons. Short comments on each item were also invited but optional.

Lecturers' Responses: The Benefits of LFAs

The responses showed that lecturers appreciated the potential benefits of LFAs in offering the STs something 'concrete' to go on. Apart from the advantages listed above, their usefulness included the introduction of 'new' techniques such as mingle activities; the opportunity to reflect on the 'processes for decisions taken before, during and after the lesson'; the fact that videos of the proceedings could be edited for 'viewing and re-viewing', and the growth in cooperation and rapport between the selected student demonstrators and lecturers. It was hoped that the minds of the SDs would be 'concentrated' through the task in hand and that their English would be 'polished' through assistance given during rehearsals without sacrificing the essential element of flexibility—a working document approach being preferred to a closely scripted version. It was also felt that STs could observe and learn from lessons or elements of lessons that went smoothly and, equally, from those that did not. The discussion of differing perceptions of the same event was felt to be valuable.

Student Teachers' Responses: The Benefits of LFAs

The ST questionnaire likewise indicated acceptance of the potential value of LFAS, with a majority reacting positively (strongly agree/agree) to 14 of the 21 statements mentioned above. Indeed, with regard to 8 items, the illustration of different lesson stages (91%); the link between theory and practice (82%); the variety of teaching techniques (82%); the exploitation of visual aids (80%); the value of observation forms (79%); the usefulness of different lesson types (74%); the encouragement of rehearsal and practice amongst SDs (72%), and the constructive nature of post-lesson discussion (67%), the responses were impressive. Further unreservedly positive comments were also found. One, for example, described the post-lesson discussions as the 'most useful' part of the exercise. Another commended LFAs as 'a good source of new ideas' and 'a good model'. Yet another concluded that LFAs were 'a must'. No item provoked a majority of negative responses (disagree/strongly disagree), although every single item was qualified to some extent by one respondent or another in the comments section. However, given the deliberately positive slant of the cue items and STs' familiarity with traditional routine, the areas where the majority of responses indicate a mixture of doubt and disagreement (responses 3,4 or 5) could well be of particular significance. Areas of concern will, therefore, now be examined.

Lecturers' Reservations

Some lecturers raised theoretical and practical objections to LFAs. (Percentages are not given as the sample size was necessarily small). Objections centred around three points in particular:

(*a*) the model of teacher education
(*b*) artificiality
(*c*) stress

The Model

The prescriptive, 'artisan/apprentice' model was considered inappropriate in view of the current movement towards a more reflective approach to teacher education. Such LFAs were held to promote a belief in a non-existent perfection with STs seeing an 'idealised', 'unreal' 'performance'. Despite their recent change of name, LFAs were still considered to reflect their original purpose as models for imitation, to some extent contradicting the trend towards the individualisation of both teaching and learning strategies and the consequent emphasis on learner independence. SDs, it was felt, might be reduced at times to the role of a mere 'mouthpiece' whilst their peers could resort to the over-use of simple, 'stereotyped' techniques such as asking pupils to predict the content of a partly revealed picture. There was also the danger of the unthinking repetition of lesson plan jargon during teaching practice.

Apart from concerns about the model of teacher education, it was noted that the current format of LFAs inevitably encouraged the planning of single 40-minute units of learning rather than a series of lessons. This might foster a compartmentalised rather than integrative view of learning, with consequent neglect of such fundamental aspects as revision and the frequent re-working of previously 'learnt' material. Moreover, LFAs were felt to be 'plan- rather than decision- or outcome-oriented'.

The inherent danger of rote learning, with SDs almost learning their lesson 'by heart' during rehearsals, was also recognised. Coupled with the need to get through the rather daunting event on time and without disaster, this sometimes resulted in pupils' responses being left unheard and unattended because these did not coincide with the preconceived, 'set' script.

Artificiality

Various responses criticised the 'contrived' nature of proceedings and the 'unreal use of time' in lesson preparation. LFAs were seen as 'time-consuming', with perhaps two or more lecturers 'in attendance' for the 'two to three week', mutually convenient consultation period required to produce a single lesson and with 'a team of students' producing visual aids. This additional time is hard for STs to find given their very full timetable. The fact that the pupil 'guinea pigs' are 'total strangers', that their language level is 'unknown' ('They've got to Chapter 6 in....'), that it is impossible to assess their familiarity with the techniques to be employed and perhaps even the fact that they may be selected 'good' pupils are matters of concern. The possibility that STs might regard the resulting lesson as a 'high tech spectacle' with 'overkill' in terms, say, of visual aids, is considered. The lessons also appear to neglect the 'whole' role of the teacher and his or her unique relationship with each class and the individuals within it.

Stress

The fact that LFAs are recorded in the presence of a large audience is deemed potentially 'threatening' to most participants. The supervising lecturer may well feel that his or her professional competence is on trial, the SD may suffer from 'high anxiety' and the pupils, whose reactions have not been investigated, may well feel 'shy'. Teaching may, therefore, begin to seem like 'mission impossible', the affective filter being high. Moreover, with a whole week allocated to LFAs across the curriculum, the sheer volume of input may become increasingly 'hard to digest', even though not every student sees every lesson.

Student Teachers' Reservations

The negative points made by the lecturers are echoed and extended by STs. In particular the artificial and irrelevant nature of LFAs is reiterated, with 'good' SDs 'acting out' their roles after much practice. They comment on the two to three week gestation period of each single lesson, the unrealistic 'oversupply' of visual aids and the danger of 'showtime'.

The areas of doubt and disagreement, alluded to previously, highlight further specific concerns. Only 46% agree that LFAs show STs how to use technical equipment effectively and point out that normal classroom constraints, such as the non-availability of OHPs, may be ignored. Even fewer (35%) agree that LFAs facilitate textbook adaptation. Indeed, they question whether such textbook adaptation, though desirable, is considered acceptable practice in all schools.

As regards classroom management techniques, a mere 15% agreed that these were actually demonstrated, the pupils being either 'too bright' or 'too dull' to cause behavioural problems. Here, STs may be inadvertently equating classroom management with disciplinary sub-aspects. In any case, the unnaturally good behaviour of the pupils and the fact that lower-ability children rarely appear in LFAs seemed not to mirror the constraints and realities STs might soon face on teaching practice.

On the question of stress, only 33% agreed that LFAs occur in a non-threatening situation. Interestingly enough, this particular item produced the largest number of negative responses, with 35% disagreeing, 2% strongly disagreeing and the rest (30%) being uncertain. Former SDs report that they felt 'really threatened by the pressure', 'very frightened', 'nervous' or 'anxious'.

Opinion is more equally divided on the question of whether any educational benefit accrues to the pupils (57%), on whether LFAs promote flexibility (56%) and are enjoyable (46%). Like the lecturers, STs would welcome fuller information about their LFA classes—only 35% agreeing that a LFA can be successful regardless of pupils' previous familiarity with the respective techniques to be employed.

Further considerations

The remaining questions concerned who should plan and teach LFAs. The department currently employs STs as SDs with the intention of giving them valuable practice, of allowing them to be involved in the planning stages, of letting them demonstrate the progress they have made in the course to date and of helping them cope with TP. A sense of achievement should result so that classroom success will then appear to be within the grasp of every ST. This approach which fosters a closer rapport between STs and staff is widely supported with 87% accepting the joint planning of LFAs and 72% favouring STs as SDs.

Effectiveness

In considering the overall effectiveness of current LFAs, the following data present a mixed picture. 61% of STs agreed that LFAs had 'influenced [their] own teaching considerably'. An identical number also considered

LFAs to be the 'best way' of showing how current approaches to teaching can be put into practice and 56% agree that LFAs gave them confidence. Worryingly, only 28% agree or strongly agree that LFAs 'offer ideas which can easily be used in the normal school classroom', a reaction either to their 'artificial', 'too perfect' or 'imperfect' nature.

Whilst the above figures provide mixed feedback, the perceptive and differentiated view STs take of LFAs, evidenced by the many comments made, is encouraging. The fact that 74% consider that LFAs are designed 'merely to encourage reflection, not as models to copy' also suggests a thoughtful approach.

Alternatives

With many STs coming to College at the age of 17 with six HKCE passes, something is clearly needed to broaden their experience. The positive responses elicited indicate that LFAs are not without support and that some of their potential benefits are widely recognised and valued. The statistical evidence alone might, perhaps, be interpreted as a measure of qualified support, suggesting that only fine tuning through improved liaison with schools and technical revisions are required. It certainly suggests some appreciation of the quality of the offerings under consideration. The 'individual' nature of the reservations expressed must also be remembered.

However, this statistical support might equally be taken to reflect the recognition of an urgent training need rather than a genuine endorsement of LFAs per se. Theoretical concerns about the 'artisan/apprentice' approach and particularly the practical reservations about the artificial and threatening nature of LFAs, expressed by both local and expatriate lecturers and STs, appear to invalidate LFAs as educational experiences in any true, humanistic sense. Indeed, their artificiality and the unnecessary stress they create might lead to the conclusion that LFAs are fundamentally and irredeemably flawed and that alternatives should be adopted. Certainly, in an environment where great importance is attached to the question of 'face' they seem less than appropriate given their potential for unexpected and unwanted embarrassment, although, thankfully, tears are extremely rare.

As regards the choice of demonstrator, it seems somewhat unfair that STs should shoulder the stressful burden of public scrutiny with a plan that may contain 'imposed' elements. Lecturers, too, may feel that their academic integrity is occasionally compromised during the negotiation of the lesson plan with higher authority. A small number agree, therefore, that they should, if need be, teach their own lessons, although the prospect is not one to be relished given the known constraints. Whilst LFAs may, then, sometimes offer SDs a sense of achievement, this must currently be attained in the face of daunting obstacles, possibly indicating a 'gain through pain' approach. As in other areas of the curriculum, the principle might rather be to introduce STs into the classroom in a gradual, safe and progressive manner, so that success and enjoyment may be repeatedly experienced. This would reinforce STs' self-concepts and ideally create an upward, interactive spiral of both motivation and achievement. Given the outmoded nature of LFAs, the considerable time they occupy, five days of lessons followed by two days of TP preparation, is also a factor. The practical problems identified could be largely eliminated and the time far better used if STs were offered a more authentic experience. New directions may, then, deserve consideration.

One recent innovation in the department has been to take STs to observe serving teachers in their own classrooms, a form of LFA which received positive verbal feedback. This is a considerable improvement. However, even here, where the situation is less artificial and stressful, the 'one-off' nature of such visits, and the constraints on the lesson caused by a large observing group, are still unsatisfactory. The solution, therefore, may be to abandon LFAs in their college-based form and supplement school visits with an equivalent period of afternoon school attachment over a certain number of weeks. This is the main recommendation of the study.

Should school attachment programmes materialise, STs might then be paired with a suitable school-based mentor to facilitate a proper, professional exchange of views. This could, for example, ensure that STs are always properly integrated into the staffroom on school attachment and TP, that they receive sufficient guidance and that their potential value as a source of new ideas and enthusiasm is recognised.

Collaboration with the profession should be taken as axiomatic for two reasons. Firstly, significant amounts of the teacher education programme would then be conducted off campus in varying placement contexts, making it essential that there should be shared understandings with those who will act as supervisors. This alone could provide a much needed impetus for change in schools. Secondly, the profession itself should insist on being involved in the preparation of new entrants. In such a scenario representatives of the profession would be involved in all aspects of teacher preparation, including student selection, course planning, placement supervision, assessment and evaluation. For example, serving teachers could join lecturers (and STs?) on future course steering committees to enhance quality control. The good work done in Colleges at lecturing level might then become more widely recognised.

As far as lesson observation is concerned, a school attachment programme should, of course, be complemented by other measures. In College the use of trial teaching and micro-teaching could be further extended, perhaps forming part of an in-depth course involving small groups of real children who could benefit from remedial help. The logistical problems could, no doubt, be overcome given the necessary will and the establishment of a network of contacts with past STs. A large, classified video library could also be developed to broaden STs' exposure to differing approaches, techniques, ability ranges and problem areas. This would allow comparisons and facilitate discussion. It could be compiled by regularly recording both serving teachers and STs on TP in their own classrooms, so minimising uncharacteristic pupil reactions caused by the presence of the camera.

Conclusion

Whatever form of school experience replaces LFAs, it should be founded on explicitly formulated guiding principles. It should:

- promote a reflective approach to teacher education;
- form part of a phased introduction to the real classroom; and
- be, as far as possible, stress-free.

It should also contribute to a far more vigorous partnership between the teacher education institutions and the schools and lead to the creation of a new 'teaching culture', so that both bodies come to promote both self-development and justified change.

In addition, any teacher education institute, including the future HKIEd, should operate on the assumption that its whole mode of operation be codified in the form of policy statements in areas such as admissions, maintenance of academic standards, course development, assessment, research, staff development, equal opportunities, language, information technology, teaching and learning, student welfare and, of course, school placement. These documents would be open to scrutiny and revision and would provide the necessary conceptual framework for effective teacher education.

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REFLECTIONS ON DEVELOPING IN-SERVICE COURSES

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Introduction

In an era in which accountability and value for money are important bywords, the question of how to make INSET courses more productive and worthwhile is a particularly relevant one. In recent years, there has been increased interest in methods by which trainers can build on the knowledge and experiences of participants and encourage them to reflect constructively on their own classroom environment e.g. Nunan (1989), Woodward (1991, 1992), Wallace (1991), Edge (1992). The move has been away from a top-down imposition of solutions prescribed by outside experts to a more collaborative bottom-up approach or what Edge refers to as Cooperative Development.

As a teacher educator, I am interested in how the ILE in Hong Kong can build on positive in-service experiences elsewhere so as to make our courses more useful and rewarding for participants. In this paper, I will investigate a number of strategies from the literature and relate them to the ILE context. In particular, I want to focus on two areas, firstly strategies for avoiding an overly prescriptive approach and secondly the use of post-course follow-up to maximise the experience gained on an in-service course.

ILE Courses

The ILE brief is to run INSET courses and to conduct research into issues relating to language learning with a view to curriculum renewal. The INSET courses for primary and secondary teachers are full-time, take place twice a year and last for 16 weeks. Participants who usually have at least 5 years teaching experience have a wide range of experience and qualifications. At primary level, they usually have a Teacher's Certificate and/or ICTT (In-service Certificate of Teacher Training). At secondary level around 2/3 are graduates and the majority have previously undergone some form of teacher education, either in the form of a pre-service diploma or an in- service PGCE.

The courses are divided into two dimensions or modules, one pertaining to improvement of the participants' own English language skills and the other relating to exploration of teaching methodology. The general aim is to develop participants' abilities to teach effectively in the context of the English curriculum in Hong Kong through reflecting on theory and practice.

The courses comprise various modes of teaching and learning: plenary lectures, seminars, workshops, assigned reading, self-access language work, project work (e.g. materials development, action research or planning schemes of work), micro teaching and Experimental Teaching (ET) in schools. ET offers participants the opportunity to put into practice ideas and techniques developed on the course and typically is carried out during the second half of the programme at the home school and/or at the school of a fellow participant. Lecturer and tutor-group support is available both in terms of preparation for ET and in reflection on the experimental teaching experience.

Feedback on the courses seems to show that participants generally find the courses enjoyable and stimulating. The opportunity to use English for communication purposes over a sustained period of time, with native speaker and expert non-native speaker tutors and within the tutor group, is particularly appreciated. Pre-and post-course testing indicates that most participants do indeed make progress in their English language skills during the course. In terms of methodology many participants express approval of an updating of their knowledge. More negative comments focus on the difficulty of relating theory to classroom practice and of the problems of implementing communicative ideas within the constraints of the school situation (e.g. a noisy environment and a classroom of 40 pupils of varied abilities and motivation.)

Post-course Constraints

As indicated above, a common problem in INSET courses both in the ILE and elsewhere is that after the course, teachers may not be able to put into operation successfully any of the new techniques or insights that they have gained. An interesting recent Asian example of this common phenomenon is outlined in Pilling and Stephens (1992). The reasons for implementation being problematic may be varied and are explored in the following list: (The suggestions are not meant to be exhaustive and there may also be a certain amount of overlap).

- The constraints of the teaching situation, e.g. lack of resources or unwilling superiors, may prevent or discourage teachers. In Hong Kong teachers are not autonomous, indeed the hierarchical nature of the school organisation may impinge negatively on change at the classroom level. Teachers may lack the ability to justify what they are planning or doing through reference to theory and practice.
- 'There is a significant gap between what teachers think and do together in workshops and what an individual teacher thinks and does in the classroom': Breen et al. (1989:126). In workshops or while doing peer and experimental classroom teaching, participants may enthusiastically try out new techniques and methods but on return to school, they may be faced with constraints and doubts without the supportive presence of classmates and lecturers.
- A teacher may try a technique once but lack the organisational skills or experience to carry it out successfully; pupils may also respond

negatively which can lead to abandoning the technique and even negative feelings about innovation in general.

- The time, effort and trouble associated with introducing something new may be a discouraging factor. In Hong Kong, teachers already have a heavy workload with regard to teaching, marking and counselling students.
- Psychological reasons, e.g. fear of failing, may discourage innovation. Some teachers may prefer tried and trusted methods that they have used for a number of years. In itself, change in methodology may hint at a rejection or undermining of what has gone before which could lead to a loss of face or a reduction in self-esteem.
- There may be a break for holiday between the course and resuming teaching at school, during which time the enthusiasm experienced during the course may dissipate.

Difficulty of Introducing Change in Hong Kong

For the Hong Kong context, these constraints are exacerbated by the difficulty of changing teachers' attitudes towards the classroom. The problematic nature of introducing innovation in Hong Kong has been previously documented by Morris (1985, 1988) and is currently being felt in some of the negative reactions to the proposed Target-Oriented Curriculum (formerly TTRA) framework. Young and Lee (1987) attempted to measure the change in attitude of a group of Hong Kong Chinese secondary teachers of English by administering questionnaires before and after a 90-hour retraining program. One of the principal aims of the course had been to change teacher attitudes away from a transmissive style of teaching towards a more interpretative style. The findings were disappointing for the course organisers in that although a slight movement towards an interpretation attitude was recorded, the change was so small as to be statistically insignificant. Young and Lee conclude that the existence of a shared attitudinal norm, "being a product of stable values within a particular society, is resistant to change by means of treatments such as retraining programs." (Young and Lee, 1987: 95) Findings from a survey of attitude change on the longer 16-week ILE refresher course will be discussed in Carless and Lee (forthcoming.)

In order to mitigate the factors outlined above, trainers need to take a number of issues into consideration. In the remainder of this paper, I will consider two areas that seem to me to be particularly relevant to the ILE context and to INSET in general. First I will discuss non-prescriptive approaches and negotiation of content of courses and then I will look at how courses can be followed-up.

Non-prescriptivism

The less prescriptive the course, the more positive it seems the response is likely to be. If participants feel that the course belongs to them and that issues which relate to them and their own teaching context are being addressed, then later implementation in the classroom is more likely to be achieved. Breen et al. (1989:118) outline the dangers of a prescriptive course with no follow-up as follows:

> Training as transmission, not providing any direct follow-up of classroom implementation through further work (with trainers), can be damaging. Where teachers try implementing the innovation and something fails, those teachers may reject the innovation and, in addition, its origins and rationale.

The four joint authors outline the progression from 1978 to 1985 of an INSET course organised for EFL teachers in secondary schools in Denmark. The programme began with an invitation from the Danish teacher educators to Breen and Candlin to provide a short intensive introduction to Communicative Language Teaching but went on to evolve through three phases identified by the team. The first transmissive phase was mainly characterised by top-down unidirectional input from the outside experts. This tended to result in a somewhat passive reaction from the participants in which they found it difficult to translate theory and research into classroom action. There seem to be definite parallels with ILE experience here, as ILE participants have expressed similar feelings.

In the second problem-solving phase the trainers, in the role of consultants, addressed issues arising from the participants' own classroom experience. On the positive side the participants valued the discussing and sharing of their own classroom experiences although the trainers were still perceived as experts who would provide answers.

In the third phase of classroom decision-making and investigation, trainers and trainees worked as teams exploring together the nature of the local teacher's classrooms. By focusing more directly on local conditions, the overseas trainers were no longer so clearly marked as experts. Their new status of 'ignorant outsiders' helped the dialogue to be more of a two-way learning process. Furthermore, the local teachers specified one month in advance what issues should be on the agenda, thereby increasing their ownership of the course and enabling it to be more attuned to their needs. By also carrying out their own small-scale action research projects, a healthy balance between teacher ideas and discoveries and previously published research was achieved.

The results of this third phase seemed encouraging given that a substantial increase in continued participation in the program occurred. Some of Breen et al.'s conclusions offer useful insight for courses elsewhere and are noted below:

- an in-service training course is likely to be most useful if it grows directly out of the experiences, assumptions and perceived problems of the trainees;
- any innovation premised on training is most usefully introduced by building on what teachers currently know and do and what occurs in class;

- any training will be converted to action to the extent that it is seen as valuable and necessary to teachers and, as important, to learners. They will, however, reinterpret it in their own terms.

What implications can the ILE draw from the Danish experience? Although at present ILE practice contains elements of all three phases outlined by Breen et al., perhaps more could still be done to try to achieve the attainment of the third phase described by them through building on what happens in the individual participant's own classroom. From a positive angle, ILE participants already spend a great deal of time in group work, exchanging and discussing teaching strategies and experiences with each other and with tutors. For even greater professional development, however, they might be encouraged to take the initiative more by setting their own agenda, e.g. more sessions could be devoted to their own particular concerns and discussion of these issues could be undertaken in such a way as to encourage teacher autonomy. The relationship between teachers and trainers would ideally become increasingly collaborative with the trainers moving away from the position of suggesting solutions to a role of facilitator. With the advent of the Target-Oriented Curriculum, it seems likely that the ability to make sound independent pedagogic decisions at the school level will be even more essential than at present. It would therefore seem appropriate for ILE courses to do the maximum to promote reflection, self-development and autonomy in the teacher.

Another non-prescriptive approach to in-service teacher education is outlined by Morrow and Schocker (1993). The method described in their paper involved process evaluation—focusing on the process by which learning (whether by teachers or students) takes place. Working on a short three-week summer course in England with teachers from a wide variety of countries, the aims of their program were to raise awareness of issues, problems and solutions in teacher-training and to create an atmosphere where insights, ideas, and experiences could be generated and shared.

In order to meet these aims, ongoing participant review of content and methodology was built into the course through daily individual feedback sessions, end-of-week feedback in plenary session, and end-of-course group evaluations. Methods of gathering and discussing feedback included:

(*a*) 15 minute individual interviews with three different randomly selected individuals daily;

(*b*) plenary feedback from tutors on issues raised in (a);

(*c*) open poster forum: 5 posters were displayed, four headed by the main issues raised in (a) and one blank for alternative subjects. By attaching slips of paper to the relevant poster, participants were able to express their views individually and by standing next to the poster concerning the theme they felt most strongly about, they were able to discuss further with their fellow participants;

(*d*) end of course group evaluation—participants carried out pyramid evaluation through doing the task outlined below:

> Think of three practical ways in which the ongoing evaluation of the course actually had an effect on you, in terms of yourself or the group. In what way would the course have been different without it? (Morrow and Schocker, 1993:51).

The task was done first individually, then in pairs and then in groups of four focusing on the most important elements from the individual and pair discussion.

The main positive elements of the process evaluation approach adopted on this course were twofold:

- the participants focused their attention on how they could make what they had experienced on this course work in their own contexts;
- the participants responded more enthusiastically to a formative process evaluation as opposed to the summative evaluation questionnaires often completed at the end of courses.

> Summative questionnaires ask the participant to judge the worth of the product which he or she has just received; process evaluation as described in this paper invites the participant to share in the design of the product and to reflect on how it is made. This is a very powerful experience. (Morrow and Schocker, 1993:54)

Process evaluation links closely with the concept of self-development. The more involvement that participants have in tailoring the content and methodology of the course, the more responsibility they are likely to take for their own professional development through the activities experienced. On ILE courses participants have plenty of opportunity for giving feedback but this tends to arise mainly at the end of a workshop or module or at the end of the course. At other times, although there is opportunity to give ongoing feedback, there is no particular course mechanism designed to take it into account. It is clearly far more personally interesting to give feedback when you can still gain benefit yourself rather than at a stage when only your successors on the next course can gain. The feeling of being involved and having your own opinions valued also has a positive motivational effect, particularly if some change results from your comments.

From the broader perspective of the Target-Oriented Curriculum with its emphasis on formative rather than summative assessment, it might also seem appropriate for the ILE itself to move in the direction of evaluating courses more formatively. For this to be carried out practically, careful planning would need to be done and organisational factors would need to be taken into account: obviously, for example, it is not feasible to make major timetable changes during a course. Perhaps as a starting point a form of process evaluation could be incorporated into one module of the course as a pilot project.

Follow-up Projects

Rudduck points out that positive feelings about a short INSET course are no guarantee of a future change in practice. Rudduck (1981:163) states:

> a major drawback of the short course is that it tends to be seen as a self-sufficient and self-contained experience whereas, to be an effective force for change or development, it must be conceived and perceived as an *episode* in the process of change.

She mentions two strategies which can be used to build on what has taken place in an INSET course, namely 'follow-through' and 'follow-up'. The former refers to implementation activities where *teachers* utilise what they have learnt on a course to improve their practice. The latter involves activities in which the *trainers* support the teachers in terms of implementation or development. In this section of the paper, I will look at follow-up.

Taking Rudduck's work as a starting-point, a Follow-Up Support Team (FUST) was formed at the ILE in Hong Kong in 1990 (Lai, 1992). The principal aim was to assist participants in continuing to develop and reflect on their classroom teaching after the conclusion of their 16 week full-time refresher course. Participants were visited in their schools approximately three months after their course by one of their tutors. The visits usually included general discussion about progress, changes in methodology or techniques made and any implementation problems that had been encountered. The visit also tended to involve a classroom observation of the participant teaching a class of her choice.

Responses to the follow-up visits have been mixed. Some teachers appreciated the supportive nature of continued contact with the ILE tutors and took advantage of the opportunity for further discussion or advice. Others felt somewhat threatened by being observed in the classroom. Although an evaluation was not being carried out, from a teacher perspective being observed by an outsider and being evaluated are closely linked. From another angle the teacher may feel that the tutor is monitoring the extent to which the communicative methodology encouraged on the course is being carried out and so may feel pressured to try to produce a model communicative lesson. The attitude of the participant's colleagues may also colour the situation: *they* may feel that the teacher is being assessed and additionally may not welcome an outsider coming in to the school and perhaps covertly 'checking up on them'.

Another aspect of FUST was seminars held at the ILE on Saturday mornings-the same seminar was held on consecutive Saturdays because a lot of Hong Kong teachers are required at school on alternate Saturdays. Seminars were led by an ILE tutor but were of a collaborative workshop nature. Because of the above concerns regarding classroom observation, Saturday seminars tended to be the preferred follow-up option of participants. Quantitative and qualitative feedback from teachers attending these sessions was generally positive but unfortunately attendance was sometimes rather low. This was attributed to the relative inaccessibility of ILE for teachers who do not live on Hong Kong Island, heavy workload of teachers and natural desire to take advantage of one's free Saturday for non-educational purposes.

From the perspective of the ILE tutors follow-up visits to past participants are very time-consuming, particularly when one considers that the tutors will already be involved at that time in the on-going courses. As the discussion above indicates the benefits of the follow-up support are debatable and difficult to quantify. The FUST project in the form described here was consequently discontinued. Follow-up has been continuing on an ad hoc basis i.e through individual arrangements between tutors and teachers. This may have several positive effects:

- If the visit is clearly seen as voluntary, it makes it seem less threatening.
- The ad hoc element tends to make the purpose and nature of the visit more of a negotiable process tailored to the specific needs and wants of the participant.
- Tutors would only be spending time with teachers who actively desired further discussion or input. The FUST team itself considered that it might be worthwhile to target individual schools which regularly sent enthusiastic teachers to ILE courses. This might be a useful springboard for school-based change whilst remaining an efficient and productive deployment of human resources.

Rudduck (1981) also describes two other follow-up strategies that I would like to mention briefly. One idea is to send out a portfolio of notes recalling the agenda of the course and the principles that lay behind some of the workshops and tasks that were attempted. This is intended to act both as a reminder of ideas and as a stimulus to try out methods or techniques that have been shared. This form of follow-up seems highly suitable for the ILE context. A concise restatement of (say) key elements in task-based learning or principles of communicative methodology would not be too time-consuming for tutors and might be a useful encouragement to teachers as well as keeping a channel of communication open between the ILE and the teacher.

The second strategy is that teachers attend INSET courses with their school departmental colleagues. This can reduce the feeling of isolation that the teacher may well feel on returning from the course and so to make it easier to recreate the sharing and enthusiasm experienced. In the ILE context, this would be impractical as English departments in schools of participants would be left too depleted. However, it would be more feasible in those situations where teachers attended workshops in their own time or when specific in-service days have been allotted as already happens in Target-Oriented Curriculum teacher education seminars. If teachers are undergoing professional development in school-based teams, this seems a solid basis for practical change in their own classrooms.

Alderson (1985) describes an alternative form of follow-up tried out on in-service ESP courses at Lancaster University. Towards the end of the course the participants, who came from a variety of overseas institutes, were asked to draw up an Implementation Plan for their return to post. In other words, the participants committed themselves in writing to a kind of contract outlining techniques that the teacher wished to put into practice. The plan was discussed with a tutor who offered input and tried to ensure that the proposals were practical and workable.

Participants were later contacted by letter in order to obtain feedback on their progress. From the participants' viewpoint, the letter shows that they have not been forgotten on completion of the in-house section of the course and that expert advice is still available. From the provider perspective, the letter acts as further encouragement to the teachers to try out the ideas in their Implementation Plan. Additionally, by enclosing a questionnaire with the letter, useful data is obtained regarding the practicality of ideas covered in the course which provided post-course feedback the analysis of which can be incorporated into future courses.

The problems identified by Alderson for this kind of follow-up were:

- post-course teacher workload which reduced their enthusiasm for implementing change;
- high expectations from colleagues in that having attended a course overseas they would be able to transform their institutes;

Being impelled into a role of adviser and teacher-trainer may be an unwanted by-product of attending an INSET course. Perhaps teacher-trainers need to consider how to prepare trainees for their future role as confidantes, motivators or teacher-trainers when they return to their organisation, particularly as a 'cascade' approach in which knowledge flows from the top down is becoming increasingly common. As discussed earlier, it seems likely that the more the participants have personally put into the content of the programme, the better placed they will be for a future disseminating or advisory role.

Obviously the difficulties faced in following up the kind of course described by Alderson are more problematic than for the ILE in Hong Kong—participants come from different countries and backgrounds, and the possibility of follow-up contact may be proscribed on financial grounds. Nonetheless the idea of an implementation plan seems to be a strategy that is well worth considering for the ILE context. The implementation plan in which teachers outline particular methods, techniques or materials that they intend to try out could also be a useful springboard for a follow-up visit.

Planning for Return to School

The September 1993 ILE Primary Refresher course has undergone a number of revisions. Of particular relevance to the discussion in this paper is the final 5-hour unit of the course entitled Planning for Return to School. It is intended that participants will do the following:

- discuss and share practical matters (e.g. techniques, materials) from the course that can help to renew the English curriculum when they return to their schools; discuss how to overcome any constraints arising in the school situation;
- develop an implementation plan individually from the points raised above and discuss it with their group tutor;

- form support networks amongst themselves; the networks could involve sharing of resources, discussion of implementation progress or special interest groups e.g. Pronunciation Group or Key Stage 2 Materials Development;
- prepare the ground for a possible follow-up visit by an ILE tutor.

Conclusion

To conclude, I want to reiterate some of the main implications for INSET arising from the discussion in this paper.

- Wherever possible the content of courses/workshops should arise from the classroom realities of the participants.
- There should be on-going evaluation of courses/workshops with the aim of improving the present course.
- Follow-up and Follow-through mechanisms should be built into the course.
- Follow-up could take the form of reminder circular of key issues in the course and/or school visits negotiated between trainers and teachers; for maximum effect school visits should involve more than just individual participants.
- Follow-through could involve implementation plans drawn up by participants towards the end of the course.

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GRADED TASKS AND LEARNER DIFFERENTIATION IN THE CLASSROOM

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Background to the Problem

In September 1992, the Hong Kong Education Department began preparing upper primary teachers for the implementation of the new curriculum initiative, Target Oriented Curriculum (TOC, formerly Targets and Target Related Assessment or TTRA). The preparation took the form of three-day introductory seminars for teachers of the core curricular subjects, Chinese, English and Maths. Teachers who attended the seminar were asked to chose one of the core subjects as an elective.

Evaluations took place at the conclusion of the seminars and teachers were asked to assess different aspects of the three days. For teachers who attended the English elective, one aspect of the assessment involved considering the difficulty level of the session on lesson planning. A little more than 35% (1 168) of the three thousand one hundred and twenty seven (3 127) teachers who attended the English elective were sampled. 49.5% of the total number sampled, or approximately 552 persons, rated lesson planning as difficult and 18% or about 201 teachers, rated the session as very difficult. This means that an average of 67.5% (approximately 753 teachers) consistently rated the session as difficult or very difficult. Even though teachers found this session challenging, they found it equally useful as an average of 66.5% (742 teachers) rated the lesson planning as useful. This indicates that teachers recognised the intrinsic value of the session. (Interestingly, the only other session rated as equally or slightly more difficult, was the session on assessment. Another equally demanding session, scheme of work, was rated as less difficult.[1])

This article will focus on the lesson planning aspect of the three-day seminar and examine some of the reasons for the high difficulty rating of the session and the special problems that teachers encountered. The analyses of teachers' difficulties in a central aspect of teaching have important implications for practitioners, teacher educators, curriculum designers and resource developers.

The Lesson Planning Session

This session took place on the morning of the second day of the three-day seminar. Teachers had had a general introduction to TOC, targets and tasks. During this session, they became further acquainted with the concept of tasks and were required to develop procedures to support teaching a chosen task from the *Programme of Studies (POS)* for Key Stage Two (KS2).

Additionally, teachers were asked to develop graded worksheets to accompany the lesson procedures which would assist in the conduct and development of the task. Planning of the lesson procedures while a problem for some teachers, was not a major problem for most teachers. The development of the graded worksheets is believed to be the major contributing factor accounting for the difficulty level of the session. Feedback of teachers' comments from open-ended forms and the three-day evaluation forms support this view. Lecturers' observations and teachers' verbal comments also lend support to this belief. The difficulties in designing the graded worksheets are the foci of this paper and will be examined from the following perspectives:

1. The rationale for the task and its theoretical underpinnings;
2. A critical examination of the teachers' task; and
3. The teachers' performance on the task.

Following the summary, recommendations will be made for providing support for teachers in grading tasks.

The Rationale for the Task and its Theoretical Underpinnings

Chapter 5 in the Education Commission's *Report Number Four* (ECR4, 1990) recognises the need for teachers to address the specific needs and interests of all their pupils. It states that the new curriculum initiative would improve the quality of learning for all individual students from primary one to secondary five. The thrust to view learners as unique individuals is also clearly captured in the Education Commission's document, *Hong Kong: A Statement of Aims* (1992).

It states:

> Every school should help all its students, whatever their level of ability, and including those with special educational needs, to develop their potential as fully as possible in both academic and non-academic directions. (p.15)

The document further notes that 'any system of mass education must recognize a wide range of aptitudes among its students, and must strive as far as possible to cater for differing needs and interests' (p.15). These views have strong theoretical underpinnings in the constructivist view of learning.

The constructivist view of learning contends that learners use individual frameworks of knowledge and experiences as foundations for constructing meaning (e.g. Gagne, 1985). Variation in knowledge and experience help to account for learner differences in learning. This diversity is not viewed as a liability (Hiebert, 1991; Sebba & Beyers, 1992), but as a building block for learning and teaching. In terms of curriculum planning, this means that the curriculum should be flexible enough to fit and meet the needs of the child and not so rigid that it blames and punishes the learner for not adjusting to the curriculum (Sebba & Byers, 1992).

The task that teachers were asked to do in this session is often left to textbook designers. Textbook designers have traditionally graded or sequenced their materials in a linear fashion according to components of language such as grammar or vocabulary. However, current approaches to teaching and learning are much more interactive and interdependent (Biggs, 1990; Gagne,1985) and activities based on the communicative approach to teaching stress more of an integration of components (Scarino, Vale, McKay & Wichman, 1988). In grading tasks a host of variables need to be considered such as learners' needs and interests, text type and level of difficulty, situation, grammar, functions, vocabulary, as well as processing and task demands. Teachers, therefore, need to be cognizant of the interplay of variables when selecting, designing or adapting graded tasks so that they are better equipped to meet the specific needs of their learners.

What is a Learning Task?

The work that the teachers were required to do called for a basic understanding of *tasks*. There is no real consensus on the definition of a task. Nunan (1989) notes that in education and other fields there are numerous definitions. Within second language learning he points out that there are non-linguistic definitions and pedagogical definitions as well as there are communicative and noncommunicative distinctions along with differences cited in real-world and pedagogic tasks. Nunan's (1989) definition of a communicative task is stated as 'a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form' (p.10).

The Education Department (1992) describes a learning task as 'the purposeful and contextualized means through which students progress towards the learning targets' (p.20). When engaging in tasks students are expected to go beyond 'practising elements of the subject' and should instead 'activate and extend their frameworks of knowledge and skill' (p.20).

Tasks are usually contrasted with exercises but they are not seen as mutually exclusive but as coexisting and interrelating. Exercises facilitate tasks and when students focus upon particular elements of knowledge or skills for pedagogical purposes they are said to be doing an exercise (Clark & Scarino, 1992). An exercise would therefore entail as Nunan (1989) describes it 'noncommunicative or pseudo-communicative activity types' such as 'repetition, substitution and transformation drills' (p.41).

The Teachers' Task

Prior to the development of the graded worksheets, teachers had to develop procedures for the learning task *English in the Street* (Appendix A). These procedures included identifying the targets, teaching steps, grammatical structures, text type, vocabulary, assessment, resources, workbook references, etc. Following the development of their procedures, ideas were exchanged and alternatives offered. From this point, teachers were asked to consider how their procedures would affect the performance of students with different levels of skills (i.e. quicker and slower pupils). A brief discussion followed as teachers considered some of the factors influencing variation in students' performance such as students' backgrounds and mental capabilities.

Following discussion on the contributing factors of student variation, teachers were then given some input on the various options for accommodating individual differences along with approaches to grading activities. The input was based mainly on the description of grading tasks as they are described by Scarino, Vale, Mckay and Wichmann (1988) and the notes in the *POS* (pages 190-193). Examples of graded tasks were used as references. Teachers were asked to consider the following principles when designing graded or layered tasks for a particular class:

- the size of the task in terms of the number of steps as more steps means higher difficulty level;
- the linguistic demands of the task in terms of the language structures and the vocabulary as the more complex the structures are the higher the difficulty level; and the more unfamiliar the terms are the greater the difficulty level;
- the intellectual demands of the task in terms of the mental processes needed to carry out the task;
- the amount of support provided during the task in terms of examples of linguistic structures and vocabulary; more support makes the task easier, less support increases the difficulty level;
- and the difficulty level of the text, determined by familiarity, sentence structures, vocabulary, interest etc.

To support the design of the worksheets, teachers were also asked to consider two possible options of task designs. These were as follows:

OPTION 1

Teachers were encouraged to approach the task by creating three separate worksheets on the same task bearing in mind the skill levels of the students (see Table 1). In other words, the task was held constant. All the students would work with the same task but with varying degrees of support (see Appendix B). Classroom management considerations were primary in the design of this option as roughly three broad groups were being instructed simultaneously.

Table 1: Option 1

SLOWER	AVERAGE	QUICKER
more support	some support	less support or no support

OPTION 2

This option asked teachers to consider the task design from a more extended and elaborated viewpoint (see Table 2). Bloom's Taxonomy (1956) is applied in this option and teachers were required to create three worksheets but this time the focus was on extending the same task so that the learner's knowledge and skills were being stretched incrementally. Unlike option one, learners are given the opportunity to do all three tasks depending on their finishing rates. Because the first task would be at the developing knowledge level, it would be the easier task and would accommodate the slower pupils and simultaneously lay a foundation for all learners (see Appendix C). The final task would cater more to the quicker students but still offer others a chance to apply their skills based on the acquired knowledge and experience of the previous two tasks. No student would be penalised for not completing all the worksheets. The worksheets could focus on different skills or subskills such as reading or writing but it was recommended that teachers be consistent and use the same vocabulary and skills across the worksheets.

Table 2: Option 2

LEVEL 1	KNOWLEDGE	Task Examples list, label, name, match, locate
LEVEL 2	COMPREHENSION	classify, read describe, identify
LEVEL 3	APPLICATION	create, report, imagine, apply

Following the input, teachers were asked to refer to their lesson procedures to develop a supportive worksheet on the task *English in the Street*. The teachers were then encouraged to consider one of the options for the design of their worksheets and to bear in mind the classroom management implications of their choice. They were then given approximately one hour to prepare the rough drafts and worked in groups of four to seven persons. Two tutors were available to provide assistance and feedback. Teachers also had access to supportive handouts and worksheets. It was expected that the teachers would complete their designs at home and bring them in the next day for presentation to their colleagues using an overhead projector.

The Examination of the Presentations

During the presentations, the worksheets were scrutinised along the following guidelines:

Appropriacy to the Lesson's Theme

Here, it was expected that all the worksheets would be appropriate for the task English in the Street and that they would facilitate the attainment of the targets in the teachers' lesson procedures.

Grading

All worksheets were expected to show evidence of grading regardless of the option selected. For option one, teachers were watching for evidence of less or more support with a cautious eye for cases of too much support. Additionally, teachers were to consider the number of steps and the intellectual demands of the task. Option two should show evidence of grading according to level of skill or mental processing demands.

Purpose and Use of Context

A purposeful worksheet gives meaning to what the learners are expected to do. Learners are therefore able to form some connection and relevance to their lives. It was expected that the opening statements on the worksheets would reflect this orientation to meaningfulness. The purpose would be very much supported by the real, simulated or imagined situation or context within which the learners would interact.

Skill Development

The worksheets should reflect an orientation toward a particular skill or an integration of skills. The three worksheets for option one were expected to focus on the same skill(s) with their appropriate degrees of support. This would minimise teachers' classroom management problems and assist with organisation for teaching. Option two could duplicate option one by focusing on developing the same skill(s) across the three worksheets or could focus on three different skills. However, it was expected that option two worksheets would also show evidence of building and application of knowledge.

Language Use

The vocabulary for the three worksheets should be connected and consistent to provide reinforcement and ensure coverage. For option one it was hoped that the vocabulary would be the same but the difficulty level for the manipulation and use of the vocabulary would differ. For option two it was expected that the vocabulary and context would allow for reinforcement and coherence across the worksheets. The same applied to structure.

Degree of Openness and Options

Teachers were encouraged to consider the degree of openness or closure for both options with the degree of openness increasing across the three worksheets. Openness referred to the amount of leeway or freedom given to the learner to initiate original answers while closure referred to the amount of parameters imposed on the task to assist the learner with the production of the answers. It was expected also that learners would be provided with some options or choices to encourage decision making and risk taking.

Interest

Interest is closely connected to purpose and context but teachers were encouraged to think of this as a separate criterion especially with respect to the first level worksheets. This was to encourage especially, a high interest and level of mental stimulation in the worksheets targeted for the slower learners.

Samples of the Presentations[2]

The following pages offer a sampling of some of the common features of the worksheets as presented by the teachers. For the sake of brevity, only summary descriptions are given. They are presented according to their options as teachers would be better able to see the parallels between similar worksheets although there is an overlap between the two options. A summary of the teachers' presentations follows the examples.

EXAMPLES OF OPTION 1

SLOWER PUPILS	AVERAGE PUPILS	QUICKER PUPILS
1a Use the picture of the park to complete sentences about signs in the park (e.g. You must ...). Put the signs in the correct boxes on the picture.	1b Look at the signs in the park and put the words in the correct order (e.g flowers pick don't the). Read the instructions and draw the signs.	1c Look at the signs in the park and give meanings of terms (e.g. entrance/exit). Put misplaced signs in their correct places.
2a Use the map, the marked route and the cues given to complete the description of how to get to the supermarket.	2b How will you get to the supermarket? Use the map with the route given to help you re-arrange the directions.	2c Refer to the map and the marked route to tell how to get to the supermarket.
3a Use the picture of Victoria Park to explain what the signs mean. Use the words given to help you.	3b John is in Victoria Park and he writes down the signs that he saw.	3c What have the children done wrong? Use the picture of Victoria Park and the example given to tell what children should not do.

EXAMPLES OF OPTION 2

LEVEL 1	LEVEL 2	LEVEL 3
4a Read the description and clues to label the map with street names and shop names.	4b Use the map to help Mary plan a birthday party. Follow the first example and give the directions for the shops you need to visit to buy the food.	4c Use the map to tell John how to find the party.

EXAMPLES OF OPTION 2

LEVEL 1	LEVEL 2	LEVEL 3
5a Mother is planning a party. Use the map to complete the plan of where she needs to go to buy the various food.	5b Tom is shopping for the party. Help him to find his way to buy the food. Use the route given on the map to re-arrange the nine statements to match the route given on the map.	5c Tom is talking to Dick about the party. He is describing the food and where he bought it. Write the conversation.
6a Use the map and the given words to complete the description of the journey to Central Park.	6b Re-arrange the eleven statements by using the map to give the journey to Central Park.	6c Use the map to tell what was bought at the supermarket and what happened on the way to Central Park.

Summary of Teachers' Worksheets

CRITERIA	STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
Appropriacy to the lesson's theme	Worksheets were supportive of the task. Some expansions on the theme.	Restrictive interpretations of the theme in option 2 examples.
Grading	Generally manipulated by the amount of support given and number of steps taken (e.g. # 2).	Distinctions between levels were not always clear. Too many steps for level 2 especially in re-sequencing tasks (e.g. # 5b, 6b). Often too much support given (e.g. # 2).
Purpose and use of context	Some attempts to develop and expand contexts (e.g. # 5).	Purposeful situations not properly developed and tended to resemble traditional exercises (e.g. # 3c). First level tasks poorly developed (e.g. # 1a). Lack of coherence across worksheets for option 2 related tasks (e.g. # 4a).
Skill focus and development	Clear progression in the development of skills across the three levels for option 2 examples (e.g. # 4, 5). Vocabulary reinforced across levels in option 2 (e.g. # 6).	Unclear skill focus across worksheets for option one (e.g. # 1). Skills limited to reading and writing areas.
Language use	Consistent use of vocabulary and structures for both options.	Worksheets resembled exercises (e.g. # 1c, 3c), continued...
Degree of openness and options	Element of control present.	Too much control for all levels (e.g. # 2a). Few options given to encourage learners to make decisions.

CRITERIA	STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
Interest	Third level tasks were more interesting (e.g. #5c)	First level worksheets low in interest and intellectual challenge (e.g. #1a); Third level tasks not challenging (e.g. #3c).

Recommendations

Designing layered worksheets is a time-consuming and difficult task. In these TOC introductory sessions, time was limited and teachers had had limited exposure to working with tasks. Designing graded worksheets that meet the criteria for tasks, demands the interplay and balancing of many variables. Teachers had a clear understanding of grading principles but found it difficult to incorporate them into task-like worksheets and they often forgot to consider the classroom management implications of their design. Teachers will need a great deal of support to further develop their skills in this area. To improve teachers' expertise in grading tasks the following recommendations are given:

1. Allow sufficient time to plan and develop or select appropriate materials to meet the needs and interest of pupils;
2. When designing graded tasks consider first the purpose; ensure that the purpose has a meaningful application to the every day lives of the students;
3. Develop contexts or situations that the students can relate to; some degree of familiarity is desirable;
4. Consider which skills and language will be developed in the tasks and try to incorporate them into the worksheets so that there is a common core to what the learners are doing;
5. Provide more support to the weaker or slower students but at the same time try to give them interesting tasks; allow them to have some choice;
6. Always consider the classroom management implications of the tasks; skilled grouping is desirable in some cases; allow all learners access to all of the tasks sometimes.
7. Develop experience with tasks by utilizing all the available resources such as the POS; practice incorporating tasks into lessons; make use of the expertise offered by support institutions.

Conclusion

This brief analysis has provided a closer examination of one of the critical areas in accommodating individual differences, a central concept of TOC. At the present time, teachers are accustomed to traditional whole-class teaching and the bridge towards individualisation in terms of learners' needs and interests will be a long and arduous one for most educators. The broad grouping of tasks as portrayed in this paper, is an interim measure toward attaining the full accommodation of individual learner's needs and interests in instruction. This approach does not, in the long run, accommodate every learner but it does in the short run, prepare teachers to think about the related issues both in practical and pedagogical terms.

NOTES

1. These data are from the unpublished TOC Teacher Education Team's *Summary of Evaluation*, 1992-93. Education Department, Hong Kong.
2. The author wishes to acknowledge the support of the members of the TOC-English Team. Special thanks to Henry Hepburn, team leader and all the teachers whose worksheets made this paper possible.

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APPENDIX A

ENGLISH IN THE STREET

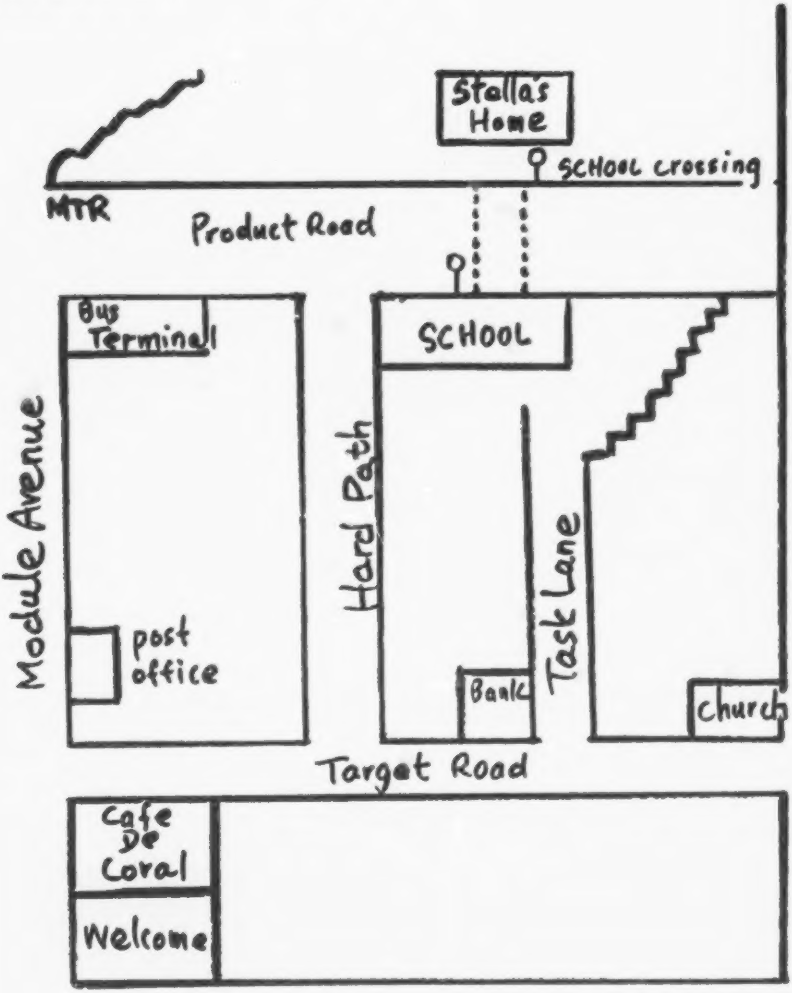
Targets:
Developing Knowledge (DK)

> A. Identify, name and make connections among concepts and their related procedures drawn from learning in English and in other subjects in the course of creating and using texts.
>
> F. Search for and gather information on a topic, take notes, synthesize, reorganize and present information in a written report or illustrated talk.

1. Learners are told that they are to find 'the English' that is in the street. They brainstorm where they can find it and compile a list with teacher support. Learners divide into groups. Each group is to record the English found in a particular domain, e.g. road signs, shop-signs, signboards, signs on buildings etc. Learners search and record the findings after the lesson. On returning to the classroom, they report their findings. (D.K.f)
2. With teacher support, they relate the English in the street to what they have learnt in the classroom and other knowledge. They discover the meaning of some of the English (e.g. Post no bill!) through connecting it with the context in which it is used. (D.K.a)
3. Drawing on the English learners found and relating it to the concepts and cognitive processes appropriate for learners of this key stage, the teacher may also introduce some interesting aspects of the language to the learners or explain how the language is used in daily life (e.g. What is HK? What is the NT?/What is this 'M'? (teacher showing the logo of McDonald's)/What is this 'T' (teacher showing a picture of a public telephone kiosk with a T sign)/What does 'P' stand for as a road sign?/What does CMB mean?/What does KCR mean? What does LRT mean? What does MTR mean?). (D.K.A)

Education Department (1992). *Programme of Study for English, Key Stage 2* (Primary 4 – Primary 6) p. 61. Hong Kong.

APPENDIX B ≠1


Stella's Home
SCHOOL crossing
MTR
Product Road
Bus Terminal
SCHOOL
Module Avenue
Hard Path
Task Lane
post office
Bank
Church
Target Road
Cafe De Coral
Welcome

WORKSHEET LEVEL (1)

Fill in the blanks

Taking a walk with your friend

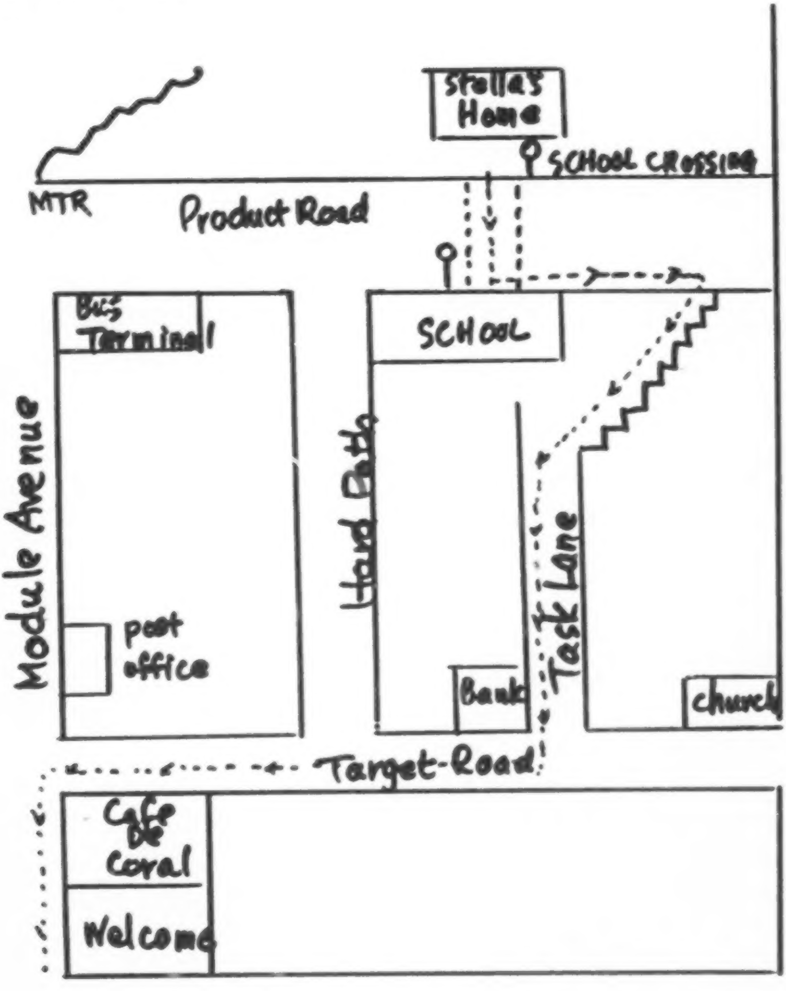
After lunch Stella takes a walk with her friend from Canada near her home.

First they leave their house and walk to the __________ and cross there to the school. They walk down the stairs and come to a _____ at the end of the Lane. They turn left and walk straight ahead to Module Avenue. The _________ is on their left. They want to have a drink so they walk into _____________ to buy two cups of tea. Then Stella remembers she has to buy a bag of rice. So they go into ______ the supermarket next to the fast food shop.

WORDS FOR REFERENCE

church Welcome post office
Cafe De Coral bank School crossing

APPENDIX B = 2


Stella's Home
SCHOOL CROSSING
MTR
Product Road
Bus Terminal
SCHOOL
Module Avenue
Hard Path
Task Lane
post office
Bank
church
Target-Road
Cafe De Coral
Welcome

1516

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

WORKSHEET LEVEL (2)

Rearrange the sentences

Taking a walk with your friend

(1) First they leave their home and walk to the school crossing.
(2) So they go into Cafe De Coral.
(3) they turn left and walk straight ahead to Module Avenue.
(4) Finally they buy a bag of rice in Welcome, the supermarket.
(5) they want to have a drink.
(6) they come to a bank at the end of the Lane
(7) They walk down the stairs.
(8) Stella takes a walk with her friend from Canada near her home.
(9) There is a post office on their left.

Taking a walk with your friend

(1) ____________________
____
(2) ____________________
(3) ____________________
(4) ____________________
(5) ____________________
(6) ____________________
(7) ____________________
____
(8) ____________________
____
(9) ____________________
____

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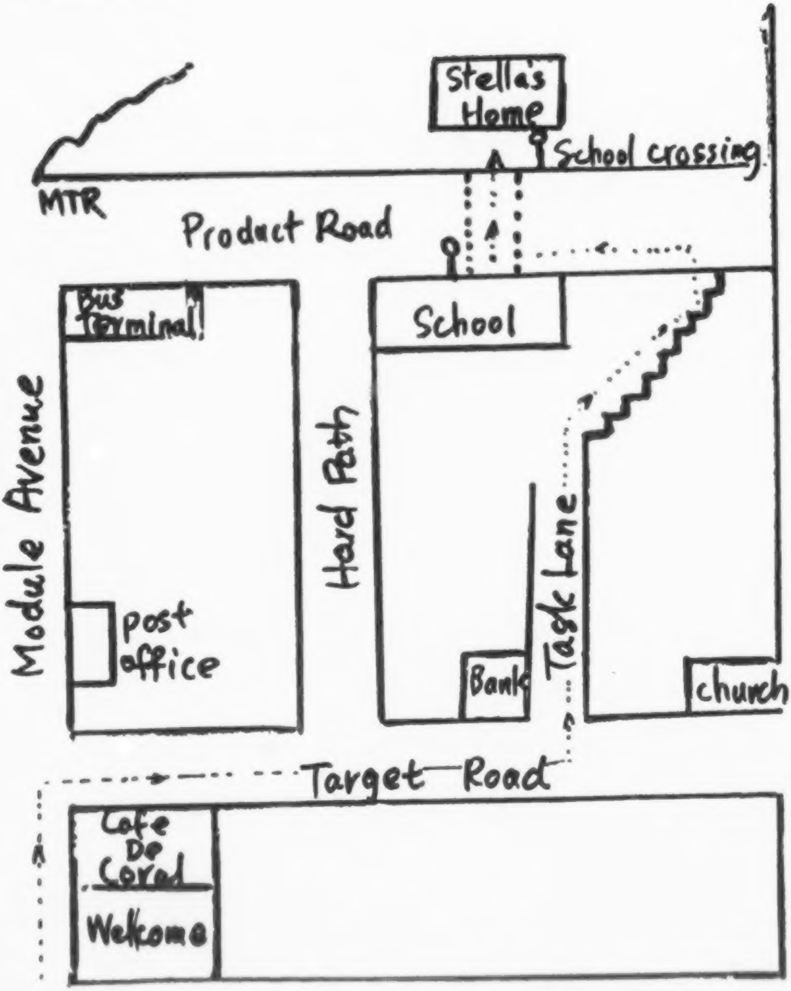
APPENDIX B #3


Stella's Home
School crossing
MTR
Product Road
Bus Terminal
School
Module Avenue
Hard Path
Task Lane
post office
Bank
church
Target Road
Cafe De Coral
Welkome

1518

WORKSHEET LEVEL (3)

Going Back To Stella's Home

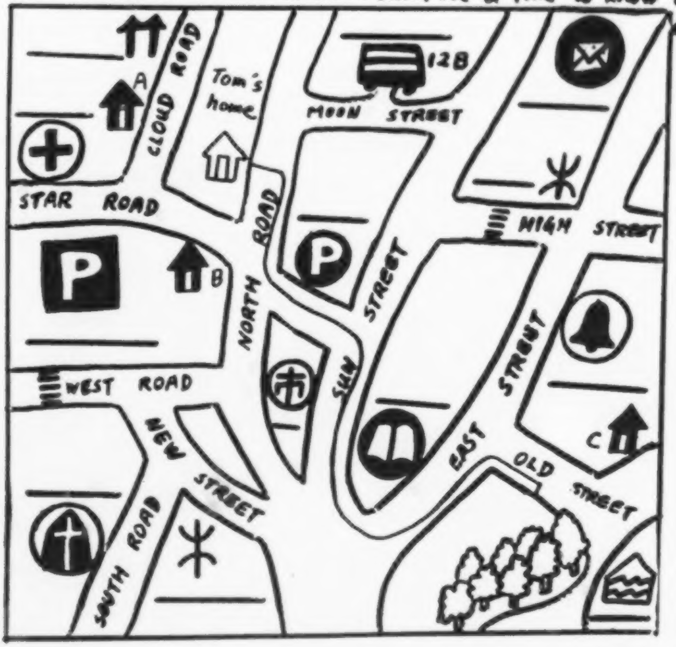
Stella has something to do and she tells her friends to take the bag of rice home first. Please help her :-

First walk along Module Avenue. Turn right when she comes to Target Road

APPENDIX C =1

WORKSHEET A

Tom's friend has come to visit him. He'd like to know the district



A
CLOUD ROAD
Tom's home
12B
MOON STREET
STAR ROAD
NORTH ROAD
P
B
P
HIGH STREET
STREET
SUN
EAST STREET
WEST ROAD
NEW STREET
SOUTH ROAD
OLD STREET
C

Label the signs in the map with the following:

MTR station
bus terminal
car park
church
temple
library

police station
fire station
post office
hospital
market
swimming pool

1520

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APPENDIX C # 2

WORKSHEET B

Yesterday, Tom went to the park.

Locate the park and indicate it in the map with an 'X'. Then describe Tom's journey.

Tom lives on North Road. Yesterday, he left home for the park in ________.

First he turned right and walked along North Road. Then he turned left to ______. He saw the __________ on his left and the ____________ on his right. Then he turned ________

____

____

____

____

____

APPENDIX C #3

WORKSHEET C

Imagine you live in a house in the map. You went to the nearest MTR station yesterday. Create your route and report what you saw on your way.

How to get to the nearest MTR station

I live ______________________________.

Seminar #2070

DEVELOPING LEARNER RESPONSIBILITY IN THE EARLY STAGES OF WRITING

Lynda Poon, Anne Lo, Stella Kong
Target Oriented Curriculum Teacher Education Team

'If you give a man a fish, you feed him for one day. If you teach a man to fish, you feed him for a lifetime.'

Confucius

'The only man who is educated is the man who has learned how to learn'.

Carl Rogers

Introduction

In the process of training teachers for the curriculum renewal brought about by Target Oriented Curriculum (previously referred to as Targets and Target Related Assessment), it was realized that, inter-alia, one of the major difficulties that teachers face is how to accommodate the changes required of them. Giroux (1981) indicates that the curriculum cannot be truly renewed if it is simply recycling and repackaging forms of the existing rationality. Curriculum renewal implies critical reflection on a series of pedagogical issues like the aims of education, the principles of learning, and the roles of teachers and pupils.

One area for reflection is the roles of the teacher and the learner in facilitating learning. In many Hong Kong primary classrooms, the curriculum is heavily teacher-centred and content-based. The teachers feel that their responsibility is to teach their learners all the content of the textbook no matter whether it can be digested or not. The effect of this is that learning becomes passive knowledge-receiving and the responsibility for learning remains with the teacher, who has to make sure that the learners learn what is taught. But since it is not possible for the teacher to disseminate all the knowledge and skills needed by the learners in a classroom, teachers should therefore help students learn how to acquire knowledge — 'to think, make connections and relate what they have learnt to their own situation' (Education Commission 1992:19) — so that learning is self-directed and does not stop after learners leave school. The TOC Programme of Study for English: Key Stage 2 also points out clearly that 'learning a language is a process which depends on the learners' capability to engage their minds actively with the language ..... It is therefore important for learners to develop, as soon as possible, a sense of responsibility which will motivate them to engage actively in their learning.' (Education Department 1992:16)

Purposes & Scope of Article

The traditional view of teachers as the providers of knowledge and authority is still strongly held by many teachers as well as students in Hong Kong. The purposes of this article are, therefore, to raise teacher awareness of the need to promote learner responsibility among students when they are young so that they can be more self motivated and independent in learning; and to propose some practical means of developing self-assessment[1] among primary pupils in writing.

There are many different aspects in developing learner responsibility. They include the opening up of more choices for learners to make decisions and the provision of more opportunities for participation of learners in their learning so that they can decide upon their pacing, contribute to the lessons, get involved in monitoring, evaluating and assessing their progress, and help their peers. In other words, the classroom is to move from a continuum of direct to indirect control and from extrinsic to intrinsic motivation.

The scope of this article is developing learner responsibility in self-assessment, with special focus on writing. The reasons are:

(1) As reflected from teachers' feedback to the TOC Teacher Education Seminars, teachers are most concerned with the changes brought about by the procedures involved in target-related assessment. The concept of assessment as part of the teaching and learning process and the emerging importance played by formative assessment in the curriculum is still very new to most teachers. Helping learners learn to evaluate and assess their own performance is one way of involving learners in such an assessment process.

(2) Writing is a skill which involves more easily observable processes and yields more concrete products. Moreover, 'process writing' (as defined in the TOC Programme of Study for English: Key Stage 2) is considered a 'prominent' aspect in TOC teaching and learning for English (Education Department 1992:205). It, therefore, serves as an appropriate aspect for illustrating how teachers can help learners develop their own responsibility and independence in self assessing their writing.

Self-Assessment in Writing

The ability for learners to self-assess is essential in helping learners to benefit from the process of writing and become more creative and independent writers. This is because the fundamental purpose of assessment is to provide feedback to learners about their strengths and weaknesses, thus promoting their learning. Self-assessment in process writing helps learners examine 'what they do as they write, the strategies they use and the decisions they make as writers' (Tompkins 1992:244). Although it is often held that teachers and specialists will be more reliable in their assessment than the learners themselves, many learners do have an idea of their own performance and they can learn to get information about their own learning with proper guidance (Dickinson 1987). The main issue in this context is indeed not whether self assessment is reliable but whether it enables learners to become better learners.

Self-assessment can be done in different ways using different instruments. In this article, three types of instruments are proposed for helping primary pupils in Hong Kong become responsible and independent writers. Some fundamental changes, however, are needed in the current writing classroom to make it possible for these instruments to be employed.

The basic question that needs to be addressed is whether pupils receive opportunities to write for genuine communication where they can express their own ideas and feelings for specific purposes and for specific readers. It is doubtful whether the conventional practice of guided writing in the primary classroom in Hong Kong actually helps pupils become effective writers. Guided writing, whether in the form of filling in blanks or answering questions is, strictly speaking, not writing at all. It is only a kind of linguistic exercise which does not allow many chances for pupils to express themselves creatively, to experiment and to take risks. Consequently, pupils' duty in a writing lesson is to try their best to write in order to conform to the answers expected of them within one or two periods; after which, the teacher will assume the role of an item checker (Mahon 1992), trying to correct all the mistakes of the pupils. Such an experience makes writing very contrived and does not really help learners explore the art of writing and acquire the skills needed for a responsible and independent writer. Moreover, writing is considered a lonely and individual activity. This is especially so in a conventional writing classroom where pupils are not encouraged to talk or consult others for ideas.

In short, there must be a change in the way the writing exercise is conducted in the classroom before self-assessment instruments can be meaningfully used. The above discussion shows that the fundamental change is teachers' willingness to let go and allow children more opportunities to write without fear of making mistakes. As Rowe and Lomas put it, 'Writing is a skill that will flourish only if children are free to experiment with written language' and 'the best way to learn to write is by writing' (Rowe and Lomas 1984:1). The teacher's role is to guide learners through the stages of the writing process and turn the classroom into a writing community where there is mutual sharing and support among learners and also between the teacher and learners. As the teacher assumes the role of a guide through the writing process and that of a critical reader, giving pupils feedback on content and form wherever appropriate, pupils will gradually learn to take up a more active role in writing and be ready to assess their own work as well as their peers' work.

Instruments for Self-assessment in Writing

Three types of instruments for self-assessment in writing are proposed here for use by primary pupils in Hong Kong. They are (1) checklists, (2) progress cards, and (3) self-evaluation questionnaires.

(1) *Checklists,*

The checklists designed are based on Tompkins' ideas (1990, 1992). The stages outlined in the checklists basically follow the five main stages of process writing stated in the TOC Programme of Study for English: Key Stage 2 i.e. pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing and publishing.

Checklist 1 is the comprehensive checklist for all the stages in the writing process. Checklists 1.1 to 1.4 each deals with one or two of these stages. Checklist 1.1 deals with the Pre-writing stage and the Drafting stage, Checklist 1.2 the Revising stage, Checklist 1.3 the Editing stage and Checklist 1.4 the Publishing stage. Together, these 4 checklists include exactly the same steps as those in the comprehensive Checklist 1. These 4 checklists are designed for beginning writers and are therefore presented in the form of pictures so as to help illustrate the steps visually. The metalanguage is kept as simple as possible but some process words are included since both the teacher and pupils need to establish a bank of familiar terminology for discussion and conferencing where the teacher meets pupils individually or in groups on particular aspects of their writing.

At the Pre-writing stage, it is suggested that pupils should be helped to get into the habit of developing a Word Bank for each particular writing task. The Word Bank will include the target words needed for that particular piece of writing and it will be the source of reference when pupils have to check spelling in the Editing stage. We think it is sufficient for pupils to check the spelling of the target words only because these are words specially learnt for writing a particular piece.

The Feedback Checklist (Card 1) to be used at Step 9 is designed to help pupils develop revision skills.

(2) *Progress Cards*

Pupils can be guided to develop a variety of progress cards to use in charting their own learning progress in various writing sub-skills. Two exemplar progress cards, one on grammar and one on punctuation (Cards 2 and 3), are presented here. These two progress cards can be used as checklists when pupils are working at the Editing stage (Steps 13 and 14, Checklist 1.3).

According to Walshe, 'there are five small areas of grammar teaching/learning that can help writers to be conscious avoiders of error' (1981:165). These are:

1. A sentence needs a verb.
2. It is sometimes useful to distinguish between 'sentence', 'clause', and 'phrase'.
3. Verbs need to agree in number with their subjects.
4. Simple present and past tense differences need to be identified.
5. Subject and object forms of personal pronouns need to be distinguished.

(from Walshe 1981:165)

Four of these 'five small areas of grammar' are included in the Grammar Progress Card (Card 3). The distinction between 'sentence', 'clause' and 'phrase' is not included since the concept may be too difficult for beginning learners. The items on the progress cards, however, are not exhaustive and both the teacher and learners can always add any items as appropriate.

Some grammar terms e.g. subject-verb agreement, pronouns etc are kept in these progress cards since they are 'indispensable' and 'can grow on children as specific terms need to be used in the classroom' (Walshe 1981:165).

(3) *Self-evaluation Questionnaire*

The self-evaluation questionnaire is designed to help pupils reflect on both the process and the product of their own writing. The questionnaire is made as simple as possible but two openended questions are included in order to develop pupils' ability to think more deeply and critically about their own writing.

Use of the Instruments

Beginning writers will need to be shown how to use these instruments. Teachers should deal with the items on these instruments one at a time rather than expecting pupils to be able to use them all immediately. But the ultimate aim is that pupils should be trained to be responsible and independent writers who can make use of these instruments to help themselves write on their own as well as to help their classmates.

These instruments should therefore be used for training primary pupils' writing ability as early as possible. However, teachers can start using these to help pupils at any level. Pupils must be allowed ample time to progress at their own pace in the process of learning how to write. It is, therefore, not appropriate to assign any time schedule for the use of these instruments. Teachers should decide when individual pupils can use which one according to their ability and needs.

(1) *Checklists*

As a start, teachers should introduce Checklist 1.1 to the whole class as they take a class through the Pre-writing stage to the Drafting stage. Time must be allowed for pupils to practise using the checklist in conferences. When pupils can monitor their movement through the various steps in Checklist 1.1, teachers can introduce Checklist 1.2 for the Revising stage. At Step 9, pupils can make use of the Feedback Checklist (Card 1) to help their Writing Partner(s) clarify the meaning and enrich the content of their piece(s) of writing. When pupils are familiar with using Checklist 1.2, Checklists 1.3 and 1.4 can then be introduced in the same way. At Step 12, pupils have to check spelling by referring back to the Word Bank they have created at Step 5 (Checklist 1.2). At Steps 13 and 14, pupils can make use of the two progress cards (Cards 2 and 3) as checklists for editing.

To facilitate learning, the checklists can be made into large posters for display in the classroom. For beginning writers, Cantonese can be used in conferences so as to encourage interaction.

When pupils can use Checklists 1.1 to 1.4 without problems, they can start using Checklist 1 on their own. They can put a tick or give themselves a grade against the steps they can perform on the checklist.

(2) *Progress Cards*

Other than being used as checklists at the Editing stage, the two proposed progress cards can also be used for self- assessment and teacher-assessment on individual pupils' progress in their mastery of various punctuation and grammar items. Items in the progress cards are non-exhaustive to allow for addition or deletion as according to the ability and needs of individual pupils. Pupils can always enter more items as they have learnt more. These two progress cards, and any others pupils have developed, should be kept in individual pupils' writing folders as a form of record keeping for monitoring their own progress.

(3) *Self-evaluation Questionnaire*

When pupils are familiar with the various steps and stages in this process writing approach, they can use the self- evaluation questionnaire to give themselves an overall assessment of their own writing. The self-evaluation questionnaire helps pupils to reflect on their own strengths and weaknesses as writers. The reflection can provide the basis for setting targets and goals for improving their future writing tasks.

Conclusion

The three types of instruments proposed for self-assessment are intended to help primary pupils develop intrinsic motivation as they learn to write and assess their work throughout the writing process more independently. As pupils also play the roles of writing partners and readers for each other, the writing classroom can actually be developed into a supportive writing community where pupils grow to be responsible and independent writers. All in all, this article is an attempt to raise teacher awareness of the need to release learning responsibility back to pupils. It is hoped that it can help teachers, especially primary school teachers, to realise that learner responsibility can be developed gradually when learners are young through different means. Self assessment in writing through the three types of instruments proposed is one way. It is hoped that teachers can put these instruments into practice and feedback on the practicality of using these instruments is welcomed.

NOTE

1. In this article, the term 'self assessment' will be used in the same way as in Tompkins (1990, 1992). There is no attempt to distinguish between the two terms 'assessment' and 'evaluation'.

Acknowledgement

We are very grateful to Miss Pat Cheng for her invaluable help in drawing the pictures for the checklists.

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Checklist 1

A Writing Checklist

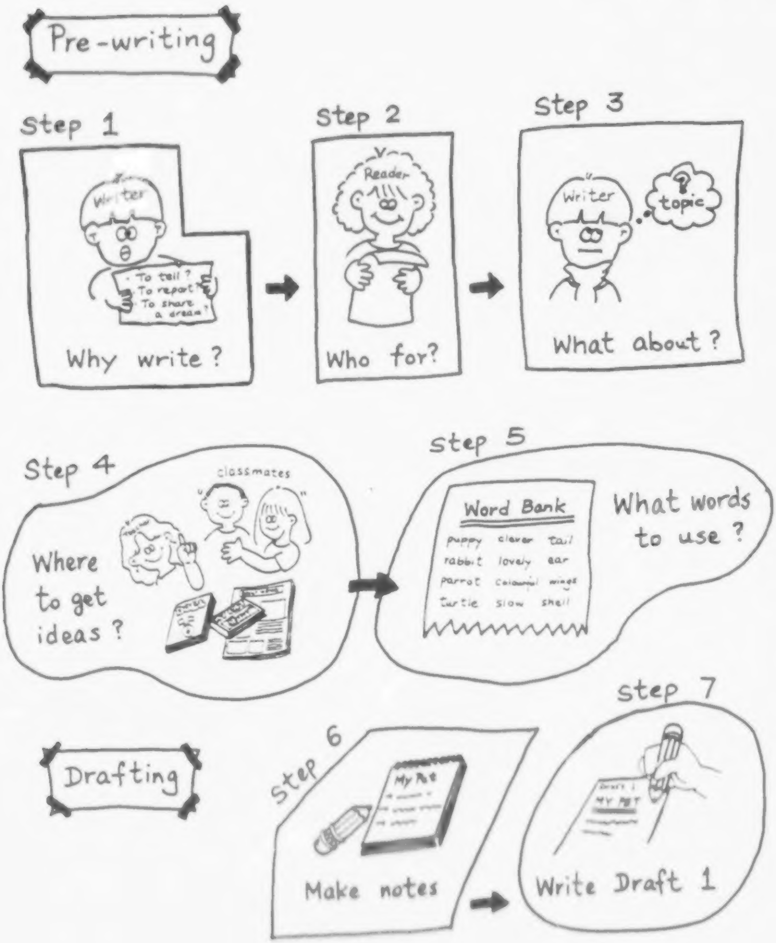
Pre-writing : — Why write ?
— Who for ?
— What about ?
— Where to get ideas ?
— What words to use ?

Drafting : — Make notes
— Write Draft 1

Revising : — Re-read Draft 1 to check meaning
— Ask Writing Partner for feedback
— Make changes based on feedback and re-reading
— Write Draft 2

Editing : — Check spelling
— Check punctuation
— Check grammar
— Get help from classmates
— Get help from teacher

Publishing /Sharing : — Write the final draft
— Draw some pictures
— Share it with other readers
— Put it on display or in your writing folder


Pre-writing
Step 1
Writer
To tell?
To report?
To share a dream?
Why write?
Step 2
Reader
Who for?
Step 3
Writer
topic
What about?
Step 4
classmates
Where to get ideas?
Step 5
Word Bank
puppy clever tail
rabbit lovely ear
parrot colourful wings
turtle slow shell
What words to use?
Drafting
Step 6
My Pet
Make notes
Step 7
Draft 1
MY PET
Write Draft 1

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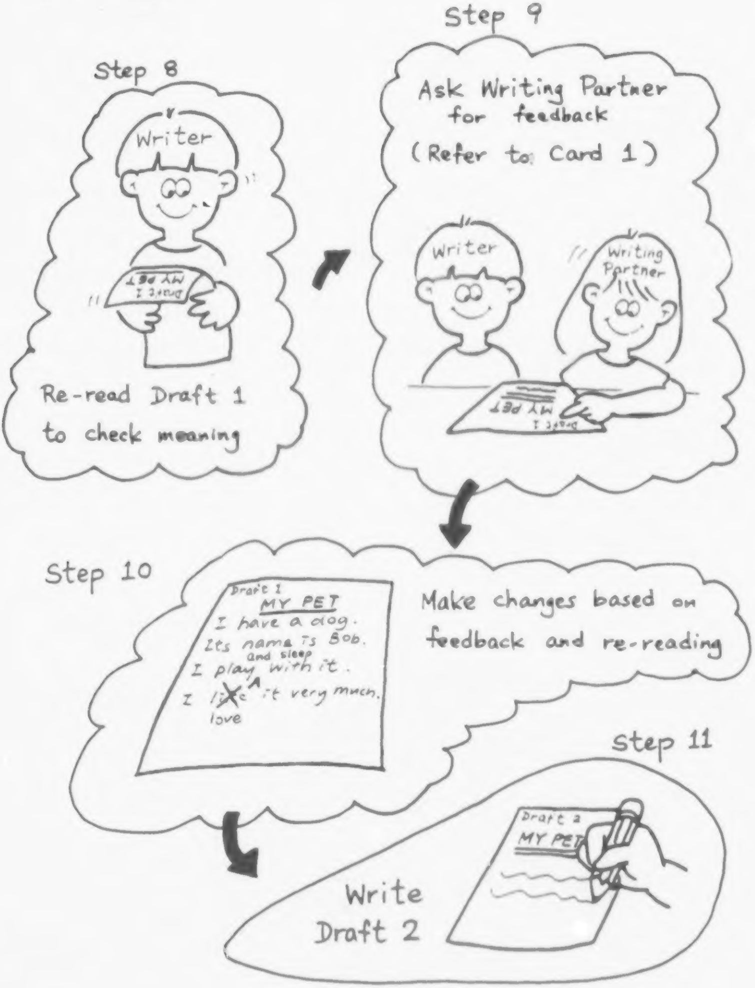
Revising


Writer
Draft 1
MY PET
Writer
Writing Partner
Draft 1
MY PET
Draft 1
MY PET
I have a dog.
Its name is Bob.
I play and sleep with it.
I ~~like~~ love it very much.
Draft 2
MY PET

Step 8

Re-read Draft 1 to check meaning

Step 9

Ask Writing Partner for feedback (Refer to Card 1)

Step 10

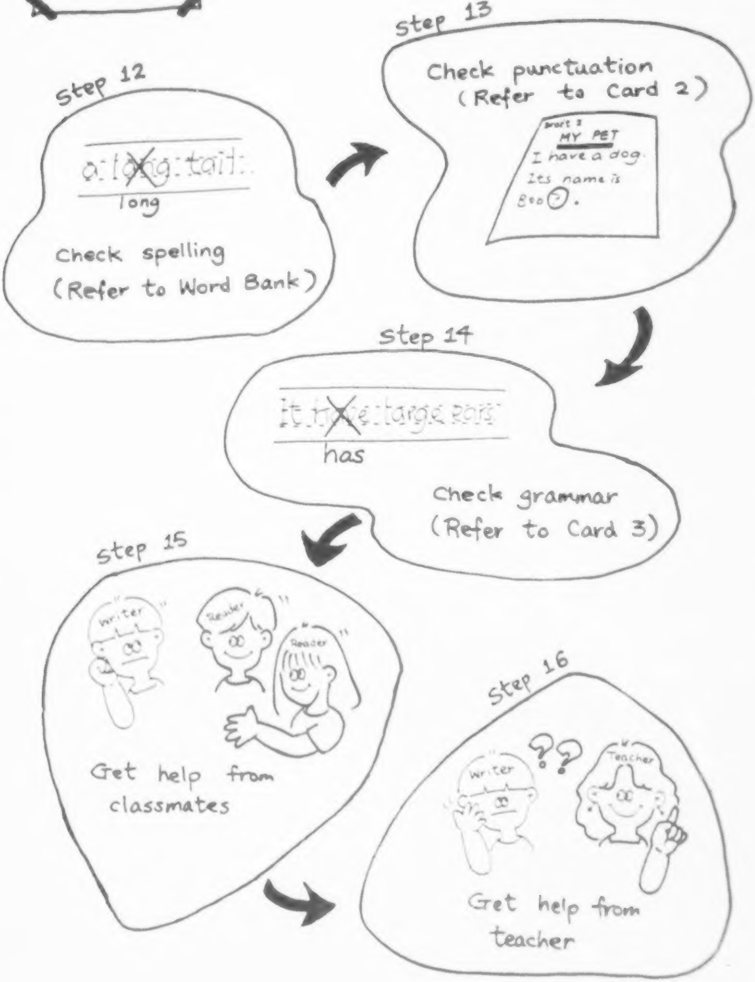
Make changes based on feedback and re-reading

Step 11

Write Draft 2

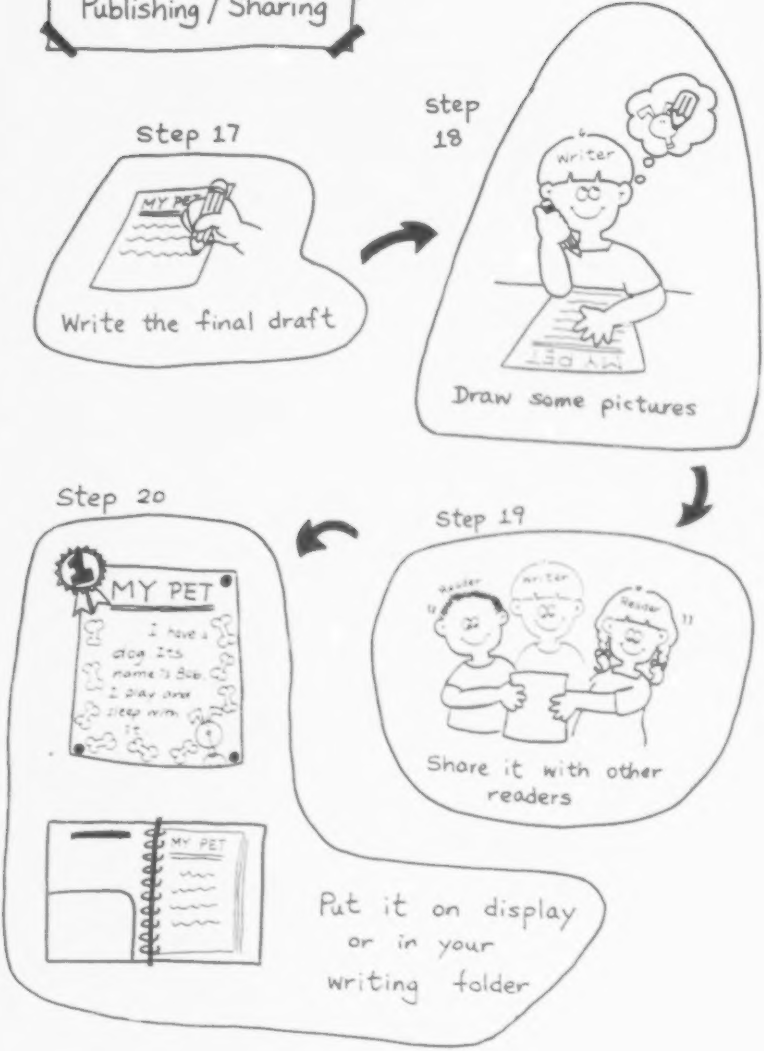
Checklist 1.3

Editing


step 12
a long tail
long
Check spelling
(Refer to Word Bank)
step 13
Check punctuation
(Refer to Card 2)
Draft 2
MY PET
I have a dog.
Its name is
Boo.
step 14
It have large ears
has
Check grammar
(Refer to Card 3)
step 15
Writer
Reader
Reader
Get help from
classmates
step 16
??
Writer
Teacher
Get help from
teacher

Checklist 1.4

Publishing / Sharing


Step 17
MY PET
Write the final draft
step 18
Writer
MY PET
Draw some pictures
Step 19
Reader
Writer
Reader
Share it with other readers
Step 20
MY PET
I have a dog. Its name is Bob. I play and sleep with it.
MY PET
Put it on display or in your writing folder

Feedback Checklist

Card 1

see Step 9 (Checklist 3)

Writer
Writing Partner

Be a good Writing Partner.

Give helpful feedback.

1. Read your partner's Draft 1.
2. Put your comments on Draft 1.
   Here are some symbols to use.

☆	A good / interesting idea
☆☆	A very good / interesting idea
✓	A clear sentence
✓✓	A very clear sentence
?( )	Explain, please.
^	Tell me more, please.
✂( )	How about taking this out?
←( )	How about moving this to...
( )+( )	How about joining these together?

Progress Card — Punctuation

Card 2

see Step 13 (Checklist 4)

Name: ____________________ Class: __________

Put a tick (✓) for "yes"
a cross (x) for "not yet"
an "S" for "sometimes"

I can use

	Self	Teacher	Date
→ Full Stop (.) • at the end of a sentence •			
→ Question Mark (?) • at the end of a question			
→ Capital Letter • to begin a sentence • to begin proper names •			
→ Comma (,) • to separate words in a series •			
→ Inverted Commas (' ') • before and after direct speech •			
→ Apostrophe (') • to show possession • in contractions •			
→ Exclamation Mark (!) • to show strong feelings •			

1536

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Progress Card — Grammar

Card 3

see Step 14 (Checklist 4)

Name: ______________ Class: _____

Put a tick (✓) for "yes"
a cross (×) for "not yet"
an "S" for "sometimes"

I can check	Self	Teacher	Date
■ the main verb in a sentence eg I gave Mary a book			
■ subject-verb agreement eg John is there Peter and Mary are there too			
■ pronouns eg I like my new watch very much. It was a present from Mary and her parents			
■ tenses • the use of the simple past tense to talk about past events eg Our class went to the Space Museum yesterday • the use of the simple present tense to talk about habitual actions eg My mother goes to work at seven o'clock every morning • •			
■ ■			

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Self-evaluation Questionnaire — Writing

1. Did you enjoy writing this piece?

☐ Yes ☐ OK ☐ No

2. Refer to the Writing Checklist.
Write down the steps you found

easy ______________________

difficult ______________________

useful ______________________

not useful ______________________

3. What did you like / not like about your writing?

____

4. What did you learn?

____

METAPHOR IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM: A CASE FOR CHANGE

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Sir Robert Black College of Education

Abstract

This paper has two aims, the first is to identify the kinds of difficulties L2 students experience when trying to comprehend metaphoric items used in everyday communication, and the second is to provide examples of metaphoric items which L2 students have difficulty in processing accurately. Initial findings identify three broad areas which cause confusion. The study concludes: (1) that metaphor in discourse is a significant cause of learner comprehension failure, and (2) its neglect in language programmes is a cause for concern.

Introduction

This study aims to show that the present attitude to metaphor and other nonliteral language forms in the L2 context is due for reappraisal. The case for re-assessing established attitudes towards metaphor and its functions in discourse is now well documented in L1 literature (MacLennan, 1990), however, these major developments in the understanding of metaphor and its place in language have not yet been reflected in the ELT field.

Although many attempts have been made to provide a satisfactory definition of metaphor (Richards, 1936; Hawkes, 1972; 1984; MacCormac, 1985) it may, as Low (1988) comments, be theoretically impossible to draw boundaries which work perfectly since nonliteral language, of which metaphor is a subset, also includes those devices of *figurative or tropical* language such as idiom, simile, metonomy hyperbole, irony, sarcasm, indirect speech acts and implicature 'whose meaning cannot be obtained by direct composition of their constituent words' (Fass, Martin & Hinkleman, 1992).

Until recently, despite centuries of interest, metaphor was traditionally characterised as ornamental, emotive and misleading, and categorised as a 'deviant expression' (Katz & Fodor, 1963; Chomsky, 1965; Levin, 1977) marginal to serious language study, a view still held by many ELT specialists. The importance of metaphor and its central place in language has gradually been recognised through L1 research over the past few years and it is now regarded as one of the 'deepest and most persistent phenomena of theory building and thinking' (Paprotte & Dirven, 1985, p.vii), a fact with which many disciplines are belatedly coming to terms (Miall, 1982; Pickens, Pollio & Pollio, 1985; Trosborg, 1985).

These rapid advances in metaphor studies, which are now a focal point of computer programmes designed to research natural language processing (Fass, Martin & Hinkleman, 1992) have unfortunately been slow to filter through to the ELT field where metaphor is still viewed with suspicion. Some publishers, as Vincent (1986) notes, and ELT professionals, for example, even advocate eliminating metaphor from ELT texts (Quirk, 1983; Johnson, 1988), a formidable task, given metaphor's functions in the structure of language itself (Lakoff & Johnson 1980; Lakoff 1987). Adopting such a shortsighted policy would further decrease L2 students' opportunities to study this essential feature of everyday interaction in English. In addition, it would continue to prevent ESL learners from developing conceptual scaffolding (Veale & Keane, 1992; Minsky, 1988), based on various orientational and ontological domains which might simplify and accelerate the learning of grammar and vocabulary (MacLennan, forthcoming, 1994).

In view of the prevalence of metaphor in all aspects of language its importance to ESL learners as a basic feature of communication should no longer be underestimated.

ESL/EFL Research

Existing EFL/ESL research in the area of metaphor falls into two related categories. The first documents the difficulties and negative effects caused by nonliteral language in discourse. The second points out that students do not need to be protected from metaphor in their L2 since they are familiar with it in their mother tongue and already have the ability to understand and use it. Proponents of this view hold that students should be helped to build on these foundations, to learn the characteristic of metaphor as it is used in the L2 and that the teaching of metaphor should be an integral part of all ELT courses.

Studies of Difficulties with Nonliteral Language

Of the few existing studies in the ESL/EFL field a number focus on content analysis of discourse. An early ESL study content analyzed the basal readers used by immigrant children in Texas schools (Adkins 1968a). Results from this work indicated that the reading books prescribed for these ESL children contained substantial amounts of nonliteral language. A follow-up pilot study (Adkins 1968b) produced only 1097, (35%) accurate responses from a possible total of 3,150. In a third study Adkins (1969) records 'a great increase' in children's understanding as a result of the removal of the nonliteral textual elements. She does not, however, advocate the simplification of texts or the elimination of nonliteral language but emphasises the need to develop programmes which teach this language effectively.

Although this research is not without serious flaws Adkins' strong recommendation that figurative language studies should be an essential part of all language courses remains persuasive. The most pressing reason for L2 students to learn and use idiomatic expressions and figures of speech is not principally to develop their reading comprehension but, according to Adkins, is required much more urgently to enable them to understand everyday conversation.

Irujo (1986), who also criticises the inadequacy of idiom teaching, reports the result of a survey of five ESL idiom books. Criticisms are directed at exercises which can be completed without reference to meaning (Reeves, 1975) or by structural manipulation (Dixson, 1983). Production of idioms is seldom required although Irujo notes that one task which does make this demand is unnecessarily difficult and of questionable pedagogical value.

A number of writers (Adkins, 1969; Bensoussan, 1983; Taylor 1983) note the limitations of dictionaries which add to the difficulties of ESL/EFL students. Taylor (1983) observes that the principles determining the range of entries related to metaphor are 'fairly haphazard' since no standardized entry procedures maintain. According to Bensoussan (1983) test makers also fail to consider the nonliteral features present in rubrics and question forms from an L2 perspective. Of note are the presence of connotative and multiply denotative language in standard test formats and test questions which go beyond the meanings of words, eliciting information about word effects and word functions as related to particular contexts. Bensoussan concludes that ESL/EFL students may be poorly served in the testing field. Alerting testmakers to the problems of 'frame-conflict' (Reddy, 1979) and introducing testtakers to nonliteral forms commonly employed in examination instructions could reduce or eliminate students' difficulties. The following phrases, taken from a guide to examination candidates, are similar to the features of test rubrics which Bensoussan criticises: swallow your pride; just plunge straight in; this section contains five sample questions; you will fall into all sorts of traps; you may fear the clock; the questions 'stand alone'; the way to attack questions; the thread that links all the sentences; this integration of skills mirrors the requirements; the intention is reflected in the fact that ...; if you can successfully bridge the communication gap (HKEA, 1987).

The problem of 'frame-conflict' arises when native speakers of English fail to note the specialised (usually nonliteral) uses of many of the underlined words in phrases such as the above, while students' difficulties arise from their unfamiliarity with the words in these particular (often abstract) applications.

Studies Related to Metaphor in the Mother Tongue

One of the few studies replicating L1 research in the L2 field is Trosborg's (1985) rerun of Winner et al's 1975 work which examined the skills associated with processing novel metaphors. Using materials adapted from the original L1 study Trosborg examined the development and use of appropriate conventional metaphors with L2 children. Trosborg's findings, which support those of the Winner et al. study, indicate that L2 students' understanding of metaphor is superior to that of native speakers. These results support Cummins' (1980) view that bilingual children are more adept than monolingual children at certain types of linguistic processing. This skill may develop from the more extensive language input they are required to decipher. Two cross-cultural studies by Bountrogianni (1984 and 1985), add further support to these findings.

A detailed list of English metaphors for which there are Chinese equivalents is provided in a paper by Chan and Kwok (1974). These include orientational metaphors which focus on spatial concepts of height, location, size and distance. Vertical movement is used in both Cantonese and English to refer to the concept of status and to changes of mood and emotion. Depth and height have greater intensity and therefore positive connotations in both languages, while shallowness is equally derogated. Common to both tongues are metaphors of darkness and light in relation to intellect and education, while equivalences of texture as applied to human disposition are also found. Sets of animal metaphors, parts of the body, and certain psychological states, actions, weather, the seasons and various environmental phenomena are all common sources of metaphor for which correspondences in Cantonese and English may be found. Brown & Witkowski (1981) assemble further cross-language evidence to support their argument for the existence of universal naming tendencies related to figurative expressions.

A study which examines the 'readability' of texts used for reading comprehension in Hong Kong schools (Cheung, 1985), notes that commonly used indicators of difficulty such as the frequency of word use, limited syllabic length, and the extensiveness of subject distribution do not correlate with ease of comprehension. However, passive structures, conditionals, complex or reversed sentences, and the characteristically English tendency to avoid repetition were found to be sources of difficulty. While this study makes no direct reference to metaphor or non-literal language Cheung's findings all indirectly affect the issue of metaphor and other forms of nonliteral language in school programmes because children who have problems with vocabulary, structures and tenses as outlined above are likely to have even more difficulty with language which is intentionally (or otherwise) nonliteral. The fact that nonliteral English is not recognized as a source of difficulty in this study testifies to its continuing failure to be identified as a high priority item. Cheung notes that the polysemantic function of many vocabulary items is 'constrained by the test format,' since only one meaning of a word can be tested. This, in effect, means that teaching may generally be limited to single word meaning, since testing constraints often influence teaching programmes.

Low (1988) notes that little is known about the type and nature of the difficulties experienced by ESL/EFL learners when confronted by metaphoric items in discourse, while Lindstromberg (1991) makes a plea for 'field-by-field study of the role of metaphor in ESP texts'. Both Low and Lindstromberg provide categorized lists of common metaphors and make suggestions as to how these could be taught to EFL/ESL learners. However, research into difficulties related to metaphoric items in L2 discourse, and attempts to account for them, are still slow to emerge. It is this issue which the present study investigates.

The Present Study

The aims of the study reported here are:

1. to identify the kinds of difficulties participants experience when confronted with metaphor and other nonliteral language forms in authentic texts; and
2. to provide specific examples of metaphoric items which participants do not process accurately.

The present study is part of a larger investigation concerned with the teaching and learning of metaphor (Maclennan, 1990) which will not be discussed here.

Participants

The participants in the study were 66 pre-service student teachers aged between 17 and 26 whose L1 was Cantonese. All students had been learning English for more than 14 years and were preparing either to teach English or to use English as the medium of instruction for teaching other subjects.

Materials

The areas of language most relevant to EFL/ESL students in Hong Kong, as in other countries, are related to education and employment. For this reason the study focused on metaphor and nonliteral language in everyday use and in contexts related to study and work. The sources for each item were selected from the English language press, media, textbooks and examination papers available in Hong Kong. A semi-random selection procedure was adopted to ensure that the topics included education, politics, business, science, the professional and academic fields, advertising and sport.

Two tests, designated pre- and post-tests, each containing 20 metaphoric sentences were trial tested and revised where necessary. These instruments were selected for use in an earlier experiment (MacLennan, 1990) the results of which are reported elsewhere. Data collected for that study were re-examined to provide the data required for the present work.

Procedures

Both pre- and post-tests were administered to all the students in normally scheduled lecture periods. An interval of six weeks intervened between the administering of the first and second tests during which one

1543

group of students was introduced to nonliteral and figurative language techniques as part of their coursework. This teaching input is not directly relevant to the outcome of the present study (which focuses only on the difficulties students are seen to encounter as they work with nonliteral language whether or not they have received teaching) but is related to the larger investigation referred to above. The data were obtained from students' written responses to test items, along with protocols which were recorded by some of the participants as they worked on the test materials. Additional data were also collected independently from students' classwork.

Results and Discussion

The first aim of the present study was to identify the kinds of difficulties participants experience when confronted with metaphor and other nonliteral language forms in authentic texts. The following three broad areas of concern have initially been identified from analysis of the data:

(1) Students may have inadequately established concepts of 'literal' and 'nonliteral' language.

(2) Students may fail to exploit available discoursal information.

(3) Metaphors which are integrated in English for L1 speakers may not be integrated for L2 learners and may cause them difficulties.

A second aim of the study was to provide specific examples of metaphoric items which participants do not process accurately. Tables 1–6 provide examples of students' responses to metaphoric items which indicate that the items have not been understood.

A few of the examples shown in Tables 1–6 will now be discussed in relation to the kinds of difficulties which they reveal.

Discussion of Difficulties Identified

It is clear that the discussion which follows provides only one of several possible interpretations of the data. However, problems of inadequate world knowledge, metalinguistic uncertainties, confusion of written forms and other possibilities are commonly noted by teachers while difficulties stemming from the effects of nonliteral language are more frequently overlooked. The examples provided have been chosen deliberately to illustrate this point therefore in cases where alternative explanations were possible subsequent class discussion indicated that the nonliteral element had caused or contributed to the students' confusion.

(1) Students may have inadequately established concepts of literal and nonliteral language

The examples given in Tables 1–3 show that the concepts of literal and nonliteral language in English were not understood by some of the participants in the present study. Further research would indicate if these concepts have yet to be established in Cantonese, or whether the problem, as perhaps is more likely, is one of transferring conceptual knowledge from the L1 to appropriate situations in the L2. Table 1 provides examples in which students directly confuse literal and nonliteral items.

Table 1
Examples of students' responses to metaphoric items
Type 1A: Evidence of possible literal and nonliteral confusion

Example 1:	Mr Smith sadly told his wife that his boss had fired him.
Response:	From the literal meaning. Mr. Smith told his wife that his boss had dismissed his job.
Example 2:	The train uttered a squeal as it entered the station.
Response:	The train made a squeal sound. From the literal meaning.
Example 3:	Cornelia Oschkenat shattered her own indoor hurdles record yesterday.
Response:	We can't shatter our record we say 'break' our record.

This confusion is evident in Table 1, examples 1 and 2. In the first example the student asserts that the item which is based on the idiom 'to be fired from one's job' is literal, which, of course, is not the case. Although this expression is a common way of referring to the act of summarily dismissing someone from their position, it is clearly a dead or established metaphor which native speakers seldom any longer notice.

Gibbs (1992) notes that a literal paraphrase, however acceptable, is not an exact representation of the idiom to which it refers, and frequently it differs sharply. In the present instance 'to be dismissed from one's job' is not even a literal paraphrase of 'to be fired'. Most dictionaries fail to address the subject. The Cobuild lists the expression as 15th in a list of possible applications of 'fire' (Cobuild, 1987, p. 539), without much elaboration. Websters Third International (1986, p. 854) includes the item in a list of expressions which refer to being expelled or driven out or away 'by or as if by fire' or 'thrown out or eject(ed) forcibly'. The etymological information supplied by Partridge (1966) all relates to 'fire', 'flame', 'burning' or to a 'stone for striking fire'. It seems probable that the link between being expelled or driven out 'as if by fire' and being dismissed from one's job arose because the one originally provided a rather apt metaphoric image of the consequences of the other. But even if 'being fired' has become an acceptable way of indicating dismissal, the fact remains that the reference is not literal.

An interesting point is that a similar metaphor is common in Cantonese. In this language the expression translates as 'fried cuttlefish'. Presumably the effect of being, in Webster's words, 'peremptorily' dismissed from one's job is viewed metaphorically as similar to that of a cuttlefish which has been fried, just as the English expression compares the experience to being 'driven out as if by fire'. Although not used exclusively to indicate dismissal from employment, an additional English idiom from a semantic area similar to that of the Cantonese and expressing a similar sentiment is 'to have cooked one's goose'.

Confusion is again evident in example 2 where the respondent asserts that the 'squeal sound' which the train is said to 'utter' is also literal.

Table 2

Examples of students' responses to metaphoric items
Type 1B: Evidence of possible concrete and abstract confusion

Example 4:	Reach/arrive #1 We reached home at ten. #2 We arrived home at ten. #3 I reached that decision last night. #4 I arrived at that conclusion last night.
Response:	#1 & #2 are correct but #3 & #4 are wrong.

In Table 2 the problems stem from the confusion between concrete and abstract items. Some students are not aware that items used literally to apply to a physical or concrete situation may also be used nonliterally in English to refer to abstract ideas. The point is illustrated by the text book exercise set out below. Learners are instructed to: 'Look at the examples of the use and misuse of the words in each following pair of English words. Then come to conclusions about: the difference between the words in each pair; the criteria for deciding whether the two words are interchangeable; and the use of synonyms (or near synonyms) in the teaching of vocabulary' (Bolitho & Tomlinson, 1980).

The participants agreed that sentence #1 'we reached home at ten' is accurate but rejected sentence #3 'I reached that decision last night' as incorrect. Likewise sentence #2 was accepted as accurate while sentence #4 was unacceptable. In a follow-up discussion students reasoned that the verbs 'arrive' and 'reach' cannot be used to refer to abstract items. Their understanding is that a conclusion is an abstraction therefore it cannot be referred to in the way the physical arrival at an actual place would be referred to.

Subsequent discussion revealed that not only were the students unaware of the distinction they were making between abstract ideas and physical movement, they were also unaware of the contrast between figurative and literal meanings in the sentences.

This indicates that the associations between concrete and abstract, and literal and figurative uses of language may be inadequately dealt with in ELT classes, it also reiterates Cheung's (1985) findings that, in at least some Hong Kong schools, only single meanings for vocabulary items may be taught. However, if students fail to perceive connections between abstract and concrete in relation to metaphoric English they will find discourse comprehension very difficult.

Table 3 shows a third source of possible literal/nonliteral confusion where students overgeneralise from new and unstable learning of figurative techniques and identify what is literal as nonliteral.

Table 3
Type 1C: Evidence of possible over generalization

Example 5:	Foods which contain fibre require a lot of chewing.
Response:	'require' usually used for person. e.g. A person requires others to do something. So, the skill of personification is used.
Example 6:	The engineer promised to connect the telephone by the weekend.
Response:	It's a simile.
Example 7:	The train uttered a squeal as it entered the station.
Response:	'Simile' it used 'as'.

One student identifies example 7 'the train uttered a squeal as it entered the station' as a simile because 'it used as'. In this instance, of course, the 'as' refers to time and not, as the student mistakenly indicates, to comparison.

(2) Students may fail to exploit available information

Tables 4–6 provide examples of students' difficulties which are categorised under this heading.

Table 4
Examples of students' responses to metaphoric items Type 2A: Evidence that students' may fail to exploit available information

Example 8:	He was a tall man with a bulbous nose
Response a:	He had a 'big' nose.
Response b:	I think 'bulbous' is used to describe something round and spherical'
Response c:	The man was an American.
Response d:	Tall and 'bulbous nose' describes a person who has much self-confidence and will not take others opinions into consideration too.

These difficulties include the incorrect use of vocabulary and word forms, and the failure to note which, and how many, semantic fields are used in nonliteral items. Example 8 (Table 4) frequently produced a response as in 8a 'He had a big nose' which equates 'bulbous' with big. This interpretation ignores the root word 'bulb', in relation to shape, which is almost certainly present in the student's prior knowledge data base but has not been accessed.

Metaphors which have become firmly established in the language as clichés, or idioms are often termed 'dead', 'frozen' (Pollio and Pickens 1980), 'integrated' (Low, 1988), or 'established' (Cooper, 1986) metaphors. This response to example 8a which equates 'bulbous' with big treats it as an established, metaphor and simply paraphrases it. However, the danger is that L2 students remain unaware of the paraphrase and believe that 'big' is an accurate translation of 'bulbous'. Native speakers, even language teachers, commonly fail to process these established metaphors and therefore it is not surprising that L2 students are seldom taught how to develop the necessary associations.

Response 8b 'I think "bulbous" is used to describe something round and spherical' is more acceptable but still falls short of noting the intended metaphor based on the similar shape of a 'bulb' and the 'nose' in question. This student also misses the point because the metaphor is not being used as a tool with which to build meaning by associating or comparing objects according to their common salient qualities.

It is not clear what association the students were setting up in responses 8c and 8d. The impulse for these comments remain obscure but whatever the link between 'bulbous nose' and 'overconfidence' which the student detects it is clearly not related to the intended metaphor. While several problems have been outlined there were also some students who did make the link between 'bulb' and 'bulbous' and explained the metaphor accurately.

The mixed-metaphor trap is one which often snares the unwary native speaker of English. Responses to the test items show that L2 students also fail to attend to the literal sense of the words they are reading and replace the given item with an imprecise substitute. Table 5 provides an example of a student who makes this error.

Table 5
Examples of students' responses to metaphoric items Type 2B: Evidence that students may unconsciously mix the semantic fields of nonliteral topics

Example 9:	Japan's economy is steaming ahead.
Response:	Japan's economy is blooming quickly and prosperous.

Example 9 'Japan's economy is steaming ahead' produced the response 'Japan's economy is blooming quickly and prosperous'. 'Steaming ahead', the student explains, means 'blooming quickly'. The original item compares the economy of Japan to a locomotive steam train travelling swiftly ahead. The student's version compares the Japanese economy to a plant which has suddenly flowered. The vehicle or target of the metaphor has been altered by the student from one semantic area 'steam trains' to another 'plants' thus mixing the metaphor. An argument could be made that the student was simply confusing the word 'blooming' with 'booming' which s/he intended but the latter, although commonly used metaphorically in relation to the economy, also alters the semantic field. These points illustrate that 'roughly equivalent literal paraphrases' (Gibbs, 1992) do not provide adequate evidence of understanding.

The semantic confusion evident in example 9 could be avoided by teaching students to identify how source, target and ground of metaphors inter-relate. The 'deep processing' required by this task of tracing the origins and applications of nonliteral items could enhance memory retention and help to stabilise the learning of vocabulary (Bischofsahusen, Makoid & Cole, 1989).

Table 6 provides examples where students use vocabulary and word forms incorrectly. In the response to example 10 the student obviously confuses the word 'flock' with the word 'fleet' so fails to identify the correct figurative intention. These examples underline the interdependence of grapho-phonemic symbols and the semantic conceptualisations which they produce. They also indicate that understanding language involves understanding metaphor. Since metaphor is a basic component of language it is inevitably linked to the difficulties which students encounter.

Table 6
Examples of students' responses to metaphoric items
Type 2C. Evidence that students may use vocabulary and word forms incorrectly

Example 10	Arabs flock to join the Afghan war.
Response	The word 'flock' (fighting ships) and 'war' suggest the meaning. Easy deduction.
Example 11	Cornelia Oschkenat shattered her own indoor hurdles record yesterday.
Response	Cornelia Oschkenat broke her record for indoor hurdles yesterday. Shattered—just like leaves falling down from trees in autumn.
Example 12	Many people hope that China's modernization will take off.
Response	Many people hope that China's modernization will be cancelled.
Example 13	The train uttered a squeal as it entered the station.
Response	A squeal has a nonliteral meaning of a great deal in a mass it implied that a lot of people got off the train.

The original compares the progress of Arab soldiers enlisting to take part in the war to that of 'sheep' not 'ships' as the student states. The comment 'easy deduction' emphasises the student's mistaken assumption that s/he has understood the sentence. Clearly students must be helped to attend to concepts behind words and not just react to print on a page.

In example 11, Table 6, the words 'shattered' and 'scattered' have been confused. Although the initial substitution of 'broke' for 'shattered' is satisfactory the accompanying explanation demonstrates that an acceptable paraphrase is no guarantee that an item has been understood. The link which the student sets up between 'scattered '(leaves) and 'broke' does not exist in English but can be attributed to the mistaken reading of the initial blend 'sc', for 'sh' (which is actually written). This point indicates the need to heighten the level of attention students devote to discoursal details and also highlights the fact that metaphor is active not only globally at the textual level but operates at the word and syllable level as well.

Gibbs (1992) argues that idioms are not just dead metaphors but have meanings that are more complex than their literal paraphrases. Example 11 indicates that Gibbs' argument applies also to paraphrases of metaphors. In fact, since L2 learners lack the intuitive base which underlies native speakers' processing of metaphors and other nonliteral forms, the inadequacy of paraphrasing becomes an issue of even more relevance in the L2 than in the L1 context.

(3) Metaphors which are integrated in English for L1 speakers may not be integrated for L2 learners and may cause them difficulties

Although native speakers of a language appear not to react to the metaphoric aspects of well established nonliteral items Gibbs (1992) argues convincingly against this view claiming that the metaphoric aspects of even the most common idioms continue to exert an intuitive effect. Unless they are taught, these metaphors remain inaccessible to L2 learners.

Metaphors which are 'integrated' and well established as part of the language for nonnative speakers, so that their nonliteral force is no longer consciously attended to, may still be actively figurative for L2 learners. Table 7 provides students' responses to a textbook exercise which illustrate this point.

Table 7
Examples of students' responses to metaphoric items
Type 3A: Evidence that metaphors which are integrated in English for L1 speakers may not be integrated for L2 learners and may cause them difficulties

Example 14: The buses were on strike so we had to march all the way.
Response: A bus can't be on strike. A bus driver can be on strike.
Example 15: Your ball pierced my window.
Response: A ball is not a living thing. The sentence should be passive.

Learners were instructed to rewrite the given sentences in their correct form. This textbook exercise (Bolitho and Tomlinson 1980) requires students to replace the verb 'march' with the verb 'walk'. Instead, in the response given to example 14 the student has centred on the unintended (metonym) or personification which animates 'buses', referring to them as people who can decide to withdraw their labour and go 'on strike'.

Several students responded to the unintended figurative elements in this exercise the aim of which was to test the appropriate use of verbs in different contexts. Examples such as those in Table 7 above, have, for a number of years, been produced by students in response to this exercise. They clearly show that phrases which through constant use are now processed as literal by native speakers still retain their figurative force for L2 learners.

Conclusions and Implications

The aims of this study were to identify areas which students may find difficult when processing discourse containing metaphors, and to provide examples of these difficulties. Three problem areas were identified and examples of each have been discussed. Individual differences (Pollio and Burns, 1977) related to students' prior knowledge of vocabulary, awareness of figurative and literal concepts (in L1 and L2), and ability to transfer knowledge and skills from one domain to another are all factors which contribute to the understanding of metaphor. It is not suggested that metaphor is a contributing factor in all instances of student difficulty, it is clearly only one of many possible elements in an array of causative sources. However, the evidence suggests that students' overall lack of understanding about metaphor in English is a relatively unacknowledged barrier to comprehension. In addition to routinely established modes of error detection, attention to this ubiquitous language feature could prove rewarding.

Given that learners of English are already familiar with nonliteral language and its functions in their own mother tongue it is probable that metaphor is amenable to teaching. Its structural role in English grammar, its contribution to intellectual growth and its potential as an associative scaffolding for concept development are just a few of the additional reasons for incorporating metaphor studies into ESL/EFL programmes.

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REPORTS, VIEWS AND SUMMARIES

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REPORT ON A FIELD STUDY IN CHINA: TARGETS FOR PUTONGHUA TEACHERS

(A HongkongBank Language Development Fund project)

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Summary

A 3-member team, composed of two staff from the Institute of Language in Education and one HongkongBank researcher spent 21 days in September 1991 in China, visiting Beijing, Shanghai, Xiamen, Guangzhou and Kunming.

The visit was undertaken for a HongkongBank Language Development Fund research project 'Targets for Putonghua Teachers'. Its purpose was to gather both written and oral information on China's Putonghua teacher qualification requirements and proficiency testing, teacher-training materials and training curricula.

The team visited 20 organizations including kindergartens, primary and secondary schools, teacher training schools, universities and publishing houses. Various informal talks were held to exchange information related to the teaching of Putonghua in Hongkong and China. The team found the developing grading system of Putonghua proficiency and the actual practice carried out by the local dialectal areas to be of considerable value to the research project. Teaching materials obtained will also be very useful in developing guidelines for pre-service and in-service courses for Putonghua teachers. Moreover, the field study paves the way for future contacts or exchanges in this area.

The Visit

Beijing, being the capital of China, was the first place visited by the delegation with a view to understanding the state's attitude towards teachers' requirements in Putonghua (or Chinese Language) and to gather relevant information in Chinese Language teaching. Then the delegation visited the four dialect areas, i.e. Shanghai, Xiamen, Guangzhou and Kunming, to find out their actual practices, problems encountered and how these were being tackled.

All official activities were arranged by officials of the state/local education committees or language commissions. The visits usually started with an informal session on the first day, during which there were discussions with people from the education commission/language commission on relevant topics such as popularization of Putonghua in schools, language proficiency tests in Putonghua and Chinese Language teaching, followed by school visits/class observations (primary, secondary and teacher training schools and normal universities). In Beijing and Shanghai, the delegation had a chance to visit the Language Press and the Educational Publishing House and talked with editors there.

During the 21-day field study in China, the team visited 1 kindergarten, 4 primary schools, 4 secondary schools, 5 teacher training/normal schools, 4 universities/normal universities and 2 presses/publishing houses. In Beijing, a visit was also made to the Training of Proficiency in Putonghua Course run by the State Language Commission.

As nearly all the schools visited by the delegation are key schools in the cities, they are all well-equipped and classroom teaching was found to be conducted conscientiously.

The delegation met 56 Chinese officials in the five cities including the Vice-Chairman of the State Language Commission, the Director of Common Language Popularization, the State Language Commission, the Deputy Director of Beijing Municipal Education Bureau, the Deputy Presidents of universities, professors, lecturers, school heads, teachers, editors and researchers.

The team collected a lot of useful materials from China. They included references on language teaching and on the teaching of Putonghua, textbooks, reports, syllabuses, audio and video tapes, wall charts, Pin-yin cards and official announcements on the popularization and teaching of Putonghua.

Findings and Observations

State Language Commission

Matters related to Chinese Language are regarded as major state issues in China. The State Language Commission is responsible for handling work related to Chinese Language in China, focusing on the following key areas:

(1) The popularization and standardization of the common language, i.e. Putonghua;
(2) The popularization of Hanyu Pinyin (the official romanization system);
(3) The standardization of simplified characters.

As the State Language Commission controls all Chinese Language affairs in China, the use of Chinese Language in the education system is part of its brief. In some areas there is some overlap, as in the teaching and learning of Chinese Language which fall under the aegis of both the State Language Commission and the State Education Commission which latter controls all education affairs in China. A Chinese Language Press which publishes reference materials on Chinese Language is affiliated to the State Language Commission. The Language Commission also runs 3-month full-time, in-service residential courses in Beijing to upgrade proficiency in Putonghua for Chinese Language teachers from primary, secondary and teacher training schools in China. After completing the course, participants are expected to play a crucial role in training their fellow Chinese Language teachers in Putonghua when they return to their own cities.

Test of Proficiency in Putonghua and Classification of Standards

Three Grades and Six Divisions

On the first day of the visit, the team was told that officials in China had already started studying the possibility of conducting a nation-wide Test of Proficiency in Putonghua. The classification of standards is a major concern associated with the test. No official document has ever been released but in the first informal discussion held in Beijing, Mr Sun Xiu Zhang from the State Language Commission released data on the following:

Purpose of Test

To promote Putonghua and to raise the standard of the language.

Standards

A 3-grade system was adopted:

Grade 1: Standard
Grade 2: Intermediate Level
Grade 3: Preliminary Level

Each grade is sub-divided into 2 divisions. The following table illustrates the language performance of the 3-grade 6-division system:

Classification		Language Performance
Grade	Division	
1	A	Accurate in pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar.
	B	Accurate in pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar; occasionally mis-pronounces some characters by using the non-standardized pronunciation.
2	A	Fairly accurate in pronunciation, despite some errors in major areas of difficulty; seldom makes mistakes in vocabulary and grammar.
	B	Not accurate in mastering certain tones, defects in pronouncing initials, finals and tones, many errors in major areas of pronunciation difficulty; sometimes uses dialectal words and grammar.
3	A	Not natural in pronouncing initials, finals and tones, errors often made, difficulties in reading and conversation, obvious dialectal tones. Errors in vocabulary and grammar.
	B	Obvious dialectal pronunciation, but shows some improvement. Errors in vocabulary and grammar, sometimes incomprehensible to outsiders.

The proficiency in Putonghua as attained by educated natives of Beijing is regarded as Grade 1, Division B; those natives of Beijing who pay special attention to the standardized pronunciations of characters, will be rated as Grade 1, Division A (e.g. Putonghua spoken by Beijing radio announcers).

Target group and mode of test

Target groups: Non-natives of Beijing who received lower secondary school education or above

Mode: Written test – on vocabulary and grammar;

Oral test – single characters (to test candidates' pronunciation of initials, finals, tones and specific syllables);

Words – on sounds difficult to speakers other than natives of Beijing, standardized pronunciations, retroflex endings, the neutral tone and changed tones;

Reading – 500-character essay;

One-way and two-way speech/conversation (5 minutes).

It is noted that the test of Pin-yin (transcription) is not included in the Test of Proficiency in Putonghua as is the case in Hong Kong.

130 people from Guangdong, Shanghai and Hebei were invited to attend a pilot test. They were randomly selected from secondary school pupils, university students, student-teachers, teachers, taxi drivers, salespersons and attendants. Only 6 out of the 130 attained 1A level. People from Hebei obtained the best results, with most of them attaining 1B or 2A. People from Guangdong obtained the worst results, most of them attaining 2B or 3A. People from Shanghai ranked between Hebei and Guangdong, most of them attaining 2A or 2B.

To cater for future needs, officials in the State Language Commission are planning to train staff to administer the test and are in the process of setting up an item bank.

Language Proficiency (in Putonghua) Requirements for Chinese Language (Putonghua) Teachers and for Teachers of Other Subjects

In China, Putonghua is the medium of instruction in schools. It is therefore regarded as the professional language of teachers in China. To master the language and Pin-yin skills is the basic requirement for student-teachers. These skills are also the prerequisites for qualified teachers.

The Putonghua assessment is also one of the major criteria for the evaluation of the following:

(1) outstanding pupils
(2) promotion of teachers
(3) school heads' administrative achievement.

The State Language Commission has considered stipulating that student-teachers and in-service teachers must attain 2A level or above in Putonghua proficiency. Such a measure, however, would require the setting and administration of a large-scale examination. For the time being, therefore, it is up to the local authorities to decide the passing grade. In future, the State Language Commission will lay down the Putonghua requirements for student-teachers to graduate from teacher training schools.

Although there are differences between Putonghua and the Beijing dialect, no major Putonghua problem can be found in Beijing schools. Most teachers have 1B level (native) in Putonghua proficiency. Teacher requirements in Putonghua for the four dialectal areas (i.e. Shanghai, Xiamen, Guangzhou and Kunming) are discussed below.

In Shanghai, it was suggested earlier this year that student-teachers in kindergarten teachers' college, teacher training schools and normal universities should pass their schools' Putonghua examination before they can be awarded graduation certificates. For teachers of Chinese Language, the target level is 1B, for teachers of other subjects, the level to be attained is 2A. The Putonghua examination is composed of a written part (Pin-yin and phonetic knowledge) and an oral part (reading, conversation and speech). The system is being tried out and no decision has yet been made. Putonghua is no longer a problem to young graduates in Shanghai. For teachers aged 50 or above, asking them to use Putonghua in class would affect the quality of their teaching. On the other hand, teachers aged under 45 are encouraged to receive in-service training in Putonghua.

In Xiamen, Putonghua comprises 1/4 of the curriculum in teacher training schools. Students must pass Putonghua before they are allowed to go on teaching practice. Xiamen uses its own 3-grade system of which Grade 2 is the passing grade.

Putonghua is also a basic requirement for student teachers in teacher training schools in Guangzhou. In South China Normal University, Putonghua is a compulsory programme for all university students. They have to pass Putonghua before they can be awarded graduation certificates. The requirement is higher for Chinese Language majors and Pin-yin items are included in the examination. Guangzhou Municipal Education Bureau conducted a Putonghua examination for Chinese Language teachers in 1989.

In Yunnan the 3-grade 6-division system is adopted to ensure that student teachers have a uniform standard in Putonghua. Student teachers must be qualified by attaining Grade 2 in the Putonghua examination organized by the Yunnan Language Commission. They must also obtain the Commission's Putonghua qualified certificate before they can graduate from teacher training schools or normal universities. There is an item bank in the Yunnan Normal University. Chinese Language majors in Yunnan Normal University take a one year course in Putonghua, while students majoring in subjects other than Chinese take a 6-month course. Various part-time Putonghua courses (from one week to six months) are organized for in-service teachers in Yunnan.

The Teaching of Putonghua in China

Even in dialectal areas such as the four cities we visited, Putonghua as a language (and also as the medium of instruction) is taught and used in kindergartens or nurseries. After three years education in kindergartens, young children can understand and speak Putonghua very well (as we saw from class observations) before they enter primary schools. The first 4–6 weeks Chinese Language lessons in Primary one are wholly devoted to the learning of Hanyu Pinyin. Pupils can then use the national romanization system to assist them to learn Chinese characters. Putonghua is further consolidated in primary and secondary education through the teaching of speaking. No phonetic knowledge is taught in primary and secondary schools.

Learning Putonghua is made very interesting in China, as we found in the lively classroom teaching we saw in Beijing and other dialectal areas. Through visual aids, games, children songs and various classroom activities, young children (aged 6) were very interested in learning the Pin-yin symbols and the method of transcription which are usually regarded by us as dull and dry.

In teacher training schools or normal universities, Putonghua (better known as the training of speaking) is usually offered to student-teachers in the first year. Phonetics is taught in that year. The training of speaking consists of fundamental oral training such as repetition, explanation, argumentation.

The purposes of this kind of oral training, we think, are not only to train students to be more fluent and accurate in Putonghua, but also to help them develop their writing.

The Popularization of Putonghua in Schools

China has been promoting Putonghua since 1955. A campaign for the popularization of Putonghua in primary schools and teacher training schools was launched recently. Two announcements were co-issued by the State Education Commission and the State Language Commission on 29 December 1990 and 4 June 1991 aimed at popularizing Putonghua in primary schools and teacher training schools respectively. Concrete plans with dates were worked out in the two documents which are reported as follows:

There are two stages in popularizing Putonghua in primary schools in China:

Stage 1: Putonghua is used in classroom teaching and group activities in schools.

Stage 2: Putonghua is also used in the school playground. Specific dates for different categories of school to meet the targets are listed below:

Category of School	*Target*	*Target date*
Primary schools in major cities, provincial capitals, coastal cities and special economic zones	Stage 1	1994
	Stage 2	1996
Primary schools in ordinary cities, country towns	Stage 1	1996
	Stage 2	1998

Category of School	*Target*	*Target date*
Central primary schools in rural areas, villages	Stage 1 Stage 2	1998 2000
Other primary schools in rural areas, villages	Stage 1	2000

Teacher training in Putonghua should be further strengthened to cater for their needs.

Special measures to examine the popularization of Putonghua in teacher training schools and kindergarten teachers' colleges were adopted. Details are as follows:

(1) Students: All student teachers must pass the Putonghua examination.

(2) Teachers: Teachers aged under 45 should have Grade 2 level or above in Putonghua proficiency. The percentages in individual schools are listed as follows:

	Chinese Language teachers	*Teachers of other subjects*
Schools in Northern China	90%	70%
Schools in Southern China	70%	50%

All Chinese Language teachers irrespective of age should know how to read Pinyin romanized syllables.

(3) Schools: Putonghua should be used in classroom teaching, broadcasting and meetings, and as far as possible in school campuses.

(4) Checks: Schools should report to Beijing the progress made by the end of October 1991. The Putonghua Popularization Division of the State Language Commission and the Teacher Training Division of the State Education Commission will send staff to local schools to make spot checks in the first two quarters of 1992.

Discussion and Recommendations

The 3-grade 6-division grading system for Putonghua proficiency and the methods used by the local dialectal authorities were of great value to the HongkongBank sponsored Putonghua research project. As a result of this field study, the project team was able to establish a developmental scale of three levels of language proficiency in Putonghua, each with a High or Low attainment for Hong Kong teachers as follows:

(i) Advanced	High Low
(ii) Intermediate	High Low
(iii) Elementary	High Low

Taking into account the Yunnan experience, where student-teachers must attain Grade 2 level in Putonghua, it is recommended that prospective teachers of Putonghua in Hong Kong be tested and certificated in their proficiency before being permitted to teach. They would be expected to reach Intermediate High level before teaching within the current arrangements in which Putonghua is taught as a subject.

The research team also recommended that a new policy and curriculum for Putonghua be prepared for Primary and Secondary schools leading to a Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination award. In this case, Advanced High level would be required for teachers of Putonghua teaching towards the proposed HKCEE award.

During the field study, the informal discussions, classroom observations, related teacher-training materials and training curricula obtained were very useful in helping develop teaching guidelines for the improvement of pre-service and in-service course for Putonghua teachers in Hong Kong.

The delegation also discovered that in teacher training schools, the training of speaking which consists of fundamental oral training such as repetition, explanation, argumentation is usually offered to student-teachers in the first year. We think the purposes of this kind of oral training are also a great help to the student's development in writing. It is therefore recommended that Putonghua teachers in Hong Kong be encouraged to receive training of speaking in Putonghua. It would be one of the components in initial training, in addition to theory studies in the phonetics of Modern Chinese. However, in refresher courses or advanced courses for Putonghua teachers, the training of speaking should be a core component.

Finally, the delegation would like to suggest that cooperation and exchange of information be established at an appropriate level between those responsible for supporting the teaching of Putonghua in Hong Kong and those engaged in this in China.

HALF-WAY HOUSE OR INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION? REFLECTIONS ON THE TESU93 SEMINAR ON 'HONG KONG TEACHER TRAINING IN TRANSITION'

Sean O'Halloran
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Convenor of the Teacher Education and Study Unit (TESU)

Contributors to the seminar included:

Dr. Cheng Kai-ming	Dean of the Faculty of Education, University of Hong Kong
Professor Lee Ngok	Director of the School of Professional and Continuing Education (SPACE), University of Hong Kong
Professor Brian Cooke	Head of the Department of Curriculum Studies in the Faculty of Education, University of Hong Kong
Dr. David Woodhouse	Deputy Director of the Hong Kong Council for Academic Accreditation (HKCAA)
Mr. Lawrence Chu	Head of the Department of Social Studies, Baptist College

The Hong Kong Institute of Education as a Degree-Awarding Body

The basic problem facing teacher training in Hong Kong was spelt out by the opening speaker, Dr. Cheng Kai-ming, in his paper entitled, 'Teacher Training in Transition: What for and What to?'. He pointed out that the rapid expansion of higher education in Hong Kong has led to a decline in the quality of the intake of the Colleges, and, at the same time, the demand for better qualified teachers will reduce the demand for certificate qualified teachers. So while the quality of teacher education is declining in respect to its intake, relative to other professional training, the demand for better qualified teachers is increasing. This provided the context in which the Education Commission in its fifth report (ECR5) had recommended the establishment of an Institute of Education (HKIEd) that should eventually be able to award degrees.

Dr. Cheng Kai-ming felt that the continued production of non-degree teachers, was undesirable and likely to make the development of HKIEd difficult. The pool of potential entrants for nongraduate courses was bound to shrink and the standard further decline. Admission would be reduced to the less successful in the school system and yet it would be on them that we would have to rely to support and improve the school system.

He argued forcefully that the expansion of higher education had gone beyond the point at which we should tolerate the continued production of nongraduate teachers.

Professor Cooke, in his paper 'Recent Trends in Teacher Education: An Approach to Quality', reached a similar conclusion, stating that in order to assure that students reached a level which was regarded as competent, a first degree was essential and should be seen as the benchmark of intellectual fitness. To leave the HKIEd outside the University and Polytechnics Grants Committee (UPGC) system would be to leave the teacher education institutions outside of the higher education system. This would foster insularity and parochialism. It would impinge on the nature of the courses and result in low staff morale and self-esteem. He warned against the notion that teacher education is an inferior academic activity, separate from the tertiary mainstream. This could lead to a form of academic apartheid.

If the Provisional Governing Council (PGC) of the HKIEd implemented this sort of post-secondary but not quite tertiary institution, it would be only incrementally different from the present Colleges.

However, Dr. Woodhouse, in his paper 'The Accreditation Process', saw nothing anomalous about a 'teacher training university' offering sub-degree courses. He pointed out that the polytechnics in Hong Kong are high level institutions offering degree and sub-degree courses, and that this situation may be permanent. The HKCAA requires a degree awarding institution to be a coherent academic community that understands the characteristics of the awards it offers and has the management structures necessary for planning new courses and for assuring their quality.

The Upgrading Process

Mr. Lawrence Chu gave a very illuminating description of the upgrading process at Baptist College in his paper 'The Upgrading Process'. He illustrated vividly the requirement for the type of coherent academic community required by the HKCAA. From the point at which a course is proposed, through its long journeys through departmental team meetings, faculty scrutiny, academic boards and back again, proposals are examined to see how their structures overlap other courses, how they will be supervised, resourced, supported and finally taught.

Implicit in Mr. Chu's remarks, if we are to apply them to the proposed HKIEd is that the planning, supervision and support required to offer and run degree courses presupposes the existence, or development, of a coherent institutional structure and organisation. It would be a mistake to suppose one can simply disestablish the existing Colleges, improve their premises and their resources and create degree courses. This would not create the type of academic community that is needed to support a degree programme credible enough to attract and satisfy the type of student teachers Hong Kong's school system requires; nor would it win accreditation.

Implications for the Colleges

ECR5 has set out the key stages of the upgrading process and recommends that it be done without delay. With the setting up of the PGC, the first step has been taken. The eventual outcome of this process will probably be determined by the ability of the Colleges and the future HKIEd to develop appropriate courses and meet the accreditation requirements.

For this reason we must start to examine the implications of the accreditation process outlined by Dr. Woodhouse and described by Mr. Lawrence Chu.

The Colleges should now start looking seriously at their courses with a view to upgrading them.

Sub-Degree Courses

If, according to Professor Cooke and Dr. Cheng, the HKIEd should move towards making the requirement of a first degree a prerequisite for entry to teacher training, there is no possible justification for continuing to run non-validated pre-service education courses which do not offer credits towards the acquisition of a higher professional qualification. There is no prospect of attracting quality students in any numbers while such courses are offered, and to offer such limited courses is a serious disservice to our students. However, ECR5 does not deal directly with this issue; instead it gives priority to in-service professional qualifications by recommending the Advanced Teacher Certificate (ATC).

There can be no doubt but that the ATC should be developed as soon as possible, but not at the expense of a formal pre-service qualification. Though the issue was not explicitly discussed by the speakers, the implication is surely that priority be given to developing a comprehensive teaching diploma to be offered at pre-service level, components of which will also be offered as part of an in-service qualification. The components of this diploma should be designed in such a way that they can be qualitatively and quantitatively up-graded and used as credits for a degree course for primary and secondary teachers. Great priority should be given to replacing non-validated certificate courses as soon as possible. In designing these courses, and subsequently upgrading them, course designers should bear in mind Dr. Woodhouse's warning that upgrading a course does not simply mean adding elements to the end of it, but redesigning it throughout so each element is qualitatively enhanced.

The prime responsibility of the HKIEd is to ensure that the young people who enter it are properly equipped to teach the children of Hong Kong. The most significant group of its students will be studying on pre-service courses. At present the prospect of being a Certificated Master or Mistress is not attractive. The certificate courses are not adequate and they need to be upgraded. It would be a great shame if the prestige gained by offering degree courses deflects resources and planning from upgrading this area in favour of degree courses which serve sectional interests rather than the majority of trainee students. Degree courses must be offered as soon as possible, but not at the expense of an adequate training for the majority of pre-service students.

Also, the rush for government funds by various groups who wish to be involved in degree courses could mean the staff of the Colleges are bypassed in planning the upgraded courses. This would mean that the valuable experience they have in pre-service education as a whole would be lost to course planners, and the valuable experience to be gained by being involved in this process would be lost to the very people who are most closely associated with teacher training in Hong Kong.

ECR5 spells out reasons why a post-S7 entry will not be attainable for some years. This being the case, the three-year pre-service course will require additional subject components designed for students who have not completed 'A' Level study in their elective subject or who are following a subject not offered at 'A' Level. This is another area course designers in the Colleges could start preparatory work on right away.

A Language Education Component

In this context it is worth looking at the future of language training in the HKIEd. At present all pre-service students follow a general English Language Skills course. Students follow the same course regardless of the requirements of Chinese or English medium schools. To reflect the reality of the changing language needs in Hong Kong, future courses run by the HKIEd should offer an English teaching medium component for those students who wish to teach in English medium schools. Proficiency in this area would be reflected in the title of the qualification, e.g. 'Advanced Teachers' Certificate (English)'.

ECR5 is quite specific in calling for a degree in Primary education to be set up as soon as possible. However, if the Colleges offer non-validated certificate courses and degrees in primary education at the same time, the certificate courses will be deprived of the stronger candidates, further reducing the desirability of the qualification. It also means that secondary schools will have to rely on the less academic teachers to fill positions. New teachers will continue to be qualified to teach a subject to S3 students that they themselves have studied only to S5 level.

Again we consider Dr. Woodhouse's advice to allow developments to take place on a number of fronts simultaneously. Parts of the courses are common to both levels and could be taken in common. It would, then, seem sensible to set up:

- a team to propose the core content for the degree;
- teams to propose specific primary and secondary components;
- teams working in each subject area.

Future upgrading would then take place in three stages:

Phase One	Upgrading all existing full-time and part-time courses to an ATC or Teaching Diploma. (The withdrawal of certificated master and mistress qualifications would make the use of the term 'advanced certificate' redundant.) Simultaneous introduction of degree courses involving consortium partnership between the HKIEd, universities, polytechnics and the OLI.
Phase Two	Upgrading the validated ATC course to degree level (primary and secondary education).
Phase Three	Withdrawal of non-degree courses and the introduction of postgraduate courses as the HKIEd becomes a fully degree-awarding body.

Academic and Administrative Structures

It is obvious from the description of the requirements for an institutional review mapped out by Dr. Woodhouse and the description of the upgrading process outlined by Mr. Lawrence Chu that the Colleges need to review their academic and administrative structures as well as look carefully at their resources. Though the exact nature of these structures are properly proposed by the PGC and the new Director of the HKIEd, the college authorities, in conjunction with the Department of Education, can surely do preliminary planning in broad outline in a number of areas, especially in assuring that staff are trained in areas of course design and quality maintenance, so that, when the need arises, staff will be in place to facilitate structural developments and propose and supervise new courses. From the description of the institutional review and drawing on the experiences outlined by Mr. Chu the following need to be developed:

1. means by which the staff and students can contribute to formation of academic policy.
2. means by which the staff and students can influence the priorities between various college activities.
3. means by which the staff can make a full contribution to the design and development of new courses.
4. means by which outside bodies and consultants influence developments.
5. means to improve the quality of teaching staff and opportunities for staff development.

   The scattered nature of the Colleges and the ILE will mean:

6. special liaison committees to coordinate and prevent duplication.

Quality Assurance and Assessment

Central to the issue of outside validation is the question of maintenance of the quality of the courses. Serious consideration will have to be given to:

1. the monitoring of courses and the quality assurance mechanisms.
2. the setting up of internal validation panels.

3. creating a senior academic committee to monitor and control the quality of the programmes.
4. how students are assessed, and by what criteria.

This having been said, a major consideration in quality control mechanisms is the schools' requirement for a given number of newly trained teachers every year. While the Colleges are part of the government policy implementation system there has been a tendency to sacrifice quality for quantity. Lecturing staff have frequently been frustrated in their attempts to maintain the quality of the student body by the Colleges' requirement to ensure the production of as many trained teachers as possible. The transfer of this policy to the HKIEd will mean that the development of quality control mechanisms will be frustrated.

Management Culture

Professor Lee Ngok in his paper, 'Developments in Adult Education: Some Lessons from Recent History', outlined two possible management styles: the centralised top-down civil service model, and the collegiality of established universities. The former obtains in the Colleges at present, the latter would probably take years to inculcate. However, the implementation of the academic structures and the development of new courses outlined by Mr. Chu will almost certainly require a new management approach. Many of the problems associated with the Colleges are the direct result of a top-down approach. As Dr. Cheng pointed out, civil service branches are designed to implement policy, not formulate it. He pointed out that the spirit of the School Management Initiative (SMI) is to generate a sense of mission from within. These principles need to be absorbed by the Colleges. As he saw it, the Colleges have been adversely affected by frequent changes of leadership, the fluid deployment of personnel, the piecemeal assignment of tasks and restricted deployment of resources.

It is obvious from the required characteristics of an accredited institution that such a management style has to change. The Colleges have evolved in the civil service, and have developed inflexible administrative systems. The transformation to an accredited tertiary institution will require a system of quality planning and quality control. Processes of consultation are required in the planning of courses. New courses have to be planned at departmental level and referred upwards. A successful course can hardly be designed if the concept originates at the administrative level, where it is broken down piecemeal and allocated to different members of staff who are not always aware of the total picture. This, however, frequently characterizes civil service procedures.

Also implicit in the remarks on course design and validation is the inevitability of the demise of the 'work load' ethos which at present pervades the Colleges. The emphasis on distribution of time, rather than on team planning and overall responsibility militates against quality planning. It results in fragmentation and duplication and the neglect of students needs, rather than in integration and quality. It can also result in the failure to utilize staff strengths and specialisation. Thus innovation is difficult to achieve since what is done and by whom is based on time distribution rather than on professional skills and interests.

Though not discussed directly during the seminar, but related to the above points, is the fact that senior and experienced members of the Colleges have felt constrained by civil service discipline from directly discussing matters of a political or administrative nature. A glance through the submissions to ECR5 indicates that that body was denied a source of considerable expertise in its deliberations. It is to be hoped that the PGC will not similarly be denied, and that a spirit of academic openness and freedom will develop at all staff levels in the HKIEd.

Learning Environment and Resources

Facilities for students' studies need to be examined seriously. A complete up-grading of the library and borrowing facilities are required regardless of any institutional review. Steps should be taken to improve portable library resources, particularly books and a computerised lending system.

One of the major considerations the PGC has to face is the question of accommodation. Professor Lee Ngok pointed out that to have three locations was the most frequently mentioned option, and ECR5 proposed 'no more than three'. The question of sufficient 'critical mass' to stimulate academic excellence is crucial for a credible upgrading process. However attractive the idea of one spacious, custom-built complex may be, it needs to be borne in mind that, unlike other tertiary institutions where a remote location may be attractive, the trend in teacher training is for greater partnership between teacher training and the schools. If the site or sites are remote, the development of the role of teacher trainers as collaborators in school-based work with their students will be hampered.

However, as Dr. Cheng pointed out, while we in the Colleges and the ILE may feel that the expectations for the HKIEd as spelt out by ECR5 are limited, we should as professionals be able to reach beyond these expectations. The Government probably wants to avoid a crisis of redundancies. Also, the suspicion is that it does not want to bear the price of another UPGC funded tertiary institution awarding degrees. The HKIEd may suffer as a consequence of this, and with it, education in Hong Kong, but if we in the Colleges and the ILE seek the support of other educationalist, we may be able to push the HKIEd further than the Government intends it to go. If we do we will certainly be doing the schools of Hong Kong a favour.

Note

The views in this article are those of the author only.

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THE HONG KONG INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION: ITS LIMITS AND OPPORTUNITIES

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The success of school education relies on two most important factors: (1) the recruitment of people of good, if not the best, quality into the teaching profession; and (2) a positive and encouraging system, or school culture, to motivate them to work for the best.

The Education Commission in its fifth report (ECR5, 1992) aims to enhance our teachers' quality by merging the current five government teacher training institutions into one new Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIEd). It also endorses the School Management Initiative as a means of improving a comparatively straggly school management system. Both issues are important and the recommendations were widely welcomed and supported by the public.

However, the Commission's HKIEd proposal is obviously a late one and a compromise. It is far from satisfactory and can only solve part of our existing problem. One crucial factor is the government's policy of upholding a stratified graduate teacher system, in which HKIEd graduates will be considered inferior to those holding degrees from other tertiary institutions.

Our existing problem is a two-fold one. Firstly, Colleges of Education find it increasingly difficult to attract outstanding secondary school graduates to enrol. These colleges supply nearly all primary school teachers and one third of the secondary teachers, but offer no degree. In 1989, after the Tiananmen Massacre, the Governor announced a rapid expansion of first degree places in order to boost public confidence. It might not have been realised that the Colleges had been put in an even more difficult situation.

The logical solution to the problem would have been to upgrade the Colleges to degree-awarding status. Yet the Education Commission soon realised it was extremely difficult. A significant portion of the current College teaching staff did not even have a first degree, not to mention a higher degree which is normally required in a tertiary institution; and the government had never planned to upgrade their qualifications before. The resulting proposal is for a prolonged period of up to 15 years in which a mere 35% of primary teaching posts (some 7,500) will become graduate posts. In the meantime, the HKIEd would continue to offer some of its non-degree programmes, which are already unattractive now.

Of course, 'better late than never'. But even the degrees awarded by the HKIEd would not be that attractive. According to the Commission's report, the HKIEd degree will be confined only to primary education. Moreover, the salary scale of the graduate primary school teachers will be lower than for their counterparts in secondary school. In this case, if an outstanding S5 or

S6 student is given a chance to choose between HKIEd and other tertiary institutions, which will he/she likely choose? Would he/she abandon the more flexible career path and the more promising future in terms of salary? The answer is simply, no – except for the few who are truly determined, when they are sixteen or eighteen years old, to become primary school teachers. So it would be realistic to ask for a more flexible career path for the HKIEd students, both for the sakes of the students and for the Institute itself.

Another problem relates to the curriculum, the teaching and learning environment, and so forth, which is now in the hands of the Provisional Governing Council (PGC) of the HKIEd. These are complicated issues that require adequate resources, enthusiastic teaching staff and precise planning. I just want to make a point here in regard to the curriculum.

Some feel that the current approach to teaching and the curriculum in the Colleges of Education tends to be rigid, conservative and weak in academic discipline. I am quite confident that once the HKIEd is set up, with better-equipped teaching staff, this will be altered in one way or another. But how should the curriculum be altered? I would suggest a broad curriculum be introduced to enable the student teachers to tackle the various problems that may arise in their future occupation. As a teacher training institution, the HKIEd differs from a university where students from a wide range of academic disciplines have many chances to meet and exchange ideas on campus. Such informal interaction helps a lot in enriching one's knowledge and widening one's perspectives. It is critically important in a world of frequent change to help the young people to grow up to live in such a world. It is also desirable to have teachers in a school with a variety of experience and perspectives. Although the HKIEd will have its limitations, a broad curriculum will surely help.

To solve the above problem, a different proposal would be to lift the monopoly of the HKIEd on the future primary school teacher market. If our ultimate goal is to guarantee the best obtainable teachers for our primary schools, why don't we explore potential candidates from other tertiary institutions? There must be a considerable number of graduates who wish to become primary school teachers after they have finished their post-secondary study. It would be reasonable to let them join after they have acquired a specified teacher training qualification, just as is happening now in secondary schools. They, along with the HKIEd graduates, will cooperate and make our primary schools more open, pluralistic and full of stimulation. As the tertiary sector expands, the number of such potential candidates will also increase. There is no sound reason why we should exclude them from a needy profession.

August 1993

THE HONG KONG INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION: SOME ACADEMIC CONSIDERATIONS

Andrew J Taylor
City Polytechnic of Hong Kong

As I write, an advertisement placed by the Provisional Governing Council of the Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIEd) for the post of Director has just appeared. It states that the Institute will be autonomous, it will (in due course) have a new campus, it will offer teacher education programmes at pre-degree level, and it will introduce degree and research programmes as soon as possible. This is encouraging.

Education is clearly of very great importance to Hong Kong. In order to provide the high quality education system needed as it moves into the next century, there must be a corresponding provision of high quality education for teachers, both pre-service and in-service. While one could disagree with various recommendations in ECR5, now that the new direction has been set, the concern is what the HKIEd should be doing and how it should be doing it. Issues which seem to me of particular importance are the introduction of degree courses, staff development, research, collaboration with other tertiary institutions, language policy and quality assurance.

It is very pleasing that degree level work is to be introduced as soon as possible. ECR5 recognizes the need for this at both pre-service and in-service levels to ensure the appropriate quality of teacher preparation and development and to attract good students in an increasingly competitive market. It is especially needed to equip teachers adequately for the task of providing language education in Chinese or English and indeed this area has been identified in ECR5 (p. 75) as one where the HKIEd could quickly develop degree courses. It must be a high priority for the Institute. Further, in my view there should be as many places in degree courses as possible for both primary and secondary teachers. ECR5 (p. 66 ff) mentions the various constraints, such as the availability of sufficient S7 leavers, the existing staffing profile, and resource requirements, which have led them to place limits. These constraints are no doubt real but every effort should be made to ensure that the number of degree places is as high as possible. This will require the formulation of a bold plan implemented with determination.

In the context of setting up a new institution and moving to degree level teaching, staff development will be very important, yet it can too easily be neglected in the busy early stages of establishing a tertiary institution. While there must be provision for the development of all staff, both academic and non-academic, special attention should be paid to the need for teaching staff to obtain higher degrees by coursework or research, in Hong Kong or overseas.

The Provisional Governing Council has specifically mentioned the setting up of research programmes as soon as possible. This is for me an essential feature of a tertiary institution devoted to education, but there may be a tendency to reduce its priority in the face of, for example, teaching workload or budget pressures. However, there must be no weakening of resolve on this point. Funds, time, and opportunities to gain experience must be made available. Even more important is the deliberate fostering of a research culture in which research is wholeheartedly supported and recognized.

Although the HKIEd will be a large institution with a major role in its discipline, it will be somewhat narrow in focus and much could be gained through links or collaboration with other institutions. This applies to courses, staff development and research. The possibility of joint courses, especially in- service ones, is referred to in ECR5 (pp. 75–77) and should be actively pursued. There may be areas in its pre-service courses where it is not feasible for the HKIEd to have expertise in depth and it would be sensible to cooperate with other institutions. However, it must be admitted that for some reason tertiary institutions do not seem to find cooperation easy in undergraduate courses. In the area of higher degrees there is also scope for cooperation, clearly in the language area. This might be in teaching parts of courses and could well be in the associate supervision of HKIEd staff registered as research degree students at other institutions, as HKIEd can be expected to have an increasing number of staff eligible to carry out such supervision. Research in education is being carried on at other institutions and collaborative projects, which are generally looked on favourably these days, should be set up. In languages, relevant research is already being carried out in most University and Polytechnic Grants Committee (UPGC) institutions.

The HKIEd should take up the recommendation in ECR5 (p. 74) to formulate a suitable language policy on its medium of instruction as a matter of priority. If it is to go beyond broad generalizations, this is not a simple task and it will require sensitivity to the language situation in the community as a whole and to the developments within the education system in particular. If done well, it could provide a lead for others to follow.

A somewhat different but nevertheless important point is that the HKIEd is being set up at a time when quality assurance must be taken into account. Existing UPGC institutions are currently going through the sometimes painful exercise of adjusting to its introduction. While the HKIEd is being formed from existing Colleges of Education and the ILE, it will still be something new and this provides an opportunity for a good start in the area of quality assurance. Interestingly, the ILE made quality in language teaching and language learning the theme of its 1991 conference. While the majority of papers did not address the theme in terms related to quality assurance, some did[1]. This should be followed up and built on in the years ahead. Indeed, a high quality institution, especially in the preparation of teachers in the field of language education, is what members of the profession want and is what Hong Kong needs.

July, 1993

Note

1. See, for example, the following papers in Bird, N. and J. Harris (eds), 1992, *Quilt and Quill: Achieving and Maintaining Quality in Language Teaching and Learning*. Hong Kong: Institute of Language in Education.
   Reeves, N. 'Critical Issues in Achieving Quality in Language Learning and Teaching: The Application of Total Quality Management Principles to Curriculum Planning and Design', pp 2-25;
   Chappell, E. 'Quality: A Concept to Ground Language Teaching Programs', pp 26-32; and
   Littlewood, W. 'Towards the Development of Internal Criteria for Judging Quality', pp 33-43.

Reference

Education Commission. 1992. *Report No 5: The Teaching Profession*. Hong Kong: Government Printer.

THE HONG KONG INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION AND CHINA'S REFORM PROGRAMME

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The establishment of the Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIEd) will provide the territory with a specialist tertiary teacher education institution. Whilst the focus of attention has rightly been directed towards the contribution that the HKIEd will make to local education, the institute's upgraded status will also create opportunities for it to interact on a regional or international scale.

Some transferable international projects are already in place, including the annual ILE conference, and the various educational programmes that enable local teachers and student-teachers to attend courses in the United Kingdom.

Should the HKIEd seek to expand its horizons by developing worthwhile academic links and collaboration on teacher education programmes, it need look no further than China.

Since 1978, Dengist educational reforms have had a dramatic effect on teacher education in China. The reforms have concentrated on three pedagogical issues in particular: curricular reform, methodological innovation and knowledge transfer. At the same time, the government is seeking to implement the long-cherished political goal of the Nine-Year Basic Education Policy.

Curricular reform has sought to expunge the overtly political agenda of the Maoist Cultural Revolutionary syllabuses of the early seventies. In their place, the revised syllabuses stress academic excellence in support of the nation's economic modernisation programme.

Methodological innovation has focused upon developing alternative, reconstructionist pedagogical strategies to complement or replace the Neo-Confucian direct transmission approach. Previously, teacher education, for those (excluding many primary teachers) who received it, consisted almost exclusively of enhancement of subject knowledge.

The third strand of Dengist reforms is the willingness to import expertise from overseas, through training programmes, academic exchanges and visiting scholars, as well as collaborative broadcasting and publishing ventures.

The Nine-Year Basic Education Policy aims at providing schooling to Secondary 3 level for all citizens. The policy is being phased in gradually: the affluent seaboard area first, then the central industrialised urban regions, and finally the rural and less-developed provinces (where compulsory primary schooling is the initial target). One unfortunate result of the policy has been to counteract the development of teacher education reforms: large cohorts of teachers are being trained in great haste, and untrained teachers recruited, to meet the demand caused by the expansion at primary and junior secondary levels.

There is potential for the HKIEd to be involved in all three areas of pedagogical reform in the future. Like the Mainland, Hong Kong has accumulated a wealth of experience in the field of curricular reform, though in very different manifestations. A future conference could be devoted to comparing and contrasting experiences in the two places.

Teacher education offers great scope for collaboration and mutual benefit. Exchange programmes could be established at teacher educator, primary school and pre-service teacher levels. After 1997, the HKIEd could supplement Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou Normal Universities and similar key institutions as centres for advanced courses for teacher educators. Fellowships could be awarded to allow Teaching Researchers (officials in charge of in-service training) and primary school teachers to study at the HKIEd. Lecturers from the HKIEd could make brief tours to various regions of China to conduct summer courses for primary teachers and student teachers.

China has satellite television channels dedicated to general education and teacher education to which Hong Kong might gain access. Like Hong Kong, China has a fledgling system of local resource centres for teachers and of in-service correspondence courses in teacher education.

As far as overseas expertise is concerned, the guiding principle for the Chinese government is the same as two hundred years ago: *zhongti xiyong* (Chinese essence, Western practice). In other words, Western experience has to be filtered and adapted to suit Chinese characteristics. Hong Kong's experience of educational synthesis between East and West could make the HKIEd into an important asset to China (a fact that might be stressed should Chinese officials express concern at the expense of implementing Education Commission Report No 5).

The notion of the current Colleges of Education and the ILE playing a significant regional role is plainly fanciful, given their present resources and dispositions. The Hong Kong Institute of Education, on the other hand, will enjoy tertiary status. If it is to operate effectively as a tertiary institution, with all the concomitant implications for teaching quality, research and international academic links, it must be accorded the appropriate facilities, staffing and resources. Should this not be the case, a wealth of opportunities will be lost, to the detriment of Hong Kong and, after 1997, of China.

July, 1993

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT

LANGUAGE ENRICHMENT THROUGH EXPOSURE TO AUTHENTIC AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

Course No.: ***ES 931***
Group 6: ***Sally Chan***
Carmen Hung
Serena Ng
Amy Tang
Cecilia Tang
Kitty Tso
Alan Wan
Group Tutor: ***Shirley Chan***

Introduction

We believe that authentic audio/visual materials are a valuable and effective resource for teaching and learning. Students should be motivated to gain exposure to these materials outside the classroom.

Our hypotheses for the Action Research project were:

1. Once students are motivated and encouraged, they will develop the habit of getting exposure to English, such as in watching English TV programmes.
2. The more students are exposed to authentic English materials, the more confident they will be in learning English.

Design of Project

We designed and taught a series of eight lessons (see Table for details). In these eight lessons, students were exposed to authentic audio/visual materials, namely songs, films, TV commercials and cartoons. We wanted to show students that they should not limit themselves only to classroom learning, and that they can enrich and upgrade their standard of English by getting exposure to everyday English outside the classroom.

We did our experimental teaching in Wong Siu Chi Secondary School with a Form 2 class. Eight lessons were taken and the duration of each lesson was 35 minutes.

To test our hypotheses, we used questionnaires and observation forms as our evaluation instruments.

SCHEME OF WORK

Date	Type	Number of Lessons	Task	Objectives	Resources	Recommended Activities	Evaluations
	TV Programmes	2	Viewing the TV programme 'Round The Twist' for enjoyment	—To develop students' interest in watching English films —To help students get the gist of the story without Chinese sub-titles —To arouse students' imagination and creativity —To encourage students to share ideas	—TV programme 'Round The Twist' —worksheets	—film viewing —completing worksheets —oral presentation —Q & A	—objectives achieved —students interested —students showed great interest in creating a new ending and sharing ideas
	Songs	2	Listening to songs for appreciation	—To arouse students' interest in listening to English songs —To help students understand the message of the song 'Where Have All The Flowers Gone' —To cultivate students' concern for peace —To motivate students to learn English through songs —To enhance students' listening skills	—songs recorded on tapes —music video of 'Where Have All The Flowers Gone' —worksheets	—listening to songs —singing in chorus —group discussion —completing worksheets	—objectives achieved —songs relevant. Ss motivated —livelier than mechanical drills —double period recommended
	TV Commercials	2	Viewing TV commercials for fun and central ideas	—To make use of TV commercials to bring active and profitable learning activities into class —To bring authenticity into classroom —To provide opportunities for students to acquire language —To promote students' listening skills for specific information	—Assorted recordings of different TV commercials from domestic TV channels —worksheets	—silent viewing —simulations —completing worksheets —commercial design competition	—simulation games took up too much time —students interested —students motivated esp. by popular TV commercials
	Cartoon	2	Viewing cartoons for enjoyment	—To encourage students to watch cartoons for fun —To help students develop inter-personal skills —To improve students' listening skills —To help students learn how to give and take advice	—Cartoon series 'Adams Family' —worksheets	—cartoon viewing —role-play —palm reading —Q & A —completing worksheets	—objectives achieved —students interested in both the cartoon and role-play —students responsive to teachers —students able to interact among themselves

Findings and Evaluation

From the questionnaire, we found that over 90% of the students became more interested and confident in listening to English songs and watching English films and cartoons. Most of them believed that these materials could help them improve their proficiency in English. On the whole, the majority of the students found the experimental lessons very useful and interesting. For details of the evaluation of each lesson, please refer to the Table.

In general, we consider our action research successful and worthwhile.

Recommendations for Improvement

In General

1. Be sure that the main objective of these lessons is fun, enjoyment and appreciation.
2. Teachers should familiarize themselves with the use of the audio/video equipment before the lessons.
3. Students should be given ample opportunities to participate.
4. Timing should be carefully considered since activities tend to take extra time during the lesson quite unnoticeably.
5. A wide variety of activities should be organized.

For Specific Types of Materials

TV Programmes

1. Avoid very long TV programmes that might drag the students into boredom.
2. Interest is the factor to be taken into consideration when selecting programmes.
3. Language in the programmes must be within students' level of understanding.
4. As students are used to passive domestic viewing, it is the role of the teacher to encourage more active viewing.

Songs

1. Songs which are more popular and those with a more catchy tune are better received.
2. Students should be given the chance to sing solo or perhaps in chorus first so as to create an atmosphere of enjoyment.
3. Music videos, if available, are preferable since they provide a visual impact for a more concrete image.

TV Commercials

1. If technically possible, the TV commercials should be presented with irrelevant scenes of other TV programmes edited out.
2. It is advisable to select TV commercials lengthier than 15 seconds, since most students need the first 2–3 seconds to warm up.

3. Make sure that the selected TV commercials are not only a feast for the eyes, but also a source of authentic language.

Cartoons

1. When selecting suitable materials, it is advisable to take cultural background into consideration.
2. Short, interesting cartoons are more desirable.

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT

IMPROVING STUDENTS' INTEREST AND SKILLS IN WRITING SHORT STORIES

Course No.: *ES 931*
Group 9(A): *Connie Chan*
Helena Lee
Jane Leung
Esther Pak
Mei-ling Wong
Group Tutor: *Shirley Chan*

Introduction

Secondary school teachers in Hong Kong often complain of getting unimaginative and totally predictable compositions from students. They are either lacking in interesting ideas or jumbled with illogical and contradicting events. When writing stories, students are unable to develop a plot or make the characters interesting.

One explanation for the above problems is our traditional approach to the teaching of writing. Undue emphasis is put on the correct language form. Students are so concerned with getting the grammar, spelling, etc. right that they do not put in enough effort to develop the content.

It was therefore our concern to alleviate the above situation. Our focus was on improving students' story-writing skills as story writing can provide a chance for students to express their feelings and thoughts towards people, situations, incidents, etc. They can exercise their imagination and learn to organize their ideas at the same time.

What Our Project Aimed to Do

Our aim was to raise students' interest and improve their skills in writing short stories. Through a planned series of activities and practice, we hoped that the students could learn some essential elements in story writing, which include how to begin and end a story, develop the plot and describe the characters in more creative ways.

The experimental teaching was carried out in a Form 3 class in St. Stephen's Girls' College.

How Materials were Tried Out

In order to find out their problems in writing stories, an introductory lesson was given. Students were asked to write a short story with a given beginning. Immediately after that, they filled in a questionnaire to state their problems in writing stories. According to the findings of the survey, a set of writing activities were designed to cater for their needs. We then spent 6 days at the school to conduct the experimental teaching.

Summary of the Lessons

Lesson 1: Introduction to story writing

The teacher read out some of the students' essays in order to arouse their interest in story writing through the appreciation of their classmates' work. Then the teacher used the short story 'Silas the Good' as illustration to introduce the basic features of a story.

Lesson 2: Beginning a story

With the book covers of some stories or novels, the teacher introduced different types of stories. Through brainstorming and discussion, the teacher summarized one way of how to begin a story—with five Ws on the blackboard. Then four students formed a group and worked on one W card. The whole class made up two different stories. Worksheets were given as homework and preparation for the next lesson on character development.

Lesson 3: Description of characters

The teacher used cartoons to introduce different ways of describing characters in a story—describing the characters' gestures, movements, postures, mannerisms, moods, feelings, etc. Students acted according to the cues and completed a quiz.

Lesson 4: Planning a story

The teacher introduced five different ways of starting a story. Using 'Silas the Good' and 'Cinderella' as models, the teacher tried to make students understand the importance of developing a plot. Students practised using all the skills through planning an outline of a short story.

Lesson 5: Writing a story

Students wrote their stories according to their outlines in groups of three to four.

Lesson 6: Conclusion and evaluation

The teacher summed up the previous lessons and gave general comments on students' story writing. Students were asked to make a fair copy of their stories. Then they filled in a questionnaire so as to evaluate the effectiveness of the lessons on writing skills.

The Design of the Teaching Materials

In order to illustrate the basic features of a good story, 'Silas the Good' was chosen. 'Silas the Good' is a sophisticated story and it does possess the essential elements of a good story. However, in retrospect, the story might have been a bit too subtle and hence did not seem to suit the taste of the students. A story with a more dramatic plot might have been a better choice.

A series of worksheets were designed to guide students towards better writing. The focus of the worksheets was on:

- 'Silas the Good'
- Types of stories
- Using adjectives to describe characters
- Using adjectives to describe gesture, mannerism, movement and posture
- Using adjectives to describe moods, states and feelings
- How to start
- Planning a story
- Writing in groups

The majority of the students found the worksheets interesting and useful. The worksheets provided students with a greater range of activities in the lessons. They were useful tools, guiding students progressively towards better writing.

In the experimental teaching, students enjoyed completing the tasks—describing characters, guessing gestures, plotting story lines, planning a story and writing a story in groups. They also found the quiz on describing postures interesting. Though some students seemed a bit shy to discuss in English, most students found the group discussion useful.

Findings

The design of the action research aimed at finding out whether students had problems in writing short stories. It also aimed at locating the problems and providing the basic writing skills with which students could then be more equipped when writing.

The students' questionnaires showed that more than half of the students admitted having difficulties in putting in interesting details and developing characters in short stories. About 66.7% of the students found it difficult to develop the plot and 45.5% found it difficult to organize ideas logically while about 66.7% of the students lacked the vocabulary.

On completion of the experimental teaching, it was found that the great majority of the students felt more confident in writing short stories. More than half of the students found the lessons useful and interesting. 96.8% of the students thought that the lessons would help them write better stories in future and 93.5% of the students replied that they would plan their stories as suggested.

On the whole, the results were encouraging and justified the carrying out of our action research.

Recommendations

Should any teacher be interested in trying our action research out in future, we have the following suggestions:

(1) The story used to illustrate the features of a short story should be chosen carefully with students' interest in mind. It should preferably be more exciting and dramatic.

(2) Time should be devoted to introducing and teaching the story to students before it can be used to illustrate the features of a short story.

(3) Less should be planned in each lesson so as to enhance retention on the part of students.

(4) It is easier to get students warmed-up by starting off the experimental teaching with activities which involve participation from the whole class.

(5) It is worthwhile teaching writing skills throughout the term as part of the syllabus.

(6) Students should be taught the skills of rewriting drafts and then proofreading in separate lessons.

(7) Although the emphasis of this project is on writing, students should be encouraged to discuss in English throughout the lessons.

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT

PROMOTING INTERACTION IN GROUP DISCUSSION AT AS LEVEL

Course No.: ***ES 931***
Group 6: ***Au Suk Ying***
Cheung Siu Wong
Leung Kan Pui Tong
Li Shu Kwok
Yau Hing Fai
Yu Choi Heung
Group Tutor: ***Ina Lam***

Introduction

The new oral examination at AS Level has caused a hitherto neglected aspect of the S6 English curriculum to come under the spotlight. The examination consists of a presentation and a group discussion. While students have difficulty in both, it is generally felt that they are particularly ill-prepared for the discussion part. That is why we decided to look into ways of helping students improve their discussion skills.

Problem Identification

Many factors can hamper students' performance in group discussion. These include, for example, their overall proficiency in the language, their knowledge of the topic, and their personality. We were especially concerned about two problems that many students appear to have:

1. Students tend to present rather than discuss. They spend a lot of time telling others all the points they have prepared and are not aware of the need to respond to others' views.
2. When they do respond to others, they do not have the appropriate language to express their responses naturally, clearly and effectively.

It is these two problems that we wanted to tackle in our project.

Methodology

To promote interaction in discussion, we believe that it is first of all necessary to make students understand that a discussion is a co-operative effort to share views and to solve problems. It is therefore imperative that they listen to and respond to other speakers.

When such an awareness has been aroused, students should then be trained in active, critical listening. They should be able to follow the line of argument, and judge whether a certain point is valid.

Next, students should learn about the possible moves to make in a discussion. For example, they may support a view and further elaborate, they may concede a point but express reservations, or they may request clarification of an idea.

Finally, students should be taught the language of discussion to help them make various moves, and practise using this in a number of specially designed activities.

Instruments

To observe students' performance in discussion and to collect feedback on our project, we made use of the following instruments:

1. Observation forms
2. Questionnaires
3. Videotapes
4. Audiotapes

The observation forms were used in the students' first and last group discussions. On these forms were recorded the number of responses made by each student, whether they were relevant or not, and also the number of responses which used appropriate language or otherwise. The teachers also made notes of some of the expressions uttered.

The questionnaires were completed by the students after their first and last discussions. These provided information on the difficulties students had, as well as feedback on how effective our experimental teaching was.

The first and last discussions done by one of the groups were videotaped, and some other groups also had theirs recorded on audio cassette tapes. These recordings were very useful tools for diagnosing problems, demonstration and analyses.

Summary of Lesson Plans

Lesson 1

Objective: To observe and record students' performance in group discussion for diagnostic purposes.

Procedures:
1. Students in groups of five discuss an assigned topic for 10 minutes.
2. Students fill in a questionnaire.

Lessons 2 & 3

Objective: To arouse students' awareness of the need to respond to other speakers, to train them in critical listening, and to introduce possible strategies and language of discussion.

Procedures:
1. Students are invited to comment on possible responses to short speeches made by the teacher, who then gives feedback and offer more suggestions.

2. Students watch a demonstration discussion on videotape and complete a worksheet by identifying which of the items of discussion language listed there were actually spoken on the tape.
3. The teacher checks answers and introduces the language functions involved.
4. Video recording of one group's discussion is played. The teacher draws attention to successes and possible improvements.

Lessons 4 & 5

Objective: To introduce the language of discussion and to provide group activities to practise such language.

Procedures:
1. Activity 1: Responding
   The teacher in each group reads out statements and each time asks a student to respond by making a specified move.
2. Activity 2: Matching
   In groups of five, students take a card from a pile. Some cards carry a statement, while others have the corresponding responses. Students then have to find their correct partners.
3. Activity 3: More Responding
   Each student in the group takes a card specifying a particular type of response. After the teacher reads out a statement, any student can, at any time, volunteer a response as instructed by his/her card. The next one then must respond to this speaker, again, as specified. And so the chain goes on.

Lesson 6

Objective: To allow students to practise discussion strategies and the language of discussion.

Procedures:
1. Students discuss an assigned topic.
2. Students fill in another questionnaire.

Implementation

Experimental teaching was carried out with a Middle Six science class of boys and girls at Pui Ching Middle School where Chinese was the medium of instruction for all subjects except English. Their standard of English was considered above average. The six lessons were conducted smoothly with only minor modifications to the original plans made.

Findings and Conclusions

Based on the data collected through class observations, questionnaires, and video and audio recordings, we found out the following:

1. In their second discussion, the students stopped making presentations. They responded a lot more to other speakers.
2. Many students felt less inhibited when they wanted to say something. They now understood better their role in a discussion. They were also more ready to interrupt.
3. They used the freshly learnt language of discussion quite a lot, so they sounded more fluent.
4. At the end of the six lessons, about half of the students felt that they were very much better prepared to take an active part in discussion, while the other half thought they were a little better prepared. None had a negative response.

Recommendations

We would like to make the following recommendations about helping students improve their discussion skills:

1. It should be explained to students the nature of discussion and their role in it. A discussion is a concerted effort to share views, develop ideas, and solve problems.
2. Students should be trained in active, critical listening so that they can respond to what is said.
3. Students should be made aware of the possible moves in a discussion. They may have to support a view and elaborate, concede a point, express doubt, etc.
4. Students should be taught and given opportunities to practise the language of discussion through short oral activities requiring them to give responses to others' views.
5. When only one teacher is working with the class, the activities tried out in this project can be carried out by appointing a member of each group to read out the statements to which the other members respond.

Evaluation of Project

The objective of our project was to raise the level of interaction in group discussion in the sense that students would listen to one another and respond appropriately. This objective was largely achieved as the various instruments of data collection we used indicated that, by the end of our six sessions, the students were playing a more active role in their discussions, making more responses and using a greater variety of discussion language.

Of course, the language of discussion can only facilitate discussion; it can never enrich the content of discussion. The latter purpose requires a different approach to this multi-faceted problem.

Finally, we would like to emphasize that oral practice should be integrated into practice in the other language skills, preferably using the thematic approach. Yet it would be desirable to allocate special lessons to tackle the issues of interaction and the language of discussion quite early on in the S6 course.

ACTION RESEARCH REPORT

SIMULATED ACTIVITIES FOR IMPROVING STUDENTS' ENGLISH IN THE WORKPLACE

Course No.: ***ES 931***
Group 6: ***Au Yeuk Yee, Anna***
Chan Wing Sum, Clement
Choy Kwok Yee, Joyce
Law Yuet Ngor, Frances
Lau Chi Kin, Stephen
Lo Shuk May, Sally
Yuen Suk Mi, May
Group Tutor: ***Ina Lam***

Introduction

Various sectors of the business community are concerned about the inability of Form 5 school leavers to perform simple office tasks in English, like answering the telephone, taking messages, reading and writing memos. The question as to how to improve their English language abilities for the workplace has become an important focus of language studies. It is against this background that we set the objective for our research, which was to evaluate the effectiveness of simulated activities in improving students' English in the workplace.

To minimize the limitations of classroom teaching and to motivate the learners to practise the language learnt in a real and practical situation, we adopted simulated activities as our teaching approach. Simulated activities allow learners to be active participants in their language practice and all the learners have roles, functions, duties and responsibilities to fulfil. Despite the time-consuming preparation and the large number of handouts and teaching materials to produce for the lessons, simulated activities can provide a sense of reality as well as enhance learner responsibility.

Design of the Project

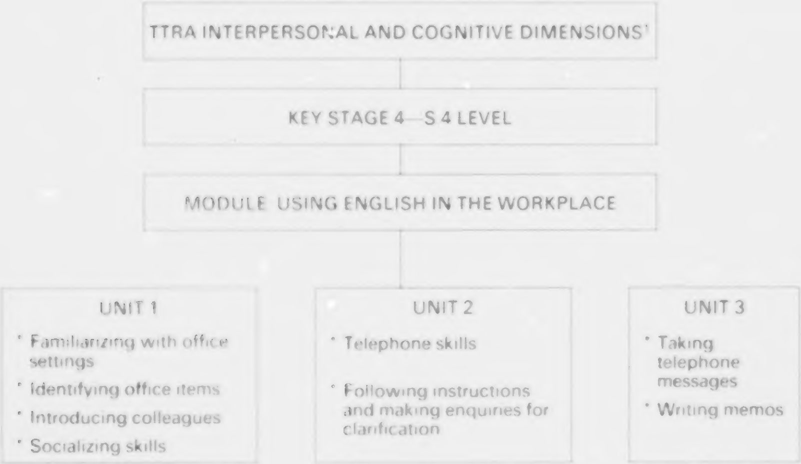
According to the report, 'English Language Proficiency Gap of Form 5 School-Leaver Employees in the Private Sector', some English language areas useful at work were not covered at school.

The report also revealed that the speaking skill of employees in different sectors of business like banking, retailing, trading and manufacturing was fairly low overall while their writing, reading and listening skills were ranked from middling to fairly low.

Perceiving the incompetence of students, especially Form 5 school-leavers, in vocational English, we designed a 7-lesson module called

'Using English in the Workplace' with six related topics. A series of simulated activities were introduced to students in an office setting in the hope that students could learn effectively in a more authentic situation.

Having consulted our group tutor at various stages, we revised, polished and structured all the units in our module in the following way:


TTRA INTERPERSONAL AND COGNITIVE DIMENSIONS'
KEY STAGE 4—S 4 LEVEL
MODULE USING ENGLISH IN THE WORKPLACE
UNIT 1
• Familiarizing with office settings
• Identifying office items
• Introducing colleagues
• Socializing skills
UNIT 2
• Telephone skills
• Following instructions and making enquiries for clarification
UNIT 3
• Taking telephone messages
• Writing memos

Research Methodology

Our research methodology consisted of various approaches like observation, comparing test results, and summarizing comments and opinions on questionnaires.

The focuses of our evaluation were the effectiveness of simulated activities in the lessons, the language abilities of the learners before and after the lessons, the design and preparation of the activities, the performance of the students and the usefulness of the teaching materials.

At the beginning of the course, we set a test for the students in order to get an overall view of students' competence in using English in the workplace. At the end of the course, we set another test for the students to find out if students had learned to handle workplace English.

Students were also given questionnaires for feedback on the nature of the lessons, the liveliness of the presentation, the participation and performance of the students themselves and the effectiveness of the simulated activities throughout the module.

Observation forms were given to teachers to assess the students' performance in carrying out the tasks.

Cognitio College was the school we selected for the Action Research teaching due to the fact that it was a co-educational school located in San Po Kong, and most of the students came from the working class. We also had the background knowledge that the students did not get sufficient exposure to English, particularly spoken English. It was a mixed-ability class in which some students were very bright while some were very negative towards learning English. Because of this, we designed a lot of group work to enable weaker students to get peer help and to motivate them to participate actively in the differentiated learning tasks.

Findings

At first, students were unprepared for such a teaching and learning approach. Some were negative towards the lessons. Later, it was observed that students got more and more interested in the tasks designed for them. On the last day, students were highly motivated, with active involvement in the activities. This obvious change of students' behaviour really gave teachers endless encouragement and satisfaction in working on the project.

Furthermore, the results of the analysis from the tests, observation forms and questionnaires also indicated the effectiveness of simulated activities for improving students' English in the workplace.

There was also encouraging feedback from the English teacher of the class, that the students had made great improvement in oral English, since they were more eager to use English and the vocabulary they had just learnt in their daily conversation.

Recommendations and Reflection

It was felt that more time should be given to the 7-lesson module. It would be better if the subjects were F5 graduates since they would have the immediate need to learn vocational English. The simulated activities would be more effective if enough time was given and the classroom could be made to resemble an office more, with partitions and office equipment.

It was a valuable experience to have a group of teachers doing experimental teaching in a class. Each teacher was doing his or her part, supervising students, demonstrating the teaching points and so on. This paved the way for effective team teaching. After all, it was tnis tightly-knit team spirit of understanding and co-operation among teachers that made our Action Research Project worthwhile!

Note

1. TTRA is now known as TOC, the Target Oriented Curriculum. The Cognitive Dimension is now known as the Knowledge Dimension.

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Listening Comprehension for Secondary Schools	1988	$25
Developing Reading in English—Approaches and Techniques	1989	$46.50
Project Work in Schools	1990	$20.00
Developing Writing: Purposes and Practices	1992	—
The Teaching of Phonics	1993	—
常用字字形表（修訂本）	1990	$50
小學讀書百問	1986	$20
小學寫作教學	1987	$25
小學中國語文科說話教學示例	1990	—
讀書教學提問技巧	1990	—
常用字廣州話讀音表（1992年修訂本）	1992	—
小學普通話教學設計（修訂本）	1992	—
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中學普通話科教學設計	1993	—

All ILE Handbooks for teachers of English and Chinese in Hong Kong can be obtained from

Government Publications Centre
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語文教育學院出版之中、英文教師手冊可於中環郵政局大廈政府刊物銷售處購買。

FUTURE ISSUES OF ILEJ

Volume 11 of ILEJ will be published in late 1994. Contributions will be welcomed. They should be sent to the editors before 30 April 1994 at the following address:

The Editors (English): ILEJ,
Institute of Language of Education,
No. 2 Hospital Road,
HONG KONG

Articles should be approximately 4 000 words in length. An English style-sheet is attached on the next page for your reference. A brief abstract should be included. Book reviews will also be welcome. Further information about the ILEJ may be obtained from Mrs. Brenda WONG. Tel.: 803 2429.

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《語文教育學院學報》主要刊載有關語文教學、語文應用、語文研究的學術論文。來稿如用中文撰寫，請閱下列說明：

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1. Manuscripts should be word-processed or typewritten, double-spaced, on A4 size paper and on one side of the paper only.
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   b. The heading NOTES and APPENDIX and the title of the appendix.
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   b. The author's name and institution.
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7. The first page should contain the title of the article at the top of the page, in bold capitals, with the name of the author(s) and institution(s) immediately below, all aligned with the left margin. A reasonable amount of blank space should separate these from the start of the text. Headings and sub-headings should also be aligned at the left.
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15. Articles in books should be referenced in the following way: Kvan, E. 1969. 'Problems of bilingual milieu in Hong Kong: Strain of the two language system.' In *Hong Kong: A Society in Transition,* edited by T.C. Jarvie and J. Agassi, pp. 327–343. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

1597

The articles in this Journal record the personal views of the contributors and should not be taken as expressing the official views of the Education Department, Hong Kong.

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第十一期 一九九四年

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語文教育學院
學報

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1602

INSTITUTE OF LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION JOURNAL

Volume 11 1994

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語文教育學院學報

一九九四年

第十一期

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FOREWORD

It is with some passing regret that the editors have to report that this edition of the ILEJ will be its last. In September 1994, the ILE will become part of the Hong Kong Institute of Education but it is hoped that a new journal will take its place, so that in honoured Shakesperean fashion we may proclaim, 'The journal is dead! Long live the journal.'

For this, the eleventh and last issue of the ILEJ, the English editors decided on the theme of 'Teacher education: looking back, looking forward'. In this way, significant achievements could be highlighted and consideration given to the measures required to support, sustain and carry forward these achievements.

The eight articles in the English section are followed by a series of reports on major initiatives the ILE is involved in plus summary reports of action research projects carried out by secondary and primary participants during ILE refresher courses.

Cheng Kai-ming's article looks at global issues in teacher education reform with a particular focus on Asia. He examines the role of teachers in such reforms which he relates to teacher competencies and their associated phenomena—budgetary constraints, teacher values, teacher shortage, teaching qualifications and the professional development of teachers.

John Clark demonstrates how lessons learned in the past might usefully guide future language in education policy in Hong Kong, using the ILE as his vehicle. He outlines and appraises the role, functions and significant contributions of the ILE to education in Hong Kong since its inception in 1982. He plots its progress over the years highlighting its achievements but also regretting that its envisaged role did not allow it to realise its full potential as the fulcrum of educational development in Hong Kong. He goes on to indicate ways in which the Hong Kong Institute of Education might respond to the developing and future needs of language in education in Hong Kong.

Carol Maclennan discusses the principles on which pre-service teacher-education courses might be based. She examines first the problems of teacher education generally and then those particular to Hong Kong. Her conclusion is that the essential items of a pre-service course should also be cognisant of the effects these elements will have on the long term development of the prospective teacher. She makes a plea for teacher education to be seen as an integrated whole which 'accepts continuous learning rather than stagnation as its 'raison d'etre' and as 'the cornerstone of pre-service courses which prepare students to become teachers of the 21st century'.

Dave Carless and Icy Lee describe a project on attitude changes carried out in conjunction with primary school teachers on their 16 week in-service refresher course at the ILE. Through pre- and post-course questionnaires and interviews they were able to gauge the extent to which teacher attitudes had changed during the course. The results indicated more positive attitudes, in particular towards the Target Oriented Curriculum. The writers suggest that there are wider implications for which further research is needed in that attitude change on an in-service course does not necessarily predict behaviour changes in the classroom.

Bob Adamson's contribution is an intriguingly witty dialogue between a well-known Chinese teacher and his interviewer. From the answers we learn that the idea of a reflective teacher is not new and was in vogue in China thousands of years ago.

Peter Storey's article describes the use of the introspective validation procedure used in the development of a diagnostic test of reading for College of Education Students in Hong Kong. He explains what the procedure can reveal about the test-taking process. Despite certain drawbacks he feels that 'a carefully controlled use of introspection could produce a genuine advance in our knowledge of tests and test-taking'.

The article by Mike Ingham and Mike Murphy seeks to show teachers how to cope with the change in the Form 5 Oral Exam and the new AS oral component which essentially demand more emphasis on presentation skills. Their solution is partly inspired by a joint performance festival by three schools as a result of the action research projects carried out by the teachers during their ILE refresher course. They propose to use the principle of performance which basically encourages students to dramatize their presentations through participating in various ways with varying media e.g. speaking, poems, choral speaking, role-playing and even acting.

With the Government's medium of instruction policy being implemented in September 1994, Gloria Tang's paper is particularly relevant. It addresses the problem of bridging Chinese- medium and English-medium content-area instruction. She reports on an ethnographic study in Hong Kong of how knowledge structures are represented graphically in textbooks and by teachers, and of students' awareness of them. She proposes a classroom model, known as the Knowledge Framework which has been developed with Bernard Mohan in Canada. Though positive results have been obtained in Vancouver, she feels further research is necessary to establish its effectiveness in Hong Kong.

Our report section continues with the medium of instruction issue, as Philip Hoare reports on the new ILE course for subject teachers using English as the medium of instruction. He outlines the background to the course, describes the course components and discusses future issues. May Lee reports on the Intensive English Programme designed to help 6th form students using Chinese as the medium of instruction to make the transition to English medium tertiary education. She describes the course, its progress and evaluation and deals with certain issues which require further consideration.

Vivienne Yu and Graham Bilbow respectively, explain the Extensive Reading Scheme for primary schools and the Hong Kong Vocational English Programme in terms of their background, structure and positive effects.

There are nine Chinese articles in this journal. They are grouped under three headings—vocabulary; the teaching and learning of Chinese; and improvements in language teaching.

There are three articles dealing with vocabulary. Professor Lui Kang-lei's 'A talk on the common word' gives his views on the proper and common aspect of words. The examples used and the comments given should provide useful insights for teachers of Chinese.

The article on 'Variants in Chinese Characters and Words' by Dr. Lee Hok-ming, analyzes the differences between variant characters and words and also indicates the differences between the variant words and their synoyms. He also explains why variant words were coined and their significance in the teaching of Chinese. Mr Chen Ji-fan's article, 'A Comparison of the Putonghua and Shantou dialects', points out the differences in the composition of quantitative words and nouns in the two dialects.

In the first of four articles on the teaching and learning of Chinese, 'The Hau Yu Dialect and Language Teaching', Professor Zhau Bo-hui outlines the principles teachers should use in dealing with interference from the Yue dialect.

Dr Cheung Kwan-lim's article 'The Introduction of an Elementary Course in the Awareness of Speech Sounds', stresses the importance of raising the learner's awareness of speech sounds. To this end he has designed a sequence process which should develop the learners' ability in this area.

Mr Lee How-chong points out the importance of creative thinking in language teaching in his article 'The Teaching of Creative thinking and Language teaching'.

Mr. Fu King-hung's article, 'Reading Processes and the Assessment of Reading Skills', written from a psycholinguistic stand-point, is based on his research work. He suggests several ways in which to assess the learner's ability to decode information.

The final two articles come from Mainland China and are concerned with improving language teaching. In 'The Essence of Chinese', Mr Yu Ying Yuan gives an overview of the essence of Chinese which he considers should be used as a basis for further exploring the principles of language teaching so as to develop a more systematic way of handling content and teaching strategies. Professor Zong Wei-yong's article, 'The Reform of Language Teaching in Mainland China' is an account of language teaching in Mainland China in which he indicates that any reform of language teaching should be viewed from a macro point of view.

前言

《語文教育學院學報》是一本以語文教師、語文教育工作者、語文學者為對象的學術刊物，第一期在1985年出版，幌眼之間，距今已有九年了。今期是第十一期，也應該是最後一期，因為由今年九月起，語文教育學院就會成為香港教育學院的一分子，即使以後有《學報》的出版，也不可能稱為《語文教育學院學報》了。自茲一別，再會無期，謹向一直以來支持我們的機構、朋友和熱誠工作的同事致謝。

為配合《學報》最後一期，今期英文版的主題為「教師培訓之回顧與前瞻」，共收集論文八篇，內容遍及教師培訓、語文的教與學、語文政策和教學語言等題目。今期英文版亦載有四份報告，分別介紹語文教育學院所參與的四項新工作，即專為以英語為教學語言的教師而設的復修課程、中六英語密集課程、職業英語課程及小學英文廣泛閱讀計畫。此外，中小學英文教師復修課程學員提交的「行動研究報告」，也有八篇撮要收錄在內。

今期的中文論文有九篇，排列次序，原則上按收稿的先後。九篇論文的內容，可約略分為三類。有關字詞討論的文章有三篇：羅忼烈的《俗字瑣談》，討論的是正字和俗字問題，文中所舉的字例和相關的說明，對語文教師、語文教育工作者和語文學者，都有參考的價值。李學銘的《異體字和異體詞》，除了辨析何謂異體字詞和異體詞與同義詞的分別外，主要是論述異體字詞衍生的原因和異體字詞與語文教學的關係。陳基藩的《汕頭話與普通話的比較——數量詞與名詞的組合特點》，主要用汕頭話跟普通話互相比較，在數量詞與名詞的組合上論述其表示法、搭配、省略等各方面的特點。有關語文教學與學習的文章有四篇：詹伯慧的《談談漢語方言與語文教學》，主要是討論方言與語文教學的問題，作者的主張是：面對粵語給語文教學帶來的干擾，教師應懂得寬嚴結合之道，該寬則寬，需嚴則嚴，實事求是。張群顯的《介紹一個語音意識初級教程》，主要在介紹作者自己設計的新語音教程，並強調語音意識的重要。這個教程，採取循序漸進的方式，去刺激學員的語音意識。李孝聰的《創造思考教學與語文教學》，內容在強調創作思考教學在語文教學中的重要地位。作者認為，創作思考教學是一種多元、開放、活潑而又能訓練學生思維的教學模式。傅健雄的《閱讀認知心理的發展與能力評估》，是一篇從心理語言學觀點討論閱讀心理過程的文章。作者以學者的研究為理據，就學生處理信息的能力，提出幾種評估方法。有關語文教學改進的文章有兩篇：余應源的《論語文科的本質》，詳細辨析了語文科的本質，並進而指出，我們必須以認識語文科的本質為基礎，進一步探討語文教學各方面的規律，建構科學的語文教學內容體系與方法體系。鍾為永的《中國大陸的語文教學改革》，既扼要介紹了中國大陸語文教學的情況，又指出語文教學改革所應注意的事項。最後，作者強調，語文教學的改革，必須立足整體，從宏觀着眼。

CONTENTS 目錄

		Page 頁數
Cheng Kai Ming	Issues in Teacher Education Reform: An International Perspective	13
John Clark	The Institute of Language in Education: An Evaluative Overview	24
Carol MacLennan	Pre-Service Teacher Education: What Should it Achieve?	43
David R. Carless and Icy K. B. Lee	Attitude Changes on an INSET Course for Primary English Teachers	56
Bob Adamson	The Reflective Teacher: A Case Study	76
Peter Storey	Using Introspection in Enhancing Construct Validity in a Test of Academic Reading—A Hong Kong Case Study	79
Mike Ingham and Mike Murphy	The Performances Principle: Towards a More Active Role in the Hong Kong Classroom	92
Gloria M. Tang	Bridging Chinese-Medium and English-Medium Content-Area Instruction through Cross-Cultural Graphic Representation of Knowledge Structures	99
詹伯慧	談談漢語方言與語文教學	119
羅忼烈	俗字瑣談	127
鍾為永	中國大陸的語文教學改革	140
李學銘	異體字與異體詞	149
陳基瀟	汕頭話與普通話的比較——數量詞與名詞的組合特點	157
余應源	論語文科的本質	164
李孝聰	創造思考教學與語文教學	171
傅健雄	閱讀認知過程各種技能的評估	177
張群顯	介紹一個語音意識初級教程	187

REPORTS AND SUMMARIES 匯報

Page 頁數

Philip Hoare Language through Content and Content through Language: The ILE Course for Teachers Using English as the Medium of Instruction 206

May Lee Report on the Intensive English Programme or Sixth Form Students Who have studied through the Medium of Chinese 215

Emily Chiu, Rachel Yau, Siu Yuen Lan and Vivienne Yu The Primary English Extensive Reading Scheme—The first year of development 220

Grahame Bilbow The Hong Kong Vocational English Programme 226

Action Research Report Summaries by ILE Primary and Secondary English Refresher Course Participants

PRIMARY

1 What are Pupils' Attitudes towards Language Learning through (A) Coursebook-bound Activities and (B) Communicative Activities 232

2 Is it effective to practise the Simple Past Tense in Primary 4 through Doing Activities 235

3 An Analysis of Classroom Verbal Interaction in English Lessons and How it Affects Language Learning for Communication 239

4 Can the Introduction of Process Writing Enhance Positive Attitudes towards Writing among Primary Pupils 243

SECONDARY

1 The Learning and Teaching of Tense and Aspect in Hong Kong Lower Secondary Schools 246

2 Promoting Creative Writing Through Stimulating Activities 250

Page 頁數

3 Lowering the Affective Filter During Speaking Activates 253

4 How to Improve Students' Formal Discussion Skills Through a Series of Prediscussion Activities 259

ISSUES IN TEACHER EDUCATION REFORM: AN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE[1]

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Introduction

This paper is developed from a thematic key-note delivered at the SEAPREAMS[2] 13th regional Symposium which worked on Education Reform. Teacher competency was among the four areas of concern, the others being *curriculum, management* and *finance*. The key-note paper was based on position papers written by various country representatives in response to a situation paper produced by the writer and sent to country representatives well in advance. The countries' responses clearly indicate that the concern about teachers go far beyond the realm of *competency*. This paper is therefore derived from the general literature on teacher education, the issues identified by various country representatives who attended the symposium and the writer's observation of several systems.

Teachers in Reforms

Education reform is on the agenda of almost all governments in the world. For a number of reasons, the success of any educational reform relies heavily on teachers. First, while the construct of a reform may come from some wise men at the top, plans have to be implemented by grass-root teachers. Educational reforms are perhaps more known for their failures than successes, and most of the failures are attributable to resistance or reluctance of grass-root teachers.

Second, the largest share of any education budget goes towards teachers' salaries. UNESCO statistics reveal that the largest share of the recurrent budget (in the range of 60% to 90% with many countries exceeding 80% in Asia) is spent on personnel which in most countries means teachers' salaries (UNESCO, 1993a: Table 4.2; 1993b: Table 11). The OECD also revealed that its member countries spend an average of 72.4% of recurrent expenditure on teacher remuneration (OECD, 1993:86). In a country like China, where the salary of teachers is always a concern, primary school and secondary school teachers consume 88.8% and 81.7% respectively of the recurrent expenditure (State Education Commission and Shanghai Institute for Human Resources Development, 1993:37–38). In these days when *efficiency* looms high on policy agendas, teacher improvement becomes crucial in improving the efficiency of any education system.

Third, many of the recent education reforms have moved away from quantitative expansion and structural reform and into the arena of quality of education. During times of expansion and structural reform, the major concerns are the number of places, changes at the system level and resources to support such expansion and changes. However, the degree to which systemic reforms can contribute to improvement of quality of education is limited. As we are aware, quality improvement is often a matter of schools. There is therefore the recent trend of decentralisation in school systems and the encouragement of school-based endeavours. In all these, teachers are again crucial in achieving any success for the reforms (see, for example, Department of Education and Science, 1987 which gives a very useful discussion of the relations between quality improvement and teacher education).

There are other more theoretical reasons why teachers are essential to education reforms (for example, see Elmore & MacLaughlin, 1988), but at least the above pragmatic considerations should have made teachers the focus of educational reform.

However, even in very developed systems of education, the teacher element is often taken for granted in reform plans, and is often not given enough attention during the implementation of the reform. Often, it is assumed that teachers would automatically accept the ideas of the reform, acquaint themselves with the reform processes, identify and solve problems arising from the reform. Everybody knows that this is seldom the case in reality. Too often, elegantly designed reform plans face teachers who are psychologically reluctant to change, physically pre-occupied with heavy workloads and technically unprepared for handling the new tasks required by the reform.

Indeed, reform in teachers is the most essential factor in educational reform. If other elements were held static and teachers alone were significantly improved, our education systems might be very different from what they are today.

About Competency

There is a trend in some countries to consider teacher competency as a central concern of teacher reform. However, whether or not the issue of teacher improvement should be confined to teacher competency is debatable.

To start with, what is meant by competency? In lieu of a specific definition, teacher competency may be taken to mean whatever is required of a teacher. If this is accepted, then the answer to the above question is 'yes'. In other words, if we want to launch a system of teacher reform we need to know what the expected outcomes of such a reform would be.

Traditional teacher training claims that it imparts knowledge and skills. It assumes that teacher competency comprises knowledge and skills. However, most of the effective school literature views teachers as agents of change and committed professionals. Such expectations are hardly only a matter of knowledge and skill. Hence, attitudes or values are becoming increasingly regarded as essential ingredients of an effective teacher. In other words, if we are to maintain the term competency, then the term has to be re-defined.

If we adopt this framework, then there could be three dimensions to teacher competency: (a) knowledge about what is to be taught or subject competency, (b) knowledge and skills about teaching or other activities in schools or education competency and (c) commitments or values a teacher should possess or professional values. The following elaborates these three dimensions:

Subject competency is about academic knowledge related to the curriculum the teacher is to teach. Subject competency is often attained during the pre-service stage of teacher development. Ideally, the teacher should have achieved this kind of competency through higher education, either in universities or in post-secondary teacher colleges. A teacher's subject competency is also updated through in-service endeavours. To this end, higher education should also develop among the graduates the capacity to renew their own knowledge.

Education competency is perhaps not an accurate representation of the category. It involves initially knowledge skills related to teaching. It also includes knowledge and skills in other school activities such as counselling, management and curriculum development. The scope of this kind of competency is ever expanding in the light of administrative decentralisation and reliance on school-based endeavours for school improvement. Pre-service teacher education equips teachers with the fundamentals of educational competency, but much of the educational competency is acquired on-the-job through practice or through in-service programmes.

Professional values are perhaps the most neglected items in teacher competency, although they are essential in maintaining a teaching force which is committed to education. Professional values are supposedly acquired initially through pre-service training, but this is true only if the teacher educators are themselves conscious of their role as teaching professionals. Where a mentor system is adopted, the mentor is also essential in 'enculturating' the incoming teacher to the professional culture of teachers. Professional values are often re-confirmed through working in schools. A teacher's professional attitude and values, particularly among young teachers, are shaped by peer influence and school cultures. Teacher's professional values are further developed through professional organisations which extend the professional network beyond school boundaries. These could be subject or task based professional societies such as those for science education or educational administration. The ideal case is for teachers to develop an umbrella professional body such as the General Teaching Council for Scotland, which oversees and co-ordinates teachers' professional development at large. Such a professional body is often equipped with a professional code with internal disciplinary implications (see Hoyle, 1980[1]).

The above is only a brief classification to provide a framework for discussion. There are other ways of classifying which may prove helpful. The Project 21 issued by the board of Teacher Education of Queensland, for example, has made a list of 'teachers' desirable roles and competencies' (Board, 1987:52 & App. V). Meanwhile, the Australian National Teaching Council is launching a validation exercise on Teacher Competencies by December 1993[4]. In the following section certain specific issues of common concern will be discussed.

Teacher Shortage and Competency

Teacher shortage is reportedly a common issue of concern[5]. In some places, a prospering economy has diverted people from the teaching profession. Either young people are not attracted to teaching, or capable teachers leave the profession (e.g. in Singapore). In other places, in developing countries in particular, the salaries for teachers are not enough to attract able young people. In still other places, the education system is not sufficiently developed to produce the required number of teachers (e.g. in Maldives). Apart from matters of supply and demand, there is sometimes the lack of competence to cope with the changing system that causes teachers to leave their jobs.

The improvement of teacher competency is very much hampered by teacher shortage. When quantity is a problem, it is difficult to conceive of dramatic improvements in competencies. Under situations of severe teacher shortage, planners and policy-makers are tempted to lower the qualification requirements for teachers. This may in turn cause a dilution of teacher quality and a decline in the prestige of the teaching profession. As a result the profession becomes even less attractive to young people. A vicious circle develops.

One may understandably argue that the vicious circle can only be broken when there is a 'turn-around' in the supply of teachers. At times of teacher shortage, filling the classrooms becomes an immediate concern and planners are given little choice but to appoint whoever is available. However, one may also justifiably argue that if there is no significant improvement in teacher competency, the professional status of teachers will decline. Then, it would be even more difficult to recruit able young people to the teaching profession. Teacher shortage will be perpetuated.

An issue similar to the problem of shortage is the disparity between 'old' teachers, who are less qualified or less motivated and 'new' teachers who are better educated and better prepared for self-renewal. This occurs often in the systems which have seen significant expansion in the higher levels of education. The 'old' teachers, who need competency improvement, are the most reluctant to undergo any reform. These reluctant teachers will dilute whatever effort is made to improve teacher quality. The difference between this case and teacher shortage is that the dilution is caused by the 'old-comers' rather than the 'new-comers'.

There is perhaps no panacea for the problem. Reports of innovations or suggestions for solving the problem of teacher shortage are relatively rare in the literature. The dilemma is caused by the intrinsic contradiction between long-term strategies and short-term crises.

Qualification and Competency

An issue that grew out of the shortage problem is: Is formal qualification still of prime importance? In theory, it is difficult to argue that formal qualification is not important. One can imagine the chaos when there is no control over teacher qualification. Almost anybody could then teach, and teachers would not be respected as professionals. Such a scenario does exist in the region (e.g. Macao).

However, reality often shows that in rural areas, in developing countries in particular (e.g. China and South Asia), there are often dedicated teachers who do not possess formal qualifications. They may not be perfect teachers, but they are much more needed than those other teachers who are trained in teacher colleges situated in urban centres. During their training in these urban teacher colleges, these teachers are often virtually 'educated' to aspire for urban lives and are likely to leave rural areas at the earliest opportunity. In this case, do we prefer teachers who are without formal qualifications, but who are more dedicated, or do we prefer reluctant teachers with formal qualifications?

A related question is: Is higher education really essential? Again, it is difficult to argue that higher education is not necessary, but to be fair, the case could be argued both ways, and the arguments have to be made in context.

In places where opportunities for higher education are ample and if teaching does not require higher education, only those who are the least successful in education would opt for teaching. We cannot expect these rather unsuccessful students to improve the teaching profession. Under these circumstances, it would be a serious mistake not to require higher education as a threshold qualification for teaching.

However, if we insist on higher education, and if there are ample alternative job opportunities for university graduates besides teaching, we may not be able to attract even an adequate number of teachers. Then, requiring higher education as the threshold qualification may be exacerbating the problem of an already severe teacher shortage. Therefore, whether or not a system should opt for an all-graduate teaching force is often a matter of policy debate.

Solutions to the problem go back to the fundamental philosophy of investment in education. If education is seen as an investment, then the investment should be sufficient to produce quality education so that in the end a good return is enjoyed. From this perspective, the inability to attract good teachers is a sign of under-investment which will result in poor quality education and will lead to poor returns in the end. Unfortunately, few governments seem to have adopted this strategy. If teachers with the appropriate qualification are not attracted to the profession, enhancement of teacher quality may become a void proposition.

In practice, once a government plans for dramatic expansion in higher education such that most of those who are willing and able are admitted to universities, then the government should be prepared to pay for an all-graduate teaching force.

Managerial Control versus Professional Development

Another contextual factor that constrains reform in teacher competence is the recent international trend to reform school management in order to enhance the quality of education. There are two conflicting trends.

On the one hand, quality improvement in education, as represented by the effective school movement, lies in the initiatives of schools and their teachers. Systemic policies which are efficient in dealing with expansions and structures, are often handicapped in handling quality issues. Quality improvement is a professional issue which has to be tackled by school-based approaches with teachers of relative autonomy and competency. Sergiovanni's Value-added Leadership and Caldwell & Spinks' Self-managing Schools are all advocates along these lines. Many schools in the region are active participants in the movement.

On the other hand, there is the fashion of applying notions of Quality Assurance to the education system. Often, quality improvement means the administrators' imposition of managerial control over schools. 'Value for money' is the motto. In the name of Total Quality Management, people apply performance indicators, appraisal schemes and so forth, and sometimes they may go even as far as using ISO 9000 for educational institutions. All these should bring about very favourable effects on teachers in theory. In practice, such measures of quality assurance often pay more attention to what is measurable within the school rather than what the school produces for the society. The latter, anyway, occurs beyond education and is hard to measure.

In theory, the two approaches do not conflict. Indeed, they should be complementary. Quality assurance will enhance awareness among schools and teachers about the aims and goals of education. They will then be self-motivated to launch school-based programmes to achieve the goals.

In practice, however, administrators and politicians are easily attracted to quantifiable elements and immediate results, and may easily keep things at the threshold level and do little beyond. Appraisal schemes may penalise low competency, but can do little to reward excellence and innovations, and hence may do very little to facilitate competency improvement.

Quality measures now prevalent on the international scene have made schools accountable. However, these measures are along the lines of managerial accountability or state control (as identified by Kogan, 1986). There is also consumerist accountability which has to do with parents and is only tangentially included in the fashionable movements of quality assurance in education. There is the evan more important professional accountability which determines the rights and wrongs in educating young people and therefore the quality of education. An emphasis on managerial accountability at the expense of professional accountability may lead to the irony of measuring quality without knowing how to define quality.

A similar problem concerns policies for devolving financial and administrative responsibilities to schools. Decentralisation of administration inevitably involves delegation of responsibilities which eventually amounts to increases in teacher workloads. Such decentralization, unfortunately, seldom carries with it a re-distribution of resources to reflect the shift of responsibilities. This has caused difficulties for teachers in coping with the extra workload in addition to the difficulties of working in areas they were not trained for.

As indicated earlier, teachers' professional competency is largely acquired in schools. Reforms in the school system will definitely affect teacher development. Few reforms, however, ever take into consideration the effects on teacher development. Often, normal teacher development activities are interrupted by reforms in other aspects of school life.

Professional accountability is often consolidated in an organised professional body such as a General Teaching Council. In most systems, such a professional body is yet to emerge. The formation of such a professional council is often not on government agendas. This is understandable, because a General Teaching Council is by nature not a government endeavour. In fact, government is usually sceptical of any organisation not directly under its own control. In this context, a teachers' professional body often faces the task of distinguishing its identity from those of trade unions and political parties.

Schools and Teacher Competency

There is also the issue of what type of institutions should host teacher training. Indeed, in most countries, teachers teaching secondary school subjects are expected to have undergone higher education in those particular subjects. Either it is done before teacher training (as is the case with the UK model which is duplicated in many parts of Southeast Asia), or it is done as the major study together with some education-related studies as is the case with Japan and China in its normal universities. This is less so for primary school teachers who are mostly trained in secondary or post-secondary teacher colleges. In the latter case, the teacher colleges are often monotechnic institutions relatively weak in subject areas. This might lead to the merger of teacher colleges with universities, as is the case in the UK and Australia.

At university level, China operates Normal Universities whose primary aim is teacher training, but most Normal Universities are virtually comprehensive universities. Singapore's Institute of Education is now within the Nanyang Institute of Technology. Hong Kong could be the only place where a monotechnic higher institute for teacher training is being introduced.

A common concern in many countries is about the contribution (or the lack of it) by schools to the improvement of teacher competency[6]. They share the observation that schools are not prepared to share the responsibility of teachers' professional development. Such observations refer to both the co-operation of schools during initial training and the staff development functions the schools should play in general. In this respect, there is a marked difference between countries with a developed education system (not necessarily with a developed economy) and others less well developed. The role the school plays in teachers' professional development often signifies the degree of maturity of the teaching profession in that system.

The maturity of a teaching profession entails the identification of schools as professional institutions which are not just administrative units (see discussions in Dean, 1991). Such professional institutions survive and thrive upon the autonomous contributions from their members who are professionals and not subordinates. As such, schools are capable of achieving their professional goals only if they can continuously renew themselves and such renewal is built upon the initiatives for the professional development of its members. Reform of teacher competencies is meaningful only in this context.

It is in this context that the Holmes Group[7], in its second report, proposes close co-operation between teacher education institutions and schools. In what is known as Professional Development Schools (Holmes Group, 1990), experienced teachers in schools co-operate with professional teacher educators using both the institutions and the schools as training grounds for new teachers. The second Holmes report has received some theoretical sympathy from the educators' community in the United States, although its real achievement in practical terms is yet to be seen.

However, a very similar concept has been put into practice in England and Wales as result of forceful government directives. Currently, teacher education institutions are expected to negotiate with schools in their neighbourhood to arrive at terms for co-operation. The basic pattern is for the schools to share as much as around 60% of the responsibilities and, accordingly, consume 60% of the resources for teacher education[8]. The net result is that teacher education will be virtually converted to mentor schemes and teacher education institutions have to reduce their sizes considerably according to the resources available. The existence of many long-standing institutions of teacher education is at stake. Before long, Britain may lose many of its distinguished teacher education institutions for which it has been famous. Apparently, the movement has not gone very far because of the resistance from both the teacher education institutes and the school teachers.

Hence, in terms of school participation in the reform of teacher competency, we have a whole range of possibilities. At the one extreme, schools may be reluctant to participate and teachers receive little support from schools in terms of professional development. At the other extreme, schools may be asked to take over the major part of teacher education and teachers' professional development may be reduced to little more than an apprenticeship.

The move in England and Wales, nevertheless, has raised the alarm. The important role schools have to play in teacher development is well recognised, but is not matched by resources earmarked for the purpose. It has become increasingly difficult to conceive that schools should undertake both mentoring in initial teacher education and continuous professional development of teachers within their original financial constraints.

Does Culture Matter?

This issue has grown out of the writer's research in recent years in East Asia, and in China in particular. Marked differences emerge between the East Asian and Western European cultures in the realm of education.

Cultural difference is by no means new to other disciplines. In management studies, for example, there is a school of thought which identifies Chinese and people in East Asian countries as particularly low in individualism when compared with other countries (Hofstede, 1984:150). In psychology, there is a new school which has discovered that people in East Asia place much more emphasis on effort than ability in student learning, whereas the emphasis in the West is often the opposite (Stevenson & Stigler, 1992). There are other scholars, mostly in philosophy and language, who find that the Chinese adopt holistic or synthetic rather than analytic approaches to life. All these are established theories respected by the international community (Liu, 1988).

It is difficult to conceive that education as a cultural activity could be immune from cultural influences. It is perhaps only because of the localised nature of education that comparison across cultures in education is rare. This writer argues that findings in other fields are also reflected substantially in education. The attention to individual needs, for example, is comparatively recent in East Asian communities. Often, individual needs are subsumed under the uniform curriculum, common standards and keen competition in examinations. Teachers in East Asian communities, as another example, believe that students can always succeed if they aim high and strive hard, regardless of their genetic conditions.

In the realm of teacher development, a teacher in traditional Chinese societies is regarded as a whole person who should be a model for students. This leads to a holistic approach to teacher training, where the theory of teaching and attitude moulding dominate the programmes, and techniques and skills in teaching are given little attention. 'Teachers should use themselves as good examples' is a Chinese concept of a good teacher, but this is seldom a requirement for a teacher in the West[9]. On the other hand, the western approach to teacher competency is analytic and is often described as items in a particular framework, sometimes as a list of competencies.

Identifying differences is perhaps less meaningful than finding ways to get the best of both worlds. Cultures are developed over long periods of time and are not meant to be transplanted. However, concepts and practices which are foreign to us may provide alternatives which are not available in our own framework. Not all educators are given the opportunity to encounter different cultures. However, educators in the region enjoy the privilege of practising education under the influence of various cultures.

Notes

[1] An earlier version of this paper was presented as a thematic key-note at the 13th Regional Symposium of the SEAPREAMS (South East Asia and the Pacific Region Educational Administration and Management Symposium) held December 7-11, 1993, Guangzhou.

[2] Southeast Asian and the Pacific Regional Educational Administration and Management Symposium, held in Guangzhou, December 7-11, 1993.

[3] Eric Hoyle's 14 characteristics of a profession is well quoted in the literature and is a very useful framework for discussions about teacher's professionalism.

[4] D. McGufficke: a position paper submitted to the SEAPREAMS Symposium.

[5] As is reflected in the country position papers submitted to the SEAPREAMS symposium.

[6] This is reflected in many of the position papers submitted to the SEAPREAMS symposium.

[7] The Holmes group is a coalition of 30 leading teacher education institutions in US universities. Their mission is to deliberate on policies for teacher education in US.

[8] Readers may like to read John Elliot's recent compilation which sees this movement as rendering teaching education to the 'atomistic specification of discrete practical skills' (Elliot 1993:17). This echoes the earlier discussion about the meaning of teacher competency.

[9] This is a finding in an effort to draft a Professional Code for Hong Kong teachers. Seventeen Codes from various countries were collected for reference.

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THE INSTITUTE OF LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION: AN EVALUATIVE OVERVIEW

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Introduction

The Institute of Language in Education (ILE) is to be amalgamated with the four Colleges of Education in September 1994 to form the new Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIEd), and will shortly cease to exist as an independent body. It is now perhaps appropriate, to attempt to describe and evaluate the ILE's work, in order to learn from the experience gained over the twelve years of its existence, and in order to guide future initiatives in language in education in Hong Kong and elsewhere.

In this article I shall attempt to describe and to evaluate what was intended (the ILE's origins, mission and functions), what was designed (the ILE's structure), and what initiatives were taken to fulfil the intention and the functions.

The intention: the ILE's origins, mission and functions

The perception that there is a language problem in Hong Kong has been with us for many years. It is not the purpose of this article to set out the history of the problem, or the various policies that have been tried out, but rather to indicate the particular problem that lay behind the setting up of the ILE and to discuss what was done to address it.

The rationale for setting up the ILE was set out by Government in 1981 as follows:

> The main justification for dealing with the language element of teacher training differently from other subjects is that language and communication occupy a crucial position in the process of education. English and Chinese are much more than subjects in the curriculum; they serve as media of instruction. Thus, if there is a drop in the levels of effective communication in both English and Chinese in schools, it adversely affects the teaching of other subjects as well ... In recent years, a drop has been observed in the levels of effective communication in both English and Chinese in schools, and this is causing much concern in educational circles and in the community at large ... It is therefore proposed to establish an Institute of Language in Education to raise substantially the professional standards of English and Chinese in the schools (Hong Kong Government FCAI 1981).

The problem to be addressed was thus perceived to be the low levels of communication in both Chinese and English in schools across the curriculum. In particular it was felt that many students were not developing academic Cantonese or good writing skills in standard written Chinese, and they were failing to develop effective English in all four skill areas. The solution proposed was to set up an ILE whose mission would be to focus on improving the teaching of Chinese and English as subjects.

The more specific functions ascribed to the ILE by the Government in the FCAI paper (1981) for fulfilling its mission were set out as follows:

running refresher courses for teachers of English and Chinese;

conducting research into all areas of language learning and teaching;

undertaking the design and development of prototype instructional materials for the teaching of English and Chinese;

serving as a language teaching resource centre and providing a central venue, facilities and services for all language teaching professionals;

rendering advice and assistance to the Colleges of Education and the Advisory Inspectorate of the Education Department in matters related to language teaching;

participating in exchanges on language teaching at the international level.

It was believed at the time that improving the teaching of Chinese and English as subjects would automatically lead to an improvement in the communicative use of these languages across the curriculum. This does not take into account the fact that teachers of other subjects involve students in a great deal more use of Chinese or English than do teachers of Chinese and English as subjects, and have therefore much more influence on students' language development in the language that serves as the medium of instruction than do language teachers. Such is the power carried by labels, however, that there was and still is a widespread belief that Chinese and English are learnt and developed in Chinese and English language classrooms only.

It would have been more logical and effective had the ILE been set up from the outset to improve the teaching, learning and use of Chinese and English across the curriculum, including languages as subjects, in an integrative manner, rather than limiting its concerns to the improvement of the teaching of Chinese and English as subjects only. It is at least arguable that had the debate and the changes in understanding, attitude and practice that are currently beginning to occur in the choice and effective use of an appropriate medium of instruction been promulgated ten years ago, when the ILE was set up, language proficiency levels and academic levels across the curriculum might already have started to improve. The common consensus among school and tertiary educators is that they have not yet started to do so.

An evaluation of the origins, mission and functions of the ILE has to acknowledge, therefore, that while the problem to be addressed—poor levels of communication in Chinese and English across the curriculum—was clearly diagnosed, the way chosen to address the problem severely limited the potential role that the ILE was initially able to play in bringing about improvements. It is only since the publication of the Report of the Working Group set up to review language improvement measures in 1989 that the ILE has been able to adjust its original brief, widen its and the Government's concerns, and begin to address the problem of language across the curriculum, in order to raise both academic and language levels.

The Structural Design and Staffing of the ILE

Inevitably, an educational institution can only be as good at carrying out its mission and functions as its structural design and staffing enables it to be. It is necessary therefore to outline these and attempt to evaluate them in the light of the reality of its operation.

The ILE was designed and established as a separate Division of the Education Department, headed by an Assistant Director of Education who would also serve as Director of the Institute of Language in Education. Despite its role in teacher education and in curriculum development for languages in education, the ILE was not linked in any structural way to the Further Education Division which manages the Colleges of Education, or to the Advisory Inspectorate which at the time had responsibility for curriculum development, inspection, and policy-driven in-service education.

The major advantage of belonging to the Education Department was that it enabled the ILE to be at the heart of ongoing educational developments in Hong Kong, and to play a major role in the review and implementation of language in education policy. The ILE has therefore been close to the action in a way that it could not have been, had it not been part of the Education Department. The ILE has also had easy access to generous Government resources such as the printing services of Government for all its publications.

It has proved a disadvantage, however, to have to work within a civil service culture which tends to place restrictions on academic freedom. It has been necessary to encourage those brought up in this environment, when posted to the ILE, to work in a team and take and share responsibility, rather than working compartmentally and hierarchically.

A further disadvantage of belonging to the Education Department is that the ILE has had to follow civil service salary levels and staffing procedures. These have made it extremely difficult to attract senior level school staff, whose experience is essential to effective in-service work.

The disadvantages of being structurally separated from the rest of teacher education and from curriculum development, however, have been considerable. It has proved extremely difficult for the language staff of the ILE and Colleges of Education to establish meaningful links, in order to achieve a sense of common purpose, a framework of common concepts, and continuity in pre-service and in-service teacher education. Only in the last few years, through the establishment of a voluntary and loose 'triangulation' cross-institutional framework, have all those concerned with teacher education for English across the ILE, Colleges, Advisory Inspectorate (and later the Curriculum Development Institute) been able to come together. The triangulation' framework for English, however, was very much an ad hoc response to a problem which required a structural solution.

Being separated from the curriculum development part of the Education Department has meant that it has not always been easy over the years for the ILE to contribute expertise to curriculum development work as was the original Government intention. While it has been possible to participate in some of the smaller-scale ongoing developments in Chinese and English as subjects, it has not been possible until recently to bring in the best that is known about learning and about teaching and assessment to support this, or to work on language across the curriculum. The Advisory Inspectorate and the Curriculum Development Institute have tended to operate on a subject-specific basis and there has therefore been little work done on the curriculum as a whole or on language across the curriculum. Since 1989, however, the Target Oriented Curriculum (TOC) initiative has brought about better coordination among Chinese, Maths and English curriculum developers, and between the ILE and curriculum developers in the Education Department. There have been no proper structures, however, to enable the ILE to carry out its curriculum development function effectively.

The fact that the ILE was not structurally integrated within teacher education or within curriculum development has made it difficult for the ILE to bring about many of the much needed changes in teacher education practices and in the design, resourcing and delivery of the curriculum, without which improvements in learning and language learning are impossible.

Within the ILE, the initial structure provided for a Chinese Department, an English Department and an Administration Unit. In 1991 a Research and Development Unit and a Resources and Educational Technology Unit were added. Until the establishment of the ILE Academic Board in 1991, however, there was no internal structure through which a common framework of understanding could be established across the two language departments. The teaching of Chinese as a mother tongue and the teaching of English as a second or foreign language were kept separate. Although the disciplines of education and of applied linguistics have provided common ground through which to bring the two language teaching traditions together, the ILE has found it difficult to develop a common framework to enable teacher educators of both languages to work together in a more systematic and integrative way. Without this, the current fragmentation and incoherence across Chinese and English in language in education in Hong Kong will persist, and language development and cognitive development as a whole among students will continue to suffer. It has, I believe, been recognised within the new HKIEd that there must be a structure and staffing provided that integrate the two departments of Chinese and English, so that each can contribute in its own distinctive way towards effective language development as a whole among teachers and students.

Being a somewhat independent division within the Education Department, the ILE has been able over the years, within the limits set by civil service procedures, to establish its own internal structures and academic style of work. In 1991 the ILE established its own Advisory Committee, made up of school Principals and panel-chairpersons, as an external source of advice and evaluation on ILE work. This committee has begun to provide the critical climate necessary to examine ILE plans and initiatives. The Academic Board plans, monitors and evaluates all academic work. It has a number of committees under it, which take their direction from it and report back to it. These committees cover teacher education courses, research and development work, resourcing, staff development, seminars and in-school support work, and publications. The administrative management of the ILE is now effected through a Management Committee which looks after finance, staffing and departmental organisation, premises, housekeeping, and welfare. All members of staff are members of one committee or another. Communication and a sense of common purpose is achieved through team involvement in academic activities, through the various committees, through social programmes, and by means of a monthly staff meeting.

Teacher education work in the ILE has been structured on a matrix basis since 1991, with teams involved in course planning, coordination, monitoring and evaluation on one axis, and specialist area academic development on the other. All members of staff are involved in both types of activity.

ILE Initiatives

While it is clearly impossible to do justice to all that has gone on in the last twelve years, I shall attempt to describe and evaluate some of the more important initiatives that the ILE has taken or been involved in within each of the macro-functions ascribed to it. I shall attempt to cover:

consultancy work in the area of policy formulation and curriculum development;
teacher education and school support initiatives;
research and development;
resource centre provision;
publication and academic exchange work.

Consultancy Work: Policy Formulation and Curriculum Development

Since its inception the ILE has been seen by Government as a source of advice on language in education matters. It is clearly not the only one, since there are language and language in education specialists in other tertiary institutions, in Colleges of Education and in schools. The ILE, however, by virtue of being a Division of the Education Department, has been in a central position to put forward views. In addition, members of ILE staff have served on a wide range of policy-formulation and curriculum development committees which has enabled them to keep in touch with a wide spectrum of language in education concerns.

While the ILE was able to play a role in the working out of a number of useful language improvement measures, such as the setting up of a modified Expatriate English Teacher Scheme and the development of an Extensive Reading Scheme, its moment of maximum impact on language in education policy formulation occurred in 1988/89 with the setting up of the Education Department's Working Group to review language improvement measures, in which members of the ILE staff were involved. This provided an opportunity not only to review measures focusing on the teaching of Chinese and English as subjects that had been brought in in the 80s, but to go beyond this and address medium of instruction issues as well as those affecting languages as subjects.

While the Working Group's Report (Education Department 1989) did not constitute a Language in Education policy, it set out a new agenda for action with 78 recommendations, the majority of which are now gradually coming into being. It is not possible to refer to them all, but some of the major ones set out the need for:

- a permanent means for effective and coherent long-term planning in language in education, and the establishment of a Language Planning and Research Unit to conduct research on which to base language in education planning;
- upgrading the ILE to tertiary status, so that it could undertake more research and provide qualifications to teachers on in-service courses;
- a new medium of instruction policy to ensure that each student was educated through a medium likely to lead to full achievement of their academic potential, that mixed code was eliminated in favour of the consistent use of Chinese OR English, and that bridging courses were provided to assist appropriate students to move from Chinese-medium to English-medium education at appropriate points;
- a review of language teaching across Chinese and English at Kindergarten and Primary levels;
- a pilot project in a sample of Primary and Secondary schools to participate in the elaboration, teaching and evaluation of a framework of targets and criterion—referenced assessments, drawing schools and teachers into the curriculum development exercise and seconding good teachers to the ILE for materials-production in Chinese and English;
- increasing post-school language learning opportunities;
- establishing minimum language levels in Chinese and English to be met by all student teachers before achieving qualified teacher status, and in Putonghua for teachers of Putonghua;

putting more staff and effort into supporting teachers in school in their efforts to bring about change, and providing more courses for change agents such as Principals and panel-chairpersons;

in-service education to assist teachers to use Chinese or English consistently as medium of instruction.

Education Commission Report No 4 (1990) took up some of these recommendations, and in particular those concerning the medium of instruction, the piloting of targets and assessments and the involvement of teachers in curriculum development to provide the means to work towards them. ECR 6 (forthcoming) is taking up the need for better and more coherent language in education planning based on more research, the need for a systematic review of Kindergarten and Primary language teaching, and the need for minimum standards in languages to be reached by all student teachers before obtaining qualified teacher status. ECR 5 (1992) set the scene for the upgrading of the ILE and the Colleges of Education to tertiary status and recommended that a unit-credit system of qualifications be established for in-service course attenders. Nowhere, as yet, however, is the issue of more and better support for teachers in schools being addressed.

Over the years ILE members of staff have contributed as consultants and working members to a vast number of bodies, committees and working groups. These embrace tertiary institutions' Advisory Committees, Government-appointed bodies, Education and Manpower Branch Committees, Education Department Working Groups and Steering Committees, Hong Kong Examination Authority Committees, Curriculum Development Committees and many others. It is not possible to quantify this work or evaluate it in any meaningful way, but it undoubtedly represents a very important part of the contribution made by ILE staff to language in education and education in general in Hong Kong.

ILE consultancy work has had to address a number of issues. Perhaps the most difficult has been the widespread misperception that all Hong Kong students can attain an equal level in Chinese on the one hand and in English on the other, whether they come through Chinese-medium or English-medium education. This stems from the false notion that students develop Chinese and English in language-as-a-subject classrooms, rather than as a result of experience in language across the curriculum as a whole, which includes language classes. Since students have roughly the same number of lessons in Chinese and English language classes per week, whether they are in Chinese-medium or English-medium schools, it is assumed that they will be able to attain roughly the same level in each language in both types of school. If they do not, it is assumed that there is something wrong with the teaching. The misperception persists, because at present there is much the same overall language experience in Chinese-medium schools as in English-medium schools, owing to the prevalence of Cantonese or mixed code as the normal form of classroom communication in both, and owing to the fact that not much writing is done in Chinese or English in either type of school as a result of the objective formats of Hong Kong examinations. In reality, therefore, where other things are held equal, and where the practices described above are in force, there will not be much difference in student language achievements in Chinese and English across both types of school. However, when **consistent** use of English or Chinese for learning across the curriculum becomes a reality, and when examinations change to require the use of language to construct knowledge in text, the aspiration for equality of achievement in language proficiency in each language in both types of school will be shown to be untenable.

What is needed, I believe, is an understanding that Hong Kong requires citizens with **different** language achievements among Cantonese, Putonghua, written Chinese, English, and other languages. There is no need to aspire to an undifferentiated bilingual profile across Chinese and English for all students. Some will need very high levels of Cantonese and written Chinese, with a basic communicative capacity in English on which they can build later. Others will need a high level of English for academic or business purposes, and good Cantonese and written Chinese skills. Yet others may need good Cantonese and written Chinese skills and good Putonghua, with some English.

What emerges from the ILE experience of being involved in policy-formulation and consultancy work in Hong Kong is that it is necessary for Government to have a more permanent way of formulating and explaining language in education policy, and to have greater consultation with language in education specialists. Up to now, policy has been designed by ad hoc bodies, who may or may not have been given the time to obtain professional advice from specialists in the field. In the last few years, there have been at least four such ad hoc groups set up to review and formulate language in education policy—the Education Department's Working Group set up to review language improvement measures in 1988, the Education Commission responsible for producing Report No 4 in 1990, the Education Commission Working Group on Language Proficiency set up in 1994 to produce ECR 6, and the Language Fund Advisory Committee which has just been set up. Membership of these four groups has been different and any resulting consistency and coherence of advice has been a matter of chance. There is a need for a **permanent advisory body on language in education** which draws on a wide spectrum of interests (both within the community as a whole and among language in education specialists), whose task it would be to keep policy permanently under review in the light of the changing contextual requirements for language development in Hong Kong. This permanent advisory body needs to be able to call on the services of a specialist **Centre for Language in Education**, staffed and equipped to conduct policy-focused research and development work, evaluations and reviews of Government policies. Two such bodies are envisaged in the forthcoming Education Commission

Report on Language Proficiency. They are referred to as the Standing Committee on Language in Education and Research (SCOLAR) and the Centre for Language in Education Research, Innovation and Evaluation (CLERIE).

Teacher Education and School Support Initiatives

As we have seen from the ILE's initial mission statement, the central focus of the ILE's work was to improve the teaching of Chinese and English as subjects through organising in-service courses. It was decided from the outset that all courses should include language and methodology, in order to upgrade the teachers' language proficiency and to improve their professional skills. In 1982, when the ILE opened in temporary premises in Kowloon, the pattern was established whereby 2 × 16 week full-time courses per academic year would be run for various categories of teachers. Subsequently shorter full-time courses and part-time courses were also introduced. Teachers attending full-time courses were replaced in their schools at Government expense, and the courses were free. Full-time courses were eventually recognised as valid for promotion purposes. All of this provided a good incentive for schools to encourage teachers to attend courses and for teachers to volunteer to attend them. Nowhere in the world can there be such a serious and well funded in-service endeavour to improve language teaching. Over the years the range of categories of teachers attending full-time courses has grown, particularly since the ILE moved to more spacious and better premises at 2 Hospital Road in 1990.

The range of full-time courses offered over the years, and the total numbers of teachers who have participated up to July 1994 are as follows:

3,383 Primary teachers of Chinese have followed courses since 1982/83;

2,564 Primary teachers of English have followed courses since 1982/83;

40 Prevocational teachers of English followed special courses in 1984/85 and 1985/86. Prevocational teachers followed courses for Secondary teachers in subsequent years;

812 Secondary teachers of Chinese have followed courses since 1986/87;

850 Secondary teachers of English have followed courses since 1986/87. 835 of these have followed a four week Extension Course in the UK as part of their overall ILE course;

42 Secondary Panel Chairpersons of Chinese followed courses in 1993/94;

173 Secondary Panel Chairpersons of English have followed courses since 1990/91;

54 Secondary teachers using English as a medium of instruction followed a course in 1994.

A number of short part-time courses have been organised. These have focused on Putonghua and on the use of Chinese as a medium of instruction. Part-time Putonghua Language courses have been offered to 3050 teachers since 1986/87. 2,169 teachers have followed Putonghua Methodology courses, and 1,113 have followed a Putonghua Supplementary Course. Part-time courses relating to the use of Chinese as medium of instruction have been offered to 1,531 teachers since 1986/87.

The ILE has sometimes offered courses leading to the Royal Society of Arts Diploma for Overseas Teachers of English. This was the only recognised qualification that ILE participants could receive, but it was never recognised in Hong Kong for promotion or incremental purposes. 113 teachers have been involved in the Diploma course. From 1993/94, however, all Primary courses have become credit-bearing towards the Open Learning Institute's and the Baptist College/SPACE B.Ed degrees. It is hoped in the next few years to put all courses on credit-bearing status towards B.Ed and M.Ed degrees.

With the launch of the ILE's Vocational English Programme, and the establishment of a post for teacher education to support the Programme, the ILE is also ready to provide for the teacher education needs of the adult vocational language learning sector. With the establishment of a Division for Early Childhood Education in the new HKIEd, it is hoped that courses in early language development will also soon be offered.

Thus from a modest start in 1982/83, in which in-service teacher education for Primary teachers of languages was undertaken, the ILE has grown to encompass primary, secondary and adult in-service teacher education, and to cover not only language teachers but all teachers across the curriculum at school level.

In addition to organising courses, the ILE has organised a large number of whole day and half-day seminars and in-school support sessions on a wide range of topics. These have become increasingly popular over the years. In the 1993/94 year 25 seminars were offered by the English Department to 1,200 teachers and principals of schools, and 9 seminars were offered to some 450 teachers and principals by the Chinese Department. The English Department also ran 3 in-school support sessions on English as the medium of instruction. It seems likely through TOC that more and more responsibility will be given to schools to develop their own curriculum within given frameworks and guidelines. This implies developing a flexible school-based in-service capacity to respond to the particular needs of individual schools or groups of schools.

Initially the ILE was asked to run courses for language teachers in Primary schools, and then to extend these to non-graduate language teachers in Secondary schools. This runs contrary to experiential wisdom, which indicates that if one wishes to bring about sustainable change in schools, one should start with 'change agents' who are in the strongest position to bring this about, ie those in charge of the curriculum or that part of the curriculum where change is to be made, ie principals and panel-chairpersons, form-coordinators and teachers in charge of Chinese and English. School structures in Hong Kong are still very hierarchical, and the inevitable consequence of running courses for teachers with little authority over what happens is that on return to their schools they may be unable to bring about the required changes, particularly if these challenge school routines and schemes of work. Had priority on the earlier courses been given to panel chairpersons and others in charge of the curriculum, some of the changes needed in schools might have taken root earlier.

Another problem was that no structure or staffing was provided within the ILE for following-up in-service work in schools, or for responding adequately to school requests for in-school support. A staff-student ratio was applied on the basis of the number of teachers attending courses. This did not take into account the need for follow-up work. The best that the ILE was able to do was to attempt to visit each participant once on return to school. Even this has not always proved possible. Had it been possible to deploy staffing more systematically on follow-up work, fewer teachers would have been able to attend courses, but much more might have been done to make the teaching and learning of languages in school more effective.

It is impossible to attempt anything more than a sketchy evaluation of the ILE's teacher education work. The only forms of evidence that we have to go on are the results of evaluation efforts on particular aspects of ILE work that have been carried out during and after courses over the years.

An evaluation survey conducted in 1990 among 120 Principals of secondary schools, whose teachers had participated on ILE English courses was extremely positive. Some of the findings were as follows:

> 95% of the Principals stated that their teachers' English had improved noticeably. Comments centred on gains in fluency and confidence, and in pronunciation;
>
> 92% of the Principals stated that their teachers had extended their repertoire of language teaching strategies and practices. 87% stated that their teachers had made use of authentic video, taped or written material. 87% had noticed that their teachers were making an effort through systematic action research to address a problem of concern to them;
>
> 93% of the Principals felt that their teachers had greater motivation and enthusiasm in school than before the course. Some commented that their teachers were contributing more to school activities.
>
> Overall evaluation of Chinese courses has generally indicated:
>
> a feeling that the courses were useful, interesting and practical;
>
> the course content was geared to participant needs;

that teachers were able to use many of the teaching strategies and techniques which they had learnt on course in the classroom;

that the learning of Putonghua was particularly useful.

Overall evaluation by participants of English courses has generally shown the following:

at the end of the course participants feel more confident in their use of English and in their capacity to use English consistently in the classroom;

they feel that they have upgraded their knowledge about language teaching and feel confident at being able to put some of it into practice;

they feel that they have learnt how to conduct investigative and small-scale action research, though some are a bit doubtful as to whether they will be allowed to engage in such work once back at school;

they understand the concepts and practices highlighted in the Target Oriented Curriculum initiative but see difficulties in putting some of them into practice;

they have benefited a great deal from the opportunity to discuss and exchange views and experiences with other participants and with tutors.

In a 1989 survey conducted among 92 non-graduate secondary teachers of English who had completed ILE courses and were back in schools, 75% claimed to be using more English in the classroom than before. 72% claimed to be using more pair and group work. Over 50% claimed to be asking more real questions, encouraging students to initiate conversation and carry out short information-gap tasks. However, rather few (less than 30%) were able to use 'deep-end' approach activities or large-scale simulations. This survey seemed to confirm that the sort of activity that involved any major alteration to the existing scheme of work was not always possible. 50% stated that lack of support in school had constrained their efforts to transfer some of the ideas gained on courses to the classroom, while 67% felt that the syllabus/school scheme of work had prevented them from doing so (Clark 1989). Similar findings emerged from the various reports of the FUST (Follow Up Support Team) project which provided support to Primary participants on return to school (Lai 1990).

In the limited field of improving the overall teaching of Chinese and English there seems little doubt that a great deal has been achieved by the ILE, particularly in equipping a huge number of teachers of Chinese and English with the knowledge and skills to develop and deliver a more task-centred, target-orientated curriculum in their schools.

In the medium of instruction area it is too early to judge the efficacy of the ILE's Chinese and English as medium of instruction courses. It has, however, been a fascinating learning experience, both for tutors trained in language teaching and for subject teachers of mathematics, science etc with little or no awareness of the role of language in learning, to work together to diagnose problems, find possible solutions to them, and then try them out in the classroom (Hoare, in this Volume).

Research and Development

Since 1993 the ILE has had a Research and Development Unit with three members of staff dedicated to carrying out policy—focused research work, and supporting other projects undertaken by individuals and groups within the ILE.

From the outset the ILE has engaged in four major forms of research and development work as follows:

It has undertaken a number of Government-funded programmes or projects designed as language improvement measures;

It has carried out or managed a number of policy-driven research and development projects funded by the HongkongBank Language Development Fund;

Staff of the ILE have engaged individually or in groups in a great deal of interest-based research and development as part of their professional work;

Participants on courses have been supported to carry out investigative, developmental and small-scale action research projects.

In the category of Government-funded language improvement research and development work, the ILE has been involved in the following:

preparing, piloting, running and supporting the English Extensive Reading Scheme, which is currently being used by 108 Secondary schools with 30 added to that number each year. The scheme will be extended to Primary schools in 1995;

preparing and piloting a Chinese Extensive Reading Scheme which is expected to be launched shortly by the Education Department;

evaluating the Modified Expatriate English Language Teachers Scheme;

preparing, piloting and launching the Hong Kong Vocational English Programme designed to support and assure the quality of courses organised in approved vocational training centres, with certification currently provided by the London Chamber of Commerce and Industry.

As a result of the concern felt by the business community in Hong Kong over poor standards of English, the HongkongBank Language Development Fund donated the sum of HK$20m to support the ILE in the carrying out or managing of a number of research and development projects designed to support the recommendations in ECR 4. An account of the work of the HKLDF has been written up in the HongkongBank Language Development Fund Work Report (Hongkong Bank Foundation, 1993). Detailed Research

Reports are available from the Librarian of the ILE. There were 8 projects, in which ILE staff and many others outside the ILE participated, as follows:

A Medium of Instruction Grouping Assessment Project which investigated and set out criteria to underpin assessment procedures designed to identify which students were likely to learn effectively through the medium of English;

An S1 Bridging Programme project which involved the production of materials by Longman for a bridging course in the first term of S1, to assist appropriate students to move from Chinese-medium Primary education to English-medium Secondary education. The Longman Bridging Course will be available for schools to use in September 1994. A teacher education package for use in schools has been prepared by the British Council and distributed to schools;

A Target Oriented Curriculum project which involved research into learning and how best to support this through teaching and assessing, and into curriculum development in other contexts. A cross-curricular framework of concepts and suggested procedures for the development of a target-oriented curriculum was devised; and learning targets, learning tasks, programmes of study, assessment guidelines, bands of performance and reporting procedures for English as a subject have been developed in cooperation with the Education Department;

A project which revealed and spread good learning strategies used by students in the upper forms of Hong Kong Secondary schools;

A project which set out language proficiency descriptions at different levels and minimum language requirements to be met by teachers of Putonghua, and which examined current standards of Putonghua teachers. Recommendations for courses and materials and for changes to the way Putonghua is taught and examined in schools were also made;

A project which set out minimum English Language requirements to be met by student teachers of English and by those wishing to teach through the medium of English before achieving qualified teacher status. These will form the basis for standards to be met in the new Certificate in Education courses in the HKIEd. Recommendations for courses and assessments were also made;

A project which investigated and described the gap between the English of school leavers and the English required in the workplace, with suggestions for course content to bridge the gap. The findings have underpinned course material production and the development of the Vocational English Programme;

A project which investigated the gap between the English of Technical Institute graduates and the English needed in the workplaces they entered. Communication Profiles were sketched for major job sectors and recommendations were made as to how to improve English teaching in the Technical Institutes.

There has been an imbalance in favour of English in the funding provided by Government and the private sector for improving language standards. There has been little recognition of the fact that English as a second/foreign language grows on the roots of Chinese as a mother tongue, and that improvements to the teaching of Chinese are not only essential in their own right, but may have a beneficial knock-on effect on standards of English too. It is to be hoped that a more balanced way of funding language research and development work can now be devised. It will be the task of the recently established Language Fund Advisory Committee to determine the criteria by which to judge the merits of bids for language improvement projects in the future. It is hoped that an integrative view of language development and of how to improve it will be taken, where there is concern for all of the following, albeit prioritised in terms of the effect each can exert:

Chinese as a medium, Chinese as a subject, Putonghua within Chinese as a subject, English as a subject, English as a medium;

Kindergarten, Primary, Secondary, Tertiary, Adult Vocational, Teacher Education, and the Learning Environment outside 'school'.

It is not possible to include all the many individual and group research and development projects undertaken by ILE staff over the years. Some of the more important ones, however, have included:

Standardisation of the written-type of commonly used Chinese characters;

A study on the Cantonese pronunciation of commonly used Chinese characters;

Error analysis of the Chinese writing of upper primary pupils;

The effectiveness of different degrees of mediation between text and reader in the reading of professional articles on teacher education courses;

The ILE Exchange Bank (Swapshop) of teacher-produced materials for English in lower secondary forms.

There are currently about 20 research and development projects being undertaken by individuals and groups in the ILE, and bids for a large number of further projects have been submitted to the Language Fund Advisory Committee.

Last, but by no means least, are the vast number of small-scale investigative, developmental and action research projects (about 670 in

Chinese and about 761 in English) completed by ILE participants over the years while on courses. These bear witness in the most practical way possible to the call for an 'enquiry' approach (Bickley 1986). Projects have ranged over many topics such as trying to make reading more interesting by using newspapers in the classroom, exploring Chinese characters, trying to integrate language skills through preparing and conducting interviews among tourists and writing up reports (eg The Peak Project), trying to diagnose and address medium of instruction problems through integrating the teaching of English and the teaching of Social Studies, exploring Chinese proverbs and poetry etc. These projects are housed in the ILE's Teaching Resource Centre. They provide a treasure trove of useful ideas, all of which have been tried out in the Hong Kong context. They also provide powerful evidence of the extraordinary capacity of Hong Kong's language teachers for innovative thinking and creative work when supported and given time to do such work.

Resource Centre Provision

Until the ILE was moved to 2 Hospital Road in 1990 it was impossible to house a proper Resource Centre. Thanks to generous funding from the Hong Kong Language Campaign and some additional funding from Government, the ILE established a new Resources and Educational Technology Unit in 1990. This has been further developed over the last three years and now embraces a library, study and word-processing rooms, self-access language improvement facilities (a video laboratory, a language laboratory, listening and speaking facilities, computer-assisted language learning facilities etc), a computer network, video and audio studios, and a Teaching Resource Centre which is open to all teachers of languages in Hong Kong. The ILE self-access language improvement centre was one of the first to be established in Hong Kong, and forms part of a network of such centres which are burgeoning in all tertiary institutions. The Teaching Resource Centre is by far the largest and most used in Hong Kong and provides materials for teachers to borrow, copy (where permitted) and use in schools. In addition to this the ILE, through its Resources development staff, has acted on a regular basis as a consultant to schools to assist them to build up their own stock of resources and equipment for language learning. Given the current move towards schools managing their own budgets and their own resources, it is crucial that this sort of consultancy service be further developed.

In the years to come it is hoped to expand the services offered, through setting up a computer-assisted network with schools, or tapping into an existing one such as the TeleNex facility pioneered by the University of Hong Kong's Department of Curriculum Studies with the aid of Hongkong Telecom Foundation.

Publication and Academic Exchange Work

The ILE has engaged in academic debate both inside and outside Hong Kong, through conference attendance, paper presentations and publication. It has produced a large number of books, journals, handbooks, research reports, and newsletters, which are available from the Librarian in ILE. These have targeted fellow professionals in the field of teacher education and language in education.

The ILE Journal was launched in 1985/86. It will perhaps continue under a new name within the Hong Kong Institute of Education. The ILE Journal targets teacher educators, language specialists and teachers, and contains articles by ILE staff, ILE participants, College of Education staff and other teacher educators in Hong Kong.

A series of ILE Handbooks was launched in 1986/87. Fourteen of these have been written and distributed to every school. Some are available for purchase as Government publications. They are written specifically for schools and teachers, have a practical bias, and have covered a wide range of topics. In addition, ILE staff have been involved in a number of joint publications with the Advisory Inspectorate staff in recent years.

In 1985 the ILE launched a series of International Conferences on Language in Education, which have given rise to books of Conference Proceedings published through the Government Printer. The conferences undoubtedly helped to put the ILE on the international map of contributors to debate on language in education, and there is now considerable interest in other countries in what is going on in Hong Kong in the areas of medium of instruction, target-oriented language learning, reading and writing development, self-access learning etc. The annual conferences have also enabled teacher educators, language specialists and in recent years large numbers of teachers of Chinese and English to exchange ideas and information with participants from some 25 countries. Since 1993 the conferences have been run on a joint basis with the Department of Curriculum Studies of the University of Hong Kong and the Hong Kong Association for Applied Linguistics. This year the English Centre of the University of Hong Kong has also become involved. The conference now looks to have a permanent and secure niche in the educational calendar in Hong Kong and is known as the International Language in Education Conference (ILEC). The ILE's organisational role will be taken over by the Hong Kong Institute of Education.

In 1992/93 the ILE launched a Newsletter, originally devised to keep past participants of ILE Courses in touch with each other and with ILE events. The Newsletter, however, is now circulated to all schools and provides up-to-date information on all that is going on. Already six issues have been produced.

Finally, ILE Annual Reports have been produced since its opening for those who wish to follow the details of what was done over the years.

The Future

It is clear that despite all the excellent work achieved through the various functions performed by the ILE, language standards as a whole in school and in the community have not improved. Nevertheless, standards in Chinese as a subject have been maintained, according to the evidence from Hong Kong Attainment Tests (HKAT) and from the Hong Kong Examinations Authority (HKEA), in spite of the fact that 85% or more of schools have used mixed medium and mixed code rather than consistent Chinese as the medium of instruction, and in spite of the fact that examinations in content subjects across the curriculum have not encouraged writing, since they do not require students to construct their knowledge in text. Overall standards in English as a subject have also been maintained, as measured in HKAT and in HKEA results, despite greatly reduced exposure to English in the home as a result of the rise of Cantonese pop culture, and despite the replacement of English by Cantonese and mixed-code as the normal medium of spoken instruction in most schools. Both of these facts indicate strongly that there has been considerable improvement in the teaching of Chinese and English as subjects to counteract the effect of the decline in the consistent use of both languages as the means to construct and express knowledge across the curriculum.

It has been argued in this article that the failure to bring about improvements in overall language standards is a direct result of the limited policy decisions taken at the time of the setting up of the ILE and pursued until recently. The more integrative approach recommended in 1989, with its call for more effective use of language in learning across the curriculum and minimum requirements in language proficiency to be met by all student teachers amongst other things, is only just beginning to work its way into the various parts of the educational system. It will take quite some time before the results begin to show.

The ILE experience has shown that sustained change in schools cannot be brought about through centralised in-service education courses alone. It requires, amongst other things, a proper integration of pre-service and in-service work, of follow-up and in-school support work, and of curriculum and assessment (including examinations) renewal, all moving in the same direction with the same underlying common purposes and concepts. Education is a systemic activity within which language education is a sub-system. The failure to create integrative structures that ensure commonality of purpose and effective interrelationships among the important parts of the system is the single most inhibiting factor in bringing about improvements in education. As with all other systems, the education system as a whole can only be as strong as its weakest part. A good curriculum is rendered ineffective in the hands of poor teachers, and good teachers can do little when schools are not well managed or when the curriculum or the examinations are poorly conceived.

Within its own area of responsibility, the HKIEd, which will inherit the experiential wisdom built up in the ILE and the Colleges, has the freedom and the potential so to structure its teacher education work that there is effective integration of pre-service, in-service, and in-school support work; of Chinese and English; of language as a subject and language as a medium; and of early childhood, primary, secondary and adult phases of language development. If such integration is brought about by means of a careful structural design with adequate staffing provision, with each part able to operate within a logic of its own and in interrelationship with other parts, and if curriculum and examinations development is also structurally integrated with teacher development, then there is real hope that the language problem in Hong Kong can be effectively addressed and the positive achievements of the ILE taken forward.

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PRE-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION: WHAT SHOULD IT ACHIEVE?

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One of the most important functions of a pre-service teacher education course must be to provide the foundations upon which all future learning will be built. It is at the beginning of their studies that prospective teachers need to recognise that teacher education is not static but is a continuum of learning (Fullan, 1992: 115). Pre-service student teachers are, therefore, not embarking on a brief two or three year course but are committing themselves to a lifetime of inservice and personal study programmes.

Administrators and subject specialists are rightly concerned with determining the structure, relative content and time allocations of prospective courses for pre-service teachers. The complexity of these matters along with the conflicting demands made by each specialism for the limited time available leaves few opportunities for consideration of the kind of beginning teacher which it is assumed that these courses will produce. The changes which it is anticipated will be brought about in student teachers as a result of a pre-service teacher education programme may be a part of the course planning process which, initially at least, is under-emphasised. It is this issue with which the present paper is concerned. The areas of change to be examined include students' knowledge and understanding of themselves, their knowledge and understanding of children; the depth of their subject knowledge and their knowledge and ability to apply the skills of teaching.

The first section of the paper will outline some problems common to teacher education generally. Section two will look at issues specifically relevant to teacher education in Hong Kong. In section three some characteristics of the beginning student will be discussed, and section four will examine some of the changes a pre-service teacher education programme will require of the 'becoming teacher'.

1 General Problems in Teacher Education

The number of elements which touch upon teaching is very great, and many of them are beyond the control of the teacher (Allwright, 1977). The following three conflicting situations, which are discussed below, affect most aspects of teacher education: (1) whether to emphasise a specific subject-focused micro-level approach to teaching as opposed to a more generalised macro-level stance (Richards,1987); (2) the conflict between the natural human endowments for learning as opposed to culturally

1641

engendered and promoted learning procedures (Edelhoff, 1993) and (3) the probable effects of socio-political constraints which are likely to be imposed on teachers and education systems.

(a) A Micro Versus a Macro Approach

The difficulty of reconciling micro-level aspects of teaching with more holistic macro-level approaches is noted by Richards (1987) who comments that micro approaches, in the past, focused on specific teacher characteristics but have recently been concerned with teachers' actual classroom behaviours.

Macro approaches, in contrast, direct attention to global methodological concerns which pertain to the whole classroom context. Reconciling these two inputs and determining the relative weighting of each is a complex issue as content from both areas must be included in any teaching programme. These factors are further complicated by the degree to which subject teaching as opposed to generalist teaching is to be emphasised, an issue which frequently generates much heat.

What is germane to this paper, however, is not identifying the characteristics or behaviours of individual teachers and attempting to incorporate those which appear to be successful into teacher education programmes. The intention here is to look at the kind of beginning students who are selected for pre-service courses and to determine how best to equip them to teach intelligently.

Fundamental to this process, as Sarason (1993) emphasises, is the need for better preparatory programmes not only for teachers but also for teacher educators and administrators. As he points out, trying to repair schools will not prevent problems in education from accumulating. McIntyre (1987) stresses the importance of 'strong alliances between schools and universities,' while Rudduck (1992) urges schools, teacher colleges and universities to abandon their 'traditional mythologies about each other . . . respect each others' strengths and learn to work together for 'professional survival' and, one might add, for the benefit of the students. If those actions are taken, the concept of teacher education as a continuum of learning which lasts for the entire career of the teacher (Fullan, 1992:120), rather than the series of uncoordinated and unrelated stages which it too often becomes, has some chance of developing.

(b) Genetics Versus Culture

A second impasse is often evident, particularly in EFL situations, where western discipline-related, psychological, educational and pedagogical approaches (MacLaughlin, 1987; Stern, 1983; Entwistle, 1981; Gardner, 1987; Spolsky, 1989) come into conflict with culturally engendered procedures and processes of learning.

In essence this is the typical nature/nurture dichotomy. Although human beings are genetically endowed with a specific potential for learning which initially is neither culturally nor ethnically determined, the cultural and environmental shaping of this potential is expressed and nurtured in diverse ways by different ethnic groups.

Many Asian societies promote forms of learning and teaching which vary considerably from procedures now advocated in most western countries (Edelhoff, 1993). China's academic heritage was founded partly on the tradition of the Civil Service Examination which demanded prodigious feats of memorisation from its scholars. Therefore, it is not surprising that the view expressed by one former Hong Kong headmaster that 'Western education is a luxury for us' and these methods 'are not our ways' (Laine, 1990), is still evident in some sections of the population. Hong Kong educationalists may agree that memorisation and rote repetition are inadequate approaches to teaching and learning if understanding is not involved. However, such procedures continue to flourish in the Territory.

The huge cognitive demands made of children learning to read and write in Chinese still depend upon, and encourage reliance on, rote learning. Since all language teaching requires students to learn a new system of communication, memorisation appears to be a necessary skill. Although local educational professionals may no longer subscribe to the metaphor which equates teaching with *fattening ducks*, it is still applied in many primary schools and the essential element of understanding which empowers learners by enabling them to control and use their new learning is often disregarded.

Another constraint placed on teachers stems from the conviction held by some EFL practitioners that learning a language involves cognitive processes which differ from those on which all other human learning is based. This has prevented the ELT field from benefitting as much as it should from advances in mainstream educational research. The narrowly conceived framework within which language teaching has been confined has been noted (Nunan, 1988:16; Richards, 1984). It may be time to decide if traditional approaches to teaching and learning, which have sometimes been based on personal beliefs unsupported by research, still offer the most effective way to proceed in the 1990s, or if it is time to resist the adoption of 'armchair' theories and insist on empirical backing before new measures are implemented.

(c) The Socio-Political Context

Traditional views also affect this third controlling influence on pre-service education. Not only the cultural context but also social, political and economic factors pertaining to local conditions continue to affect any educational policies likely to be adopted.

Yu (1987) outlines the changes to which language education in Hong Kong has been subjected during the past century and traces the causes underlying measures which were adopted in the past. In the present situation pragmatic factors are further interlocked with pride in Chinese culture and the desire to promote ethnic traditions. Economic considerations, on the one hand, may support English as the current language of international trade and business while on the other, culture and political ideologies uphold more traditional educational practices.

Favouring a western approach to teacher education Barrow (1984), for example, argues cogently for teacher autonomy to be built in to Teacher Education Programmes within the constraints of the curriculum. In many societies the western notion of education as a means of producing independent, free-thinking, critical adults is far removed from the ideal. An acceptable prototype even in modern Hong Kong might aim to promote conformity and obedience to authority, producing citizens who respect law and order, abide by rules and regulations, and generally subscribe to the status quo. These concerns are central to education courses of all kinds and emphasise the fact that educational measures generated in one time or place may be quite unsuitable for implementation in another.

2 The Hong Kong Context

It is evident from section I above that the Hong Kong educational context shares many of the problems which plague teacher education generally. However, in addition it has a few which are uniquely its own. Among the most complex and difficult to resolve are: (1) the strong educational grounds for promoting mother tongue teaching in the primary school (Lord, 1987) and (2) the need to attract high quality students into the teaching profession.

(a) Language

Foremost among issues unique to Hong Kong is the problem of language. Lord's (1987) persuasive arguments for using Chinese as the medium of instruction in Hong Kong primary schools are countered by the continuing advocacy of English as the medium of instruction in tertiary institutions.

English, however, receives very little support outside the classroom (Lord, 1987). Despite its widespread availability, the opportunities offered via print and sound media in Hong Kong are seldom used to advantage (MacLennan, 1991). Problems such as these are likely to become more serious after 1997 if the demand for Putonghua increases.

(b) Selection Procedures

The need to attract high quality students into the teaching profession is set against the relatively poor working conditions, low financial rewards and limited promotional prospects offered to teachers in comparison with conditions available in private sector occupations.

This latter point leads to the following unresolved situation where raising entry level requirements for acceptance into teacher education programmes would result in a reduction in the number of prospective applicants. Many students who apply to become teachers are those who, by their own admission (MacLennan, 1994), may choose teaching only because they have failed to obtain a place in another tertiary institution. If the entry level for Colleges of Education is raised to that required for university, unsuccessful university applicants will not be eligible. Until the status of teachers and conditions in the profession become more attractive few students will opt for a Teacher Education Programme if a university place is offered to them.

3 The Beginning Student

The typical pre-service student teacher has recently emerged from Form 5 or Form 7 after 12 or more years of schooling. Increasing their knowledge of the world beyond Hong Kong and broadening their perspectives about the social, political or cultural issues of other countries will be an important part of the in-college maturing process.

(a) Reasons for Becoming a Teacher

Leaving aside the case of prospective teachers who are spurred to teach by ethically questionable religious zeal, it must be acknowledged that many students enter Colleges of Education inadequately motivated to succeed in a career as demanding and challenging as teaching. This diffidence occurs because poor exam results deny them entry to other educational institutions perceived as more prestigious.

(b) The Tabula Rasa Myth

An important function of a pre-service course should be to tap into the often negative attitudinal base (Pennington, 1990) on which individual prospective teachers are building their approaches to teaching and learning. Despite their limited experience students may cling to preconceived ideas, opinions and prejudices about education, learning, teaching and young children. Becoming aware of the screening mechanisms they activate to filter out discrepant or disturbing information can ensure students build their new learning on a sound foundation.

(c) Inadequate Concepts of Education

The backwash effect of Hong Kong's exam-oriented education system is far reaching indeed since it often unwittingly encourages new student teachers to view education as no more than a vehicle for passing tests and examinations. From this impoverished perception learning is seen as a set of techniques which produces high passing grades, and teaching is seen as a function required solely to achieve favourable exam results. Sadly, even at the tertiary level, students' often consider obtaining a certificate stating that they have passed a course and are qualified as the sole aim of their own commitment to learning.

(d) Successful Teaching and Self-Image

Young teachers, who feel closer to their pupils in age and outlook than to their older established colleagues, often mistakenly equate success in teaching with being liked rather than with actually helping children to learn. They must learn to view hostility, apparently directed at them, as an indicator of a child's emotional state rather than a measure of their own success or failure as teachers, and in a short 2-3 year period these recent school leavers, who have for years competed for the attention of one teacher, must learn the demanding task of responding maturely to the often conflicting needs of rather large groups of children.

4 The Becoming Teacher

Section III has outlined some of the more negative traits beginning students may possess which course designers would do well to consider. An effective pre-service teacher education programme should harness drive and enthusiasm where it exists but also stimulate an enthusiasm for teaching when it is lacking.

(a) The Teacher as Technician

The task of preparing young students to become effective teachers is a complex one which is compounded by the relatively low status conferred on the teaching profession. Politicians, civil servants and administrators in Hong Kong have, in the past, contributed to the perpetuation of the technician approach to teacher education (Tang, 1994; Garrison, 1988; Shulman, 1986) by attempting to programme students who fail to reach standards high enough for acceptance into other professions to become primary school teachers.

The major aim of education, to bring about change in individuals by the imparting of knowledge, skills and techniques, is often set aside or forgotten in Hong Kong where so-called success in examinations is frequently regarded as the end-point of any academic endeavour. Knowledge should be allied to commitment, pragmatism tempered by idealism, and apathy translated into energy.

(b) Reconstructing Knowledge

One of the functions of primary school education is (Donaldson, 1973:140; Mussen et al. 1990:273; Halliday, 1993) to reconstruct the unconscious in order to make what is known subconsciously available for conscious thought, and therefore able to be manipulated. Pre-service teacher education fulfils a similar role by helping pre-service student teachers to reflect upon their own experiences of education and to engage in the process of critical thought (Pennington, 1990; McIntyre, 1987:103). Reconstructing knowledge also involves being prepared to accept on trust teaching which may not seem immediately applicable confident that its relevance will become apparent in the future (MacLennan, 1992: 223-224).

(c) Knowledge of Education

Knowledge of education requires pre-service student teachers to understand what is currently known about the human learning process and to resist the impulse to close their minds when comforting folklore is challenged by disturbing new concepts.

The current promotion of *Reflective Teaching* and support for *Action Research* are likely to help bring about these changes in perception. These are not new initiatives (Tang, 1994) but have recently been re-launched in the Hong Kong ELT field (Cruickshank, 1981; Bartlett, 1990; Nunan, 1990) and are part of The Task Group for Curriculum Planning's proposed Teachers' Certificate Curriculum (Lo, 1994).

One of the major advantages of an action research/ reflective practice approach (Tang, 1994; Elliot, 1991; Rudduck & Hopkins, 1985; Hopkins, 1985) is that it initiates pre-service teachers into the role of *reflective practitioner* rather than preparing them to become simply technicians of education. The limited concept which confined the teacher's role to that of technician has, in the past, produced teachers who were required to do little more than dispense prescribed pedagogical formulae.

(d) Teacher versus Technician

Barrow (1984) argues convincingly for incorporating into teacher education the means for teachers to exercise increased autonomy within a given curriculum framework. This is essential since there are likely to be 'legitimately different answers to each potential teaching decision depending on the particular child in its particular context' (Barrow, 1984: 263). Pre-service teacher education, therefore, should prepare teachers to be intelligent decision-makers instead of attempting to control their behaviour with rigid formulae or strictly defined teaching prescriptions. Such procedures need not conflict with political doctrines or cultural mores. Moreover, teachers who are intelligent decision-makers are likely to provide most effectively and economically for students' needs within whatever confines they are set.

The proposed Target-Oriented Curriculum is likely to help students adapt their teaching more skilfully to children's needs and at the same time encourage children to become more responsible for their own learning.

It is to be hoped that reflective teachers of the future will be skilled decision makers and welcome the autonomy which a more modern education system will encourage. It with the pre-service student teacher, however, that this change process must begin.

(e) Knowledge of Children

First year student teachers not only have impoverished concepts of education and the learning/teaching processes, their knowledge of children's behaviour is also understandably limited. This initial lack of information has sometimes been compounded because adult methods of

English language teaching have too often been applied in the primary school with little adaptation. Teacher education courses designed for adults address concerns entirely different from those of consequence to teachers of young children. Children do not think like adults. The damaging result is that attempts are made to teach concepts in English which have not yet been established in the mother tongue. It is essential, as Clark (1994) points out, that the teaching of English should 'grow on the roots of Chinese' recognising, developing and complementing what has been established in the mother tongue. It is equally important that teachers become aware of those concepts which are *not* yet likely to constitute stable learning in the mother tongue for a particular group of children.

Teaching primary age children is a highly specialised task and not one that can be derived from courses designed for adults. English language courses for adults have in the past been based on a series of teaching *methods* rather than on psychologically derived theories of learning and teaching. The technology of these 'methods' which include, *grammar-translation, audio-lingual, oral-structural, notional-functional* and even the currently favoured *communicative approach* (Richards & Rodgers, 1986) has often been applied to small children who are still developmentally unready to cope with either the abstract concepts or the volume of learning required of them. Each of these approaches has been acclaimed for a time until its weaknesses (even with adults) have become apparent or the emergence of the next method has consigned it to obscurity. The *communicative approach* still favoured by language professionals has never been popular at the chalk face in Hong Kong. Local teachers rightly complained that (a) the method was launched without the material back-up essential to support it and (b) their brief was (and still is) to get pupils through examinations which, rightly or wrongly, may have little to do with *communicative* aims. Moreover, the assumptions on which the idea of functions and forms used in the teaching of language to adults is based, and the limitations of this approach, are pointed out and discussed by Spolsky (1985; 1987). In addition, one may have difficulty, for example, in finding any substantial empirical evidence that this still practised procedure provides young learners with an effective means of improving their English.

The teaching of structures and/or functions is often highly abstract. New teachers too often believe they have successfully taught a structure or function if their pupils can repeat or apply it in a given context. A pre-service course should ensure that new teachers understand the weaknesses in this form of assessment and learn how to evaluate their pupils' levels of conceptual understanding in ways which do not include paper and pencil tests or the repeating of rote-learned formulaic language. This conceptual knowledge, which is much more than a matter of 'simple maturation' (Barrow, 1984: 263), must be based on our understanding of how 'children only gradually acquire the ability to handle abstract concepts and to see relationships as adults do.

The teaching of language to adults is a specialist function; the teaching of language to primary school children is a *uniquely different* specialism. A pre-service teacher education programme for primary age children should aim to ensure that teachers' tasks and activities in the class will realistically match the children's cognitive and developmental levels (Lo, 1994).

(f) Concept Development

English language teaching in the primary school includes many concepts which involve abstract thought. Some conceptual areas commonly encountered in primary language classrooms are: *colour, size, shape, number, time, length, breadth, height, weight, position, direction, distance, body parts, animal categories, family members and occupations.*

Clearly, many of these concepts, time, size and distance, for example, are not well established even in the child's first language since it takes repeated exposure over considerable periods of time for concept formation to take place. This means that children are required to learn new sets of sound and print symbols for concepts which are still only vaguely accessible to them through the sound and print symbols available to them in, for example, Cantonese. For every new word in English a child is introduced to s/he has to learn at least 20 separate pieces of information, a figure which does not include the matching and associating processes required to link the English symbols with the Chinese.

Although it is true that any ability when analysed may appear to become dauntingly complex, as Table 1 below shows, this does not lessen the difficulty of the tasks with which children are being confronted.

Table 1. *Elements involved in concept learning.*

	Sound	*Object*	*Picture*	*Print*	*Concept*
Sound	—	X	X	X	X
Object	X	—	X	X	X
Picture	X	X	—	X	X
Print	X	X	X	—	X
Concept	X	X	X	X	—

Table 1 indicates how pupils must learn new print, sound and picture symbols for each new word that is taught.

Two points are relevant here, the first is that each symbol (print, sound and picture) for each word represents a separate skill to be learned and assessed for understanding. Matching *print* and *sound*, for example, is clearly not the same as matching *sound* with *print*. Matching *sound* with *picture* is not calling up the same learning skills as is matching *picture* with *sound*.

The second point is that children, like adults, are only capable of learning a finite number of items at one time (Miller, 1956), a fact that student teachers seldom consider. Activities based on the following (learning) processes contribute to the development of the key concepts taught in the primary school. These processes include: recognising, listing, ordering, sequencing, numbering, placing, reversing, comparing, matching, discriminating, contrasting, including and excluding. Many language tasks and classroom activities are based on these processes although language students and teachers don't always recognise the complex nature of the tasks they are setting.

In addition to the vocabulary and language structures to be taught the concepts on which the lesson content depends and the processes through which learning is to take place cannot be left to chance. Cognitive skills in children are much more domain specific than is often realised (Mussen, et al. 1990: 288). Experience suggests that this domain specificity is also common in students for they seldom automatically transfer their learning from courses which they take in one discipline—Education for example—and apply it in another,—Language Teaching, for example. Links of this nature should be emphasised in pre-service language courses because the two disciplines usually remain as compartmentalised in students' minds as they are separated physically in the institutions which teach them.

Similarly, the links between children's developmental stages and learning theories also need to be clearly spelled out so students know how to incorporate into their lesson plans these five elements: 1. Children's stages of development; 2. Language items to be taught; 3. The concepts behind the target language items; 4. Appropriate learning theories and 5. Learning processes for tasks and activities.

These issues emphasise the need for close cooperation and coordination between different departments and disciplines. Cooperation between Education and Language faculties, for example, would enable a direct link-up to be made between courses such as those on language and learning which have interdisciplinary applications.

(g) Teaching Methodologies

Young teachers need to become thoroughly acquainted with the theoretical backgrounds upon which different methodological approaches are based. This not only provides new teachers with a sound educational rationale for what they are doing in their classrooms, but also ensures that they do not revert to a style of teaching similar to that by which they were taught (Wragge, 1974; Britten, 1985:114). The everyday pressures and frustrations of life in school frequently tempt beginning teachers to abandon their new learning in favour of older styles of teaching which may appear to be immediately more expedient. Continuing in-school support for new teachers could help to alleviate this problem.

Conclusions

What then are the functions a pre-service teacher education course should achieve? This paper has suggested that a central but neglected focus of pre-service education programmes may be the actual students for whom the course is being designed.

Determining course structures, outlining course prescriptions and selecting course content are essential elements in setting up a pre-service teacher education programme. However in addition to these, and to examining the general and local issues which shape teacher education in any specific context, it is the effects these elements have on the prospective teacher which determine the success or failure of a course.

The lasting consequences of these effects must be considered not only over the period of the course but also during the years beyond, for it is the ability of the programme to bring about profound and enduring change in students' perspectives, attitudes and behaviours which dictates what it finally achieves.

Viewing teacher education as an integrated whole which accepts continuous learning rather than stagnation as its *raison d'etre* should be the cornerstone of pre-service courses which prepare students to become teachers in the 21st century.

The impact of a pre-service education course cannot be a significant one if the human element is not made the foundation upon which the entire enterprise is based.

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ATTITUDE CHANGES ON AN INSET COURSE FOR PRIMARY ENGLISH TEACHERS

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Institute of Language in Education

Introduction

The present study takes a 16-week Institute of Language in Education (ILE) in-service teacher refresher course for primary English teachers as its starting point and attempts to measure attitude change, if any, by the end of the course. The main focus of the study is change in teacher attitudes as well as the extent of change, rather than teacher attitudes per se. A number of studies have actually explored the attitudes of English teachers in Hong Kong. These studies have focused on different aspects of the issue, such as attitudes to the medium of instruction (Hirvela & Law, 1991), attitudes to communicative language teaching and teacher education (Chan & Lau, 1989), process of teacher's personal development (Young & Lee, 1987), and the culture of Hong Kong English teachers (Richards et al., 1992). Although these studies are different in many ways, they seem to indicate that teachers have strong views on education and that in many cases these ideas are not particularly susceptible to change. In order to effect positive change of attitude in teachers, it seems that appropriate forms of teacher education relevant to the Hong Kong context must be sought. It is hoped that by investigating attitude change, we could find out more about the impact of the ILE refresher course on participants and that this would provide data for future course improvement. The study might also indicate wider implications for in-service teacher training and curriculum reform in Hong Kong.

Rationale for the Study

Attitude is an important constituent in language teaching in that it is one of the factors that accounts for individual performance , in addition to knowledge, skills and awareness (Freeman, 1989). Attitude is

> *the stance one adopts toward oneself, the activity of teaching, and the learners one engages in the teaching/learning process.*
>
> Freeman (1989:32)

Knowledge and skills about language teaching would not suffice to make learning effective without the teacher's positive attitude to teaching and learning. Teacher attitude, as Smith (1971:8) has noted, is a critical variable in teaching:

> *there is no doubt the attitudes a teacher has towards himself influence his behavior in the classroom. And there are strong reasons for believing that the teacher's attitudes towards his pupils—e.g., his expectations of them—will influence their achievement.*

Young and Lee (1987) further comment that curriculum innovation would not be wholly effective without a concomitant change in teacher attitudes. In other words, it is of little use changing the curriculum if teachers are not convinced of the change and do not adopt a positive attitude towards it.

Difficulties in promoting change in teaching methodology through in-service teacher training and/or curriculum innovation are well documented in the ELT literature, e.g. Kouraogo (1987), Pilling and Stephens (1991). From a Hong Kong perspective, the problematic relationship between curriculum innovation and a potentially resistant teaching force has been documented in Morris (1988) who noted the tendency for teachers to pay lip-service to the ideals of a reform without carrying it out in practice.

More recently, one can cite the initial opposition of some Hong Kong teachers' to the implementation of Target-Oriented Curriculum (TOC)[1], a policy-focused measure designed to improve the quality of learning through pupils engaging in active purposeful tasks. The dissemination of ideas about the curriculum initiative through pamphlets, booklets and training seminars encountered some obstacles both at the conceptual and implementation level. Amongst some teachers, there was a perception that TOC was imposed from above without due consideration for the practicalities of the Hong Kong classroom. One could perhaps conclude that a top-down approach where teachers play the role of relatively passive recipients would not be a desirable goal in teacher education. Instead it is important to involve teachers more actively in the process of change in order that new and more positive attitudes can arise. In-service teacher training courses need therefore to be carefully designed to take into account teacher attitudes, as curriculum innovation 'is not likely to succeed through teacher retraining programs unless such programs are able to bring about a corresponding shift in teachers' attitudes toward the nature of language learning and toward their role in that process' (Young and Lee, 1987:90).

In the ILE context, the Refresher Courses for primary teachers have been run for a number of years and in general the participants seem to have a high regard for the course. An overall evaluation questionnaire is usually administered at the end of the course and the responses have been encouraging. The participants generally comment that they have learnt a lot about teaching methodology from the course, and they also exhibit a positive outlook towards language teaching. However, it is not known if this positive outlook arises out of their own personal and teaching experiences prior to the course or whether it has been brought about by the course. As far as teacher training is concerned it seems that little has been done to ascertain attitude change brought about by the course itself. The purpose of this study is to find out to what extent attitudes towards English language teaching had changed by the end of the 16-week refresher course and to try to investigate the reasons for the changes discovered. It is felt that results of the study would be useful not only for ILE course planning but they might also shed important light on the design of teacher training programs in general.

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[1] TOC was previously known as TTRA, Targets and Target-Related Assessment. The new name TOC was used so as to better reflect the fact that the innovation covers the whole of the curriculum not just assessment. For the purpose of this paper we shall use TOC throughout.

Background to ILE Refresher Courses

The refresher course for primary teachers has been run in the ILE since 1982. It is a 16-week in-service training programme for English teachers who have at least 5 years' teaching experience. Although the overall aims of the courses over the years are generally the same, the refresher courses have undergone a number of significant changes in their content and organisation in order to meet the changing needs of teachers and the curriculum. The participants in the study under discussion took part in the first refresher course of 1993 for primary English teachers. (The ILE runs two refresher courses for primary English teachers per year.) The course lasted from 22 February to 19 June 1993. The stated aim of this course was:

> *To develop an ever-improving capability to use English for professional purposes, to renew and improve the English curriculum and to develop professionally, through inquiry, conceptualising, reasoning, problem-solving, reflection and communication.*

This course was revised mainly to help teachers better understand the proposed curriculum change, i.e. TOC so that they would be able to operate effectively within the new curriculum framework. The content of the course was divided into two dimensions, Language Improvement (67 hours) and English Language Teaching (265 hours). Language Improvement was principally self-access and involved choosing a combination of various units from modules like 'English for Academic and Professional Purposes', 'English for Social Communication, General Interest and Aesthetic Purposes', and 'English Language System: knowledge and practice'. The English Language Teaching Dimension was composed of four modules—'Language and Education', 'Planning for Curriculum Improvement', 'Primary Methodology' and 'Project'. 'Primary Methodology' and 'Project' were both based on TOC. In 'Primary Methodology' participants were engaged in three blocks of experimental teaching at the Catholic Mission School[2] where they tried out what they had learnt from the module relating to the Cognitive Dimension, Interpersonal Dimension and the Aesthetic Dimension. In the 'Project' Module participants produced a TOC-focused project in groups of three or four. They were engaged in developing a scheme of work, preparing a series of lessons around an organising focus and teaching those lessons in the school of one of the group members.

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[2] The Catholic Mission School is a primary school situated near to the ILE.

Participants on the course were divided into small groups of about 12. A variety of teaching methods were adopted on the course: plenary lectures, seminars, workshops, assigned reading and discussions. A great deal of time on the course was devoted to group work where participants shared and discussed ideas, designed workshop tasks, microtaught parts of lessons, and exchanged professional experiences with one another. Activities on the course were primarily participant-centred, though most of them were conducted in the presence of tutors. Course tutors played the role of the facilitator of learning and throughout the course tutors and participants worked together on a co-operative basis.

Subjects of the study

The subjects of the study applied to the course voluntarily or were nominated by their school principal for retraining or for promotion. In general they fulfilled the following criteria:

1. They had at least 5 years of teaching experience.
2. At least 50% of their timetabled hours over the previous two academic years had been devoted to the teaching of English.

Altogether 62 participants attended the course. The ages of the participants ranged from 26 to over 45. About half of them had more than ten years' teaching experience. Their professional qualifications were very similar; the majority had a Teacher's Certificate from the College of Education whilst the others had an In-service Certificate of Teacher Training (ICTT). These participants taught different classes of English, but more taught upper primary than lower primary classes. (Refer to Appendix 1 for details of the participants' profile.)

Procedure

In order to obtain subjects' views about English language teaching and to measure their attitude change at the end of the course, an attitudinal questionnaire was designed. The questionnaire had four parts: (1) English Language Teaching (teaching and learning activities, qualities of a good teacher, roles of a primary English teacher), (2) Communicative Approach, (3) Language Learning Process, and (4) TOC. The questions involved ranking a list of options or responding on a Likert scale to the above issues.

The participants of the refresher Course for primary English teachers were asked to complete the attitudinal questionnaire on the first day of the course (see Appendix 2). The same questionnaire was administered to them on the penultimate day of the course when all the teaching had finished. 62 participants responded to the pre-questionnaire and 60 responded to the post-questionnaire as two were absent on the second occasion. Respondents remained anonymous on both occasions. One or two questions in which participants misunderstood the instructions were discarded. After the post-questionnaire an informal interview was conducted with six of the participants randomly selected from the groups in order to obtain qualitative data. They were asked questions directly related to the items in the questionnaire.

Results and Discussion

The results of the study are presented and discussed in this section according to the four areas of the questionnaire. Since the subjects remained anonymous in the study the results of the pre-and post-questionnaires were not paired for statistical analysis. Hence only descriptive statistics are reported and analysed. Without relying on inferential statistics, our purpose here is to present and describe the results, making some tentative suggestions and interpretations based on the descriptive data.

In the first section of the questionnaire, participants were asked to put a number of items in rank order. The ranking tables (see Tables 1-3) on questions 1-3 contain the number of teachers choosing that option with 1 being the most favoured activity and 5 being the least favoured activity. Questions 4-20 asked subjects to express agreement or disagreement on a Likert scale to issues relating to 'Communicative Approach', 'Language Learning Process' and 'TOC'. The results are summarised in terms of percentages in Tables 4-20. The first figure indicates the percentage response at the beginning of the course, the figure in brackets indicates the percentage at the end of the course.

English Language Teaching

Question 1 asked about the activities that promote the most learning in the classroom. Results (see Table 1) seem to show a strengthening of views on pair and group work as the most favoured activities. One reason could be that the teachers have tried out pair and group work successfully during their Experimental Teaching. Another possibility is that their own personal experience of carrying out group work as learners on the refresher course may have brought home the benefits of such a teaching technique. The descriptive data also suggest a strengthening of the belief that dictation was the least effective way of promoting learning. This could be due to the fact that during the course, tutors put more emphasis on interactive listening activities and tended to play down the use of dictation as a teaching and learning strategy.

Question 2 asked about the important qualities of a good primary English teacher (see Table 2). It is interesting to note an increase in the belief in the importance of organisational skills. This can be related to the fact that in their Experimental Teaching and Project Teaching on the course, many participants were trying out alternatives to whole-class teaching; and the challenge of trying out group activities may have focused their attention on classroom organisation and contributed to the increased rating for 'good at organising things.' The decrease in the rating for having good knowledge of English is more difficult to account for but might perhaps be indicative of a less teacher-centred approach to the classroom.

Question 3 asked about the main roles of a primary English teacher. The results (see Table 3) seem to indicate an increased preference for the role of the teacher as the promoter of a positive and supportive atmosphere. This may be related to the relaxed and cooperative learning atmosphere that the ILE courses aim to foster with tutors trying to take up the role of colleagues and facilitators rather than solely that of lecturers.

Communicative Approach

Both the pre-and post-course questionnaires (see Tables 4-6), show that the participants felt that they knew what was meant by a communicative approach, that they believed in this approach and that they thought that it could be successfully carried out in their schools. In each case the descriptive data seem to indicate that their feeling was strengthened at the end of the course in comparison with the beginning.

However 23.8% of participants(pre) and 14.8% (post) were unsure or doubtful about whether a communicative approach could be carried out successfully in their schools. Teacher comments indicate that some of the problems felt by teachers in implementing a communicative approach are:

- pressure of time—need to cover the syllabus and prepare students for traditional exams/tests
- opposition of colleagues/Principals to noisy communicative activities
- large class size
- lack of resources/insufficient time to prepare resources

Still, despite these constraints it is positive to note that by the end of the course over 75% of the respondents indicated that they believed a communicative approach could be carried out successfully in their schools. One possible reason is that on the course there was great emphasis on both the theoretical underpinnings of the approach as well as its practical application. Moreover, participants were engaged in workshop tasks and Experimental Teaching where they had hands-on experience of designing tasks or lessons and applying communicative principles. As a result, they might have found the adoption of a communicative approach in the classroom more workable than before.

Language Learning Process

Results from Questions 7 to 9 (see Tables 7-9) indicate that, on the whole, participants accorded a less important role to grammar in the language learning process at the end of the course. The mixed response to Question 9 is particularly interesting as the statement is a direct quote from the current Primary English Syllabus (CDC, 1981:85). There is slightly more agreement with the comment at the end of the course than at the beginning. Also there seems to be a consistently slight move away from grammar by the end of the course in that more participants felt that language could best be learnt through a focus on the message (see Table 7 - 78.7% at the end compared with 71.5% at the beginning). Fewer participants thought that vocabulary acquisition is the most important part of language learning at the end of the course (see Table 11 – 29.5% at the end compared with 45% at the beginning). These results could have been due to the impact of the course, as there was less emphasis on grammar and vocabulary but more focus on meaning and communication in the 'English Language Teaching' Dimension.

Question 12 about errors is also taken from the CDC Primary English Syllabus; it gains a very high rating of approval in both questionnaires. Most participants felt that errors are a natural part of the learning process (see Table 12 – 96.8% at the end compared with 95.2% at the start of the course). A change occurs in the amount of strong agreement with this statement from 34.9% before the course to 50.8% at the end.

TOC

In relation to TOC there were quite a number of 'No Opinion' responses, particularly at the beginning of the course. It is natural that the participants were somewhat unwilling to commit themselves on TOC before having more time to absorb its concepts and their classroom implications. Nonetheless, some particularly interesting reported changes in attitude do still occur (see Tables 13–20). For the purpose of the following discussion we will disregard 'No Opinion' responses and group 'Strongly Agree' with 'Agree' and 'Strongly Disagree' with 'Disagree'.

Results of Question 13 indicated that at the beginning of the course only 7.9% of respondents felt that they were familiar with the ideas behind TOC whilst at the end the figure increased to 65.6%. This is encouraging if perhaps predictable given the high degree of emphasis on TOC during the course. From another perspective it is rather disappointing that at the end of the course no teachers strongly agreed with the statement perhaps indicating, to some extent, a lack of confidence in understanding TOC concepts.

Question 14 is a key indicator of attitudes towards the new curriculum proposals. The widespread concerns about TOC are reflected in the initial response of 17.5% positive as opposed to 41.2% negative. By the end of the course, this opinion has changed to 57.4% positive in comparison with 9.8% negative. It is tempting to speculate that any initial opposition to TOC was based partly on anxiety prompted by a fear of the unknown (or only partially understood). A plausible reason for the more positive attitude of respondents at the end of the course is that they have gained a lot of knowledge about TOC, mainly through the 'English Language Teaching' Dimension which was TOC-based and through the practical applications of TOC principles in Experimental Teaching and Project Teaching.

Question 19 also contains a positive change in attitude with respect to TOC. In the pre-course questionnaire only 19.1% of teachers agreed that pupils would benefit from TOC whilst 25.4% disagreed. In the post-course questionnaire, the respective figures were 54.1% and 6.6%. This seems to indicate a belief in the worth of TOC and correlates with the opinion illustrated in Table 14 that TOC is a positive reform.

This attitude change related to TOC is very encouraging and seems to indicate that a long-term in-service course can succeed in changing teacher attitudes towards a curriculum reform. A more general overview of the change in teacher attitudes towards TOC, including data collected during 3-day seminars and 1/2 day workshops run by the TOC Teacher Education Section is outlined in Carless (1994). He concludes that one of the challenges for future TOC teacher education will be to continue to generate positive attitude change during programmes that are constrained to be of only a short-term duration.

Interviews

In order to obtain some qualitative data to add to the quantitative data discussed above, a small sample of 6 teachers were randomly selected and interviewed (with the proceedings taped) at the end of the course. The points made by these subjects were roughly consistent with the data discussed so far. For example, one teacher commented that she would put less emphasis on grammar and more emphasis on pair and group work. Two other teachers commented that they had not used pair-work regularly before the course but would now like to do so.

With regard to TOC a number of interesting comments were made. One teacher commented that TOC seemed to be more effective in helping students to learn and remember material although traditional methods were more efficient in covering the syllabus quickly. This teacher favoured a gradual implementation of TOC. Another teacher opined that with respect to assessment, teachers prefer to use grades and marks rather than bands of performance. A third teacher noted appositely that TOC is not very different to the communicative approach to language teaching. (In fact, TOC aims to build on the communicative approach and link it with assessment so as to achieve an integrated teaching, learning and assessing process.)

Limitations of the Study

There are a number of limitations to this study. Firstly, the questionnaire was not piloted although it was discussed and amended in an ILE sub-group which designed the questionnaire. Secondly, section 1 of the questionnaire obliges the respondents to include all the items, thus circumscribing their choice. Also a major disadvantage of such a ranking activity is that disenchantment with a certain item might push other items up the scale by comparison, thus rendering the interpretation of the results suspect. As an alternative, the subjects could be given a list and be invited to select their three most favoured options as well as being asked to specify their own additional choices.

Also a questionnaire as a research tool has its limitations and obviously in this study we may tend to interpret the statistics in such a way as to highlight the positive side of our courses. In relation to this is the possible Hawthorn effect inherent to a survey of this nature. That is, at the end of the course participants might tell us what they thought we wanted to hear e.g they might seem unsupportive if they made negative comments about TOC when it has been one of the main foci of the course. It is possible that after the course, the attitudes may regress and it is worth finding out their attitudes to the same issues by asking them to fill in the same questionnaire again six months after the course. Finally, the fact that paired T-tests were not carried out would inevitably detract from the data analysis in terms of its objectivity and statistical reliability.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The findings seem to be tentatively encouraging in that attitudes have become more positive towards both communicative language teaching (including pair and group work) and TOC. The discussion has so far focused mainly on the more positive aspects of the attitude change observed on the course. It is worth pointing out that a number of the reported attitude changes may not seem to be particularly large. Of greater importance is perhaps how we can foster more change in the participants, particularly with respect to the perennial problem in teacher education of bridging the gap between theory and practice. Given the importance of attitude in language teaching, teacher education should focus not only on equipping teachers with knowledge and skills, but also developing them so that more internal changes would be brought about through increasing or shifting awareness (Freeman, 1989). With respect to this, the suggestions made by Breen et al. (1989) are well worth consideration. In their short-term in-service programme, teachers specified one month in advance of the course what issues should be on the agenda, thereby increasing their ownership of the course and ensuring that it was focused on their needs. The outcome was a focus on the classroom realities and constraints of the participants, with trainers and trainees exploring together the nature of the local classroom. This would be a useful strategy for involving teachers actively in the process of professional self-construction, achieving change in both skills and attitude. It would be interesting to find out if this kind of idea could be adapted to the ILE situation.

Some tentative implications for TOC could be drawn from the findings of the study. It is worth noting that the questions that show the largest reported attitude change relate to TOC. Given the TOC teacher educators' mixed experiences when holding mass centralised 2-day or 3-day seminars with large groups of occasionally antagonistic teachers, there seems to be an implication that preparation for curriculum change is best carried out in small mutually supportive groups with lecturers and teachers adopting sharing roles as far as possible. The respective length of the courses is obviously an important consideration; in two or three days it is not easy to develop collaboratively at a relaxed pace. Also a short course cannot include experimental teaching or try-out with the presence of tutors to advise and support. The recent recommendation of the Advisory Committee on TOC for

1662

a move in the 1994–1995 school year to a school-based approach including a cascading mode whereby principals, panel chairs and teachers become involved in the preparation for TOC seems a particularly positive move. A key issue for ongoing TOC teacher education is whether there is enough in-service time and manpower available to facilitate the development of understanding and application of TOC.

Last but not least, further research needs to be conducted into to what extent attitude change at the end of course is reflected by behaviour change in the classroom, given that the enthusiasm of the course and the supportive presence of classmates and lecturers will no longer be present. The question of post-course follow-up at ILE has been discussed (e.g. Lai, 1992) without conclusive evidence either way as to its cost- effectiveness. For change to be effectively introduced into the classroom, follow-up support seems to be highly desirable.

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1663

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Participants' Profile

1 Age (below 35–31, above 35–31)

26–35	31
36–45	24
over 45	7

2 Years of teaching experience at primary level

5–10 years	25
11–20 years	26
More than 20 years	11

3 Professional qualifications

Teacher's Certificate	44
ICTT	18

4 Position in school

CM	45
AM	17

8 are panel chairs.

5 Classes currently teaching

P1–P3	30
P4–P6	51

(The total does not add up to 62 because some participants taught both lower and upper primary levels.)

Attitudinal Questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is to find out your opinions on a variety of issues concerning English Language Teaching. In order to retain confidentiality please don't put your name. Thank you for your help and your valued opinions.

Personal information

Please tick as appropriate:
Age: Under 25 [ ]   26–35 [ ]   36–45 [ ]   Over 45 [ ]

Years of teaching experience at primary level:
Less than 5 years [ ]   5–10 years [ ]   11–20 years [ ]
More than 20 years [ ]

Tick the classes that you are currently teaching:
P1 [ ]   P2 [ ]   P3 [ ]   P4 [ ]   P5 [ ]   P6 [ ]

English Language Teaching

1. In your opinion which of the following activities promote the most learning in English Language Teaching? Rank the methods 1–5 with 1 being the method you find most effective.

A. Dictation ____
B. Listening to teacher explanation (English/Cantonese) ____
C. Doing homework ____
D. Pair-work/group-work ____
E. Doing grammar exercises ____

2. What are the most important qualities of a good English teacher at Primary Level? Rank the features from 1–5 with 1 being the most important quality.

A. Good knowledge of English ____
B. Prepares lessons thoroughly ____
C. Good at explaining things ____
D. Good at organising things ____
E. Marks homework diligently ____

3. What do you think are the main roles of an English Language Teacher at Primary Level? Rank the roles from 1–5 with 1 being the most important.

A. To promote student interaction ____
B. To teach grammatical concepts ____
C. To promote a positive and supportive atmosphere ____
D. To monitor and correct language errors ____
E. To make English lessons enjoyable ____

Give your opinion on the following statements by using the scale below:

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NO OPINION	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
5	4	3	2	1

Communicative approach

4. I'm unsure exactly what we mean by a communicative approach to language teaching. ____
5. I believe in a communicative approach to language teaching. ____
6. I don't believe that a communicative approach to language teaching can be successfully carried out in my school. ____

Language learning process

7. Knowledge of grammar is essential to communication. ____
8. Language learning is best achieved through a mastery of the system of grammatical rules. ____
9. Generally speaking, attempting to explain grammatical rules is not desirable with Primary School pupils. ____
10. Language can best be learnt through a focus on the message. ____
11. Vocabulary acquisition is the most important part of language learning. ____
12. Errors are a natural part of the learning process. ____

TOC

13. I am familiar with the general ideas behind TOC. ____
14. TOC is a positive initiative for Hong Kong schools. ____
15. The purpose of TOC is to enable students to be streamed for English or Chinese medium schools. ____
16. TOC is a new way of teaching and learning. ____
17. TOC is a new method of assessing students. ____
18. TOC caters for learners of different abilities. ____
19. The students will benefit from TOC. ____
20. TOC will contribute to teachers' professional development. ____

Table 1: Activities that Promote the Most Learning in English Language Teaching

		most effective			least effective		
		1	2	3	4	5	mean
Dictation	pre	0	2	15	20	25	4.1
	post	0	3	8	16	33	4.3
Listening to teacher explanation	pre	25	21	7	6	3	2.0
	post	22	27	8	2	1	2.0
Doing homework	pre	2	9	18	17	16	3.6
	post	2	5	20	18	15	3.6
Pair/Group work	pre	33	16	6	2	5	1.9
	post	34	15	9	2	0	1.6
Doing grammar exercises	pre	2	14	16	17	13	3.5
	post	2	11	14	22	11	3.4

Table 2: Most Important Qualities of a Good English Teacher at Primary Level

		most important			least important		
		1	2	3	4	5	mean
Good knowledge of English	pre	26	20	8	5	3	2
	post	22	9	11	17	1	2.4
Prepares lessons thoroughly	pre	25	20	8	8	1	2.0
	post	21	25	8	6	0	2.0
Good at explaining things	pre	6	12	16	27	1	3.1
	post	5	11	20	24	0	3.1
Good at organising things	pre	4	10	28	14	6	3.1
	post	12	14	21	12	1	2.6
Marks homework diligently	pre	1	0	2	8	51	4.7
	post	0	1	0	1	58	4.9

Table 3: Main Roles of an English Language Teacher at Primary Level

		most important			least important		
		1	2	3	4	5	mean
To promote student interaction	pre	9	34	12	4	3	2.3
	post	11	13	32	3	2	2.6
To teach grammatical concepts	pre	4	2	12	26	18	3.8
	post	2	4	5	33	17	4.0
To promote a positive and supportive atmosphere	pre	14	7	27	11	3	2.7
	post	21	20	13	5	2	2.2
To monitor and correct language errors	pre	3	3	2	18	36	4.3
	post	0	5	2	16	38	4.5
To make English lessons enjoyable	pre	32	16	9	3	2	1.8
	post	27	19	9	4	2	2.0

Table 4: I'm unsure exactly what we mean by a communicative approach to language teaching.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	15.9%	27.9%
Disagree	63.5%	60.7%
No opinion	11.1	4.9
Agree	7.9	6.5
Strongly agree	1.6	0

Table 5: I believe in a communicative approach to language teaching.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	1.6	0
Disagree	3.2	1.6
No opinion	12.7	3.3
Agree	60.3	78.7
Strongly agree	22.2	16.4

Table 6: I don't believe that a communicative approach to language teaching can be successfully carried out in my school.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	6.4	11.5
Disagree	47.6	63.9
No opinion	22.2	9.8
Agree	22.2	14.8
Strongly agree	1.6	0

Table 7: Knowledge of grammar is essential to communication.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	0	1.6
Disagree	41.2	32.8
No opinion	4.8	6.6
Agree	49.2	57.4
Strongly agree	4.8	1.6

Table 8: Language Learning is best achieved through a mastery of the system of grammatical rules.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	3.1	0
Disagree	46.1	42.6
No opinion	12.7	26.2
Agree	38.1	29.5
Strongly agree	0	1.7

Table 9: Generally speaking, attempting to explain grammatical rules is not desirable with Primary School pupils.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	3.2	1.6
Disagree	41.3	37.7
No opinion	14.3	11.5
Agree	39.6	45.9
Strongly agree	1.6	3.3

Table 10: Language can best be learnt through a focus on the message.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	0	0
Disagree	7.9	6.6
No opinion	20.6	14.7
Agree	69.9	67.2
Strongly agree	1.6	11.5

Table 11: Vocabulary acquisition is the most important part of language learning.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	1.7	1.6
Disagree	45	55.8
No opinion	8.3	13.1
Agree	45	26.2
Strongly agree	0	3.3

Table 12: Errors are a natural part of the learning process.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	1.6	1.6
Disagree	0	1.6
No opinion	3.2	0
Agree	60.3	46
Strongly agree	34.9	50.8

Table 13: I am familiar with the general ideas behind TOC.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	15.9	1.6
Disagree	52.4	9.8
No opinion	23.8	23
Agree	7.9	65.6
Strongly agree	0	0

Table 14: TOC is a positive initiative for Hong Kong schools.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	11.1	1.6
Disagree	30.1	8.2
No opinion	41.3	32.8
Agree	17.5	50.8
Strongly agree	0	6.6

Table 15: The purpose of TOC is to enable students to be streamed for English or Chinese Medium schools.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	1.6	3.2
Disagree	11.1	41
No opinion	49.2	37.8
Agree	36.5	18
Strongly agree	1.6	0

Table 16: TOC is a new way of teaching and learning.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	4.8	1.6
Disagree	27	29.5
No opinion	22.2	11.5
Agree	44.4	49.2
Strongly agree	1.6	8.2

Table 17: TOC is a new method of assessing students.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	3.2	0
Disagree	12.7	9.8
No opinion	14.3	19.7
Agree	61.9	65.6
Strongly agree	7.9	4.9

Table 18: TOC caters for learners of different abilities.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	1.6	0
Disagree	6.4	1.6
No opinion	23.8	23
Agree	65	67.2
Strongly agree	3.2	8.2

Table 19: The students will benefit from TOC.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	6.4	0
Disagree	19	6.6
No opinion	55.6	39.3
Agree	17.5	44.3
Strongly agree	1.6	9.8

Table 20: TOC will contribute to teachers' professional development.

	pre	post
Strongly disagree	6.4	0
Disagree	9.5	18.1
No opinion	60.3	41
Agree	20.6	36
Strongly agree	3.2	4.9

THE REFLECTIVE TEACHER:
A CASE STUDY

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Introduction

In recent years, 'reflective teaching' has become a vogue word in teacher education. According to the concept of the reflective practitioner, the role of the teacher is not simply to pass on a corpus of knowledge; instead, the teacher mediates between the learner and the syllabus, seeking to facilitate learning by adapting lesson content and methodology to suit individual needs. To fulfil this liaison role successfully, and thus to create an effective learning environment, the teacher needs acute observational and management skills.

The phenomenon of the reflective teacher has not passed China by. Mr Kong, an experienced and innovative teacher from Shandong Province in north-eastern China, represents an outstanding example. In the following interview, he offers some insights into his personal ideas about reflective teaching.

Mr Kong, how do you perceive the role of the teacher?

That's a very big question. I suppose my aim is to point students in the right direction. I don't believe in spoon feeding. I mean, I never enlighten anyone who has not been driven to distraction by trying to understand a difficulty, or who has not got into a frenzy trying to put their ideas into words.

I believe in giving limited guidance and then leaving students to develop their problem-solving skills on their own. When I have pointed out the corner of a square to anyone and they come back without finding the other three corners, I will not point it out again.

To perform well as a teacher, self-renewal is very important. You are only worthy of being a teacher if you get to know what is new by keeping fresh in your mind what you are already familiar with. There has to be this synthesis of the old and new. You also need an enquiring mind. If you love cleverness for its own sake, but have no love of learning, then you're plotting a dangerous course, in my opinion.

Another job of the teacher is to serve as a role-model to students. I try to practise what I preach. It is easy to posture as a reflective teacher—to talk a good game, if you like—but you also have to perform well on the field. I hold, and, I hope, uphold, three principles of conduct very dear: economy—it is better to be sparing than extravagant; decorum—I always try to behave *comme il faut;* and sincerity—allowing myself to express true feelings. I also point out good role models for my students to follow.

What is your view of learning?

I identify five stages in the learning process. I say to my students 'Study intensively, inquire accurately, think carefully, discriminate clearly, and practise earnestly.' In other words, I want them to read widely with a questioning mind, to weigh and evaluate what they observe, and to act upon their findings.

What do you see as the purpose of education?

Whole-person growth. The cultivation of virtue through aesthetics and ethics. It is by poetry that the mind is aroused. It is by studying the rules of proper conduct that the character is established. The study of music supplies the finishing touch.

People chase after wealth and power, which is all right if it is done in an appropriate way, I suppose. An educated person knows what is moral. The uneducated only know what is profitable.

People of cultivated virtue are the pillars of society: they provide stable families. Familial stability leads to good government. Good government leads to world peace.

Do you cater for individual differences in learners?

Oh yes, indeed. Take, for example, two of my students, Mr Qiu and Mr Yu. Qiu holds himself back, so I try to urge him on. Yu has the energy of two men, so I try to hold him back.

Above all, I encourage autonomy in learning. I say to my students 'Learn widely and be steadfast. Find out things for yourself, and reflect on what you have learnt. Then you will not need to rely on others to help you out.'

How do you feel about the Communicative Approach in language teaching?

I support it. As far as I'm concerned, it is enough that the language you use gets the point across. I'm not a pedantic person.

Finally, Mr Kong, how do you view current educational practices in Hong Kong?

With some concern. Take this learning by rote business. If you learn from others but don't think, you will be bewildered. On the other hand, if you think but do not learn from others, then that way is fraught with peril.

I do see some promising signs, however, with TOC. It seems to tie in with many of my ideas. A word of warning about curriculum renewal, though: in all things, success depends on prior preparation, and without such prior preparation there is sure to be failure. If principles of conduct have been clearly set out, the implementation of them will be smooth.

Thank you for talking to us.

Not at all. I'm always gratified when people pay attention to my views these days, especially as I died two and a half thousand years ago. By the way, please call me Confucius. Everyone else does.

Author's Notes:

Mr Kong's responses are freely translated from the classics 'The Analects', 'The Doctrine of the Mean' and 'Great Learning'.

I have relied on the following sources in translation:

Chen, Jingpan. 1990. *Confucius as a Teacher.* Beijing: Foreign Languages Press

Chen, Li Fu. 1986. *The Confucian Way.* London: KPI

Lau, D.C. (trans.) 1979. *The Analects.* London: Penguin

The responses are drawn from the following:

Q1 *The Analects* Book VII.8; *The Analects* Book II.11; *The Analects* Book III.4,15;

Q2 *The Doctrine of the Mean* Book XX. 19-21

Q3 *The Analects* Book VIII.8; *The Analects* Book IV; *Great Learning Chap 5*

Q4 *The Analects* Book XI.21; *The Analects* Book XIX.6

Q5 *The Analects* Book XV.41

Q6 *The Analects* Book II.15; *The Doctrine of the Mean* Book XX

1676

USING INTROSPECTION IN ENHANCING CONSTRUCT VALIDITY IN A TEST OF ACADEMIC READING—A HONG KONG CASE STUDY

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Introduction

This paper will describe the introspective validation procedure in the context of a research project involving the development of a diagnostic test of reading for College of Education students in Hong Kong. After a brief characterisation of the introspective validation procedure and its theoretical underpinnings, the use of introspection will be described in order to illustrate what it can reveal about the test taking process. Finally some of the shortcomings and problems discovered in putting the procedure into practice will be discussed by way of a conclusion.

Introspective validation

The construct validity of a performance test can be determined by examining the extent to which the test measures the ability it was designed to measure. Once the ability of interest has been clearly defined and items written to measure it, the most direct form of construct validation will be to look at the behaviour of subjects taking the test in order to see whether they are actually employing that ability in finding solutions to those test items. A first step in developing a performance test then, is the drawing up of a definition of the ability to be measured. The definition should operationalise the ability, that is, identify the behaviours which are associated with skilled performance (Bachman 1990:45). A final step in the development of the test will be determining the extent to which those behaviours are actually employed in carrying out the test tasks. For tests of cognitive skills such as reading, looking at the behaviours used in tackling test tasks is complicated by the fact that performance of these skills cannot be directly observed. Introspective validation procedure asks the test taker to think aloud while performing the test tasks in order that performance of the cognitive skill can be *observed* in action.

Conventional validation procedures are product-oriented, they make hypotheses about the test taking process based on the indirect evidence provided in the product of that process—the test result. Introspection, on the other hand, looks directly at the test taking process itself for evidence of validity. Introspective techniques measure validity by estimating the extent to which the test taking process mirrors the processes employed in real life performance of the skill. The data produced in the introspective validation procedure can provide a number of indications which throw light on the test taking process, on the level of difficulty posed by the test items, on the student's interpretation of the text, and on the reading and writing strategies he or she employs, among other things. These data sources and their potential usefulness in validating the test are set out in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Sources of Data and their Uses in Introspective Validation Procedure

Data Source	What Analysis can Reveal
reading aloud from text and test items	subject's familiarity with lexis in the text and understanding of inter-and intrasentential relations; strategies employed in reading the text
pausing between utterances	difficulty of text and test items for the subject as revealed in thinking time required to process the text and find solutions to test tasks
rehearsing written answer orally	subject's ability to express orally stated meanings in written form: whether the test item type is serving the desired purpose (e.g. do writing problems interfere with demonstration of reading ability?)
stating what a text means in other words	subject's level of understanding of the text; degree of correspondence between subject's and test writer's interpretation of the text
stating what a test item is asking for	subject's level of understanding of the test item and whether it actually produces the desired reading behaviour
tackling the test tasks	test taking strategies: e.g. reading the questions first, underlining key words
stating reasons for given answer	test-wiseness, presence of test-taking skills, loop-holes in test design allowing students to find right answer for 'wrong' reasons
all of the above	degree of fit between the hypothesised operationalisation of reading construct and behaviour produced by the test tasks: construct validity of the test as a whole

Theoretical Background

Although it is currently enjoying a vogue in studies of linguistic processing in both first and second languages, the validity of introspective data is still a matter of debate (Grotjahn 1987:68–71, Stratman and Hamp-Lyons 1990, in press). Those who advocate the usefulness of introspection lay down strict procedural limitations on its valid utilisation. The conditions under which introspective research methods can produce valid data about cognitive processing are outlined by Ericsson and Simon (1980, 1984, 1987). Their rationale depends on a conventional view of memory as consisting of two storage facilities—short-term, and long-term (STM and LTM)—and a view of cognitive processing which sees the acquisition of skill as being a movement from controlled to automatic performance (Shiffrin and Schneider, 1977). Briefly, the thoughts which can be put into words directly are those which pass through STM, and these are the only thoughts which can be termed *introspections*. If the thought or information has to be retrieved from LTM, it is properly termed *retrospection*, retrospective thought may have been somewhat distorted in the retrieval process. If the cognitive process can be executed automatically, however, the information of interest does not pass through STM at all. Automatic performance may be a sequence of skilled behaviours which can be executed without thought, and therefore introspection can reveal little about it. Ericsson and Simon (1980:237) also discuss the problem of cognitive overload: the attention available for cognitive functions is limited, if any one task makes excessive demands on attention, then there is none left for other cognitive functions. Thus a test task which makes excessive demands on the test taker will use up all the available supply of attention and leave none for the introspective task of verbalisation.

Designing an Introspective Study

In using introspection in testing research, these theoretical guidelines translate into a number of constraints on the design and conduct of the study (Rankin 1988). Firstly, the verbal reports must be made concurrently with the performance of the skill being observed, if the reading behaviour has already taken place and a summarising comment is being made upon it, the data is retrospective not introspective. Retrospective data is valuable, but it is important to be aware of the possibility of distortion. Retrospective data may represent what the subject thinks has taken place, a view which may be distorted by preconceptions about the reading or the test taking process. Retrospective data has to be probed for and this brings in another opportunity for distortion to take place—questions must be posed and encouragements phrased in such a way that the subject is not influenced by the interviewer's preconceptions (Ericsson and Simon 1980:221).

Further constraints on the validity of introspective data derive from the controlled-automatic view of skilled behaviour and the notion of cognitive overload. Put simply, these mean that tasks must not be either too easy or too difficult for subjects to perform. If the task is well within the subjects' competence it may be performed automatically, in which case no information will be available for verbalisation. Tasks which are too difficult on the other hand may lead to cognitive overload, in which case the available supply of attention is used up in the performance of the task itself, leaving none for the introspective task of putting thoughts into words. It is important to realise that in asking subjects to think out loud while performing a task, we are asking them to do two things at once, with the strong possibility that performance of the one task will interfere with performance of the other. A delicate balance must exist between the difficulty levels of the two tasks if both are to be performed well.

The Context of the Present Study

The present study is part of a larger research study comparing the relative usefulness of introspective and statistical validation techniques, and takes place in the context of a test development project in the Colleges of Education. The test was designed to screen out students in need of remedial training in academic reading. The development of this test has been reported on elsewhere (Storey 1990, 1992). Careful adherence to principle guided the procedures followed in the development of this test so that it would be a reflection of current theory and therefore provide an exemplary vehicle for better assessing the worth of introspective validation. The test was specially tailored to its context of use and to the academic needs and interests of the candidates in the context of their College curriculum.

The test design was based on the results of a survey of College lecturers into the English academic reading assignments which students have to undertake in the College course. Lecturers were asked to list reading texts used, describe the type of reading expected of participants and provide examples of reading assignments and tests.

The results of the survey provided a list of books and articles used in the College course. Extracts from these texts were used in the test. The survey revealed that students in the Colleges were expected to recognise and understand the main ideas of the reading assignments.

Operationalising the main idea comprehension process

A test specification was drawn up identifying the processes and skills to be measured. The Kintsch and van Dijk (1978, van Dijk and Kintsch 1983) model of the reading process and the work of Johnston and Afflerbach (1985, Afflerbach 1990) provided the means of operationalising the definition of the ability of interest—recognition and understanding of the text main ideas. The Kintsch and van Dijk main idea identification and construction strategies are based on the notion of assimilation of the text propositions by the reader who holds an evolving gist statement in working memory as the text is processed, the final product of this process being a

1680

mental summary of the text in propositional form. Johnston and Afflerbach, basing their work on the van Dijk and Kintsch model, have identified behavioural strategies which expert readers use in forming a statement of the main idea of a text. These will provide the reference against which the reading behaviours identified in the introspective data will be checked.

Introspective validation

The next step was to ask a group of students to take the test and to think aloud or introspect while doing so. Pilot studies had shown that subjects were capable of introspecting freely given the right conditions, and that they tended naturally to give a summarising statement justifying their choice of answer after completing each item. The pilot study had also used a retrospective interview but this has not been productive of useful retrospections. Given the characteristic reluctance of Hong Kong students to speak in public, this was not surprising. It was decided therefore to utilise subjects' natural tendency and incorporate it into the instructions. Subjects were therefore instructed to 'Think out loud' or 'Put your thoughts into words' while tackling the tests tasks, and then after completing each item or stage in the task, to 'Say why you think your answer is correct'. Subjects were free to use either Cantonese or English for the study though the instructions and test materials were all in English. Most subjects in fact used English exclusively though several switched into Cantonese when they experienced difficulty expressing themselves in English.

Method

The twenty-five English elective students with the highest scores on an oral English entry test were selected for the study. They were briefed on the purpose of the research and invited to participate. Since pilot studies had revealed that few students would willingly participate in testing research, and also to create some sort of commitment to do the tasks to the best of their ability, a reasonably generous payment was offered to participants. It was intended to conduct the study in two sessions since the test was at this stage inordinately long. However all the students insisted that they would prefer to have only one long session with an intervening break. The session lasted a total of three hours not including the break. The study was conducted in a language laboratory. Tape recorders in each booth were locked into record mode so that pauses between utterances, reading and thinking time could be measured.

Before the actual study, subjects had been given a description of the aims of the research together with a transcribed example from the pilot study illustrating the two phase verbalisation process—introspection followed by retrospective report. Subjects were then given a brief training test with two items to practice the procedure and allowed to start on the study proper. The test papers were amended to include, in large, bold letters, encouragements and reminders to subjects to think out loud, and justify their answers as they were doing the test. Tapes were transcribed with timings between utterances, and indications as to where subjects were quoting from the text, from the test items, or from their own short answer responses.

Results

The purpose of this article is to give a brief flavour of the introspective procedure and draw attention to some of its advantages as well as some of the drawbacks discovered in the use of the technique in the context of the current research project. In this section therefore some examples of the types of data produced in the study will be discussed to give some idea of what analysis can reveal, and to show some of the inherent problems with introspective studies in general. Full results of the test validation process will not be given here.

Discussion of examples

Subject A

The test item which initiated the protocols discussed below appears relatively unproblematic as a means of assessing main idea comprehension since it asks directly for a statement of the main idea of a relevant part of the text:

> '5. Use your own words to state briefly the main idea of the final sentence.'
>
> The 'final sentence' it refers to is as follows:
>
> A growing body of research suggests that there is a positive relationship between certain teacher classroom management behaviours and desirable learner outcomes, including student on-task behaviour, student achievement, and student attitudes.

The item was worth four marks to be awarded for the presence of four propositions specified in the marking scheme as:

> Research results suggest (1)
> some class management behaviours (1)
> may produce good learner attitudes (1)
> class behaviour and achievement (1)

The answer provided by subject A was:

'The way/style of a teacher in teaching will have direct effect on students' learning.'

Judged by the marking scheme criteria the student's written answer would not gain any marks, though generous marking may assign one mark for her recognition that 'relationship' in the sentence signifies an effect of teaching on learning. The answer fails to isolate the importance of classroom management as distinct from instructional skills in this effect, a main point of the text being the distinction between management and instruction. The answer also sees the relationship as direct, whereas it is more likely to be a correlation rather than a direct effect.

What does Subject A's protocol reveal about the validity of this item? Looking at each of the data sources in turn (see Table 1 above) we can see, from her reading aloud of the sentence that she was able to pronounce the words accurately but that her reading was rather halting with a number of pauses. These pauses probably indicate that she was considering the meaning of the sentence as she read it or allowing the 'automatic construction' (Johnston and Afflerbach 1985:213) strategy to produce the sentence main idea. Her pause at the end of the sentence is a more significant indication of difficulty in interpretation since it is part of a twenty-four second pause interrupted by her self-report (refer to Appendix for a key to the transcription system used):

> *(00:12) I'm thinking the sentence again (00:12)*

She appears to identify the term 'positive relationship' as having key status since she reformulates that phrase after her long pause:

> *positive relationship. would means (00:01) a direct . a direct directly (00:02) er (00:01) effect (00:02) effect the (00:03) teacher classroom management behaviours and desirable learning outcomes directly*

The protocol substantiates two conclusions drawn from examining her written answer—that she does indeed see 'positive relationship' as signifying a direct effect, and that she fails to see the importance of distinguishing management from instruction:

> *but it depends on the teachers (00:01) behaviour. er but this behaviour include both the instructional activities (00:01) and the managerial be. activities*

The protocol also reveals however, that the subject could have gained more marks by expressing her interpretation of the sentence as fully in writing as she does orally—she makes a clear mention of the beneficial effects on learning and attitude in her oral protocol which she failed to express clearly in writing:

> *that will (00:01) make (00:02) the student learn (00:01) more effective (00:02) and the student can learn. can learn more (00:01) and (00:02) er doing their work better. and (00:02) will have better attitude while in the lesson*

Thus the data appears to illustrate a drawback in the short answer question type—that difficulties in expressing intended meaning in writing will interfere with the accuracy of the assessment of reading.

Assessing the degree of fit between the cognitive processes which appear to be used in reaching an answer to the item and those processes postulated in the model of the reading process which informs the test design will tell us something about the construct validity of the item. By reference to the Johnston and Afflerbach (1985) main idea construction strategies we can see examples in the data of the automatic construction or 'crunching' strategy:

> The crunching procedure seemed to involve the reader stopping input and rather passively waiting for an automatic process to operate on information already in working memory.
>
> Johnston & Afflerbach 1985:213

and of the listing strategy:

> The first reading allowed selection of important elements, so they simply skimmed the paragraph picking out and listing the important words and phrases. (op cit:213)

Understandably, as the wording of the item is so direct the behaviour appears to mirror real life main idea construction strategies. However, interpreting the introspective data requires a great deal of subjective judgment. The significance of much of the data is far from transparent and the investigator is forced to rely on subjective interpretation much of the time. One way of overcoming this obstacle is to carry out some form of retrospective interview with subjects to verify that conclusions drawn from the data are correct. Grotjahn terms this method *communicative validation* and used it in his studies of the C-test (1987:73). However with a large number of subjects and a large amount of data to analyse and transcribe there may be a considerable gap between the taking of the test and the drawing of even tentative conclusions, by which time the subject is not likely to be able to recall much about the cognitive processes which he or she used in taking the test. Another way of overcoming the problem is to sit with the subject while he or she is taking the test and probe for more information when introspections are ambiguous and open to interpretation. This was the technique used by Alderson (1990). It requires a very quick-thinking investigator, and it has inherent dangers. Subjects may be inhibited by the presence of the investigator, or influenced by leading questions inadvertently posed by the investigator; or concerned to try to say what they think the investigator wants to hear.

Further Examples

Subject B

Her written answers to item I/5 was the following:

> A research suggests that what a teacher does to maintain classroom management and predict the student to know falls into a positive relationship. Examples include student on task behaviour, student achievement, and student attitudes.

The lack of clarity in this response makes it very difficult to assess. Examination of the subject's protocol helps to elucidate her intended meaning. One source of ambiguity in the written response concerns the scope of the conjunction 'and'—without the protocol, it is not clear whether the two verb phrases are grouped as a single unit which has a positive relationship with something else, or whether they are seen as being related to each other:

> *(00:56) the last sentence talks about the relationship between instruction and management er they fall in. to the. they fall into the positive relationship that means er (00:02) if man classroom management is effective then ins. instruction can be given. effectively (00:01)*

A second source of ambiguity is the elliptical 'Examples include...' where it is not clear what the items listed are supposed to exemplify, the protocol clarifies this point:

> *and (00:05) this (00:07) and management examples of management behaviours include the student on task behaviour (00:03) and <students>' attitudes and er (00:06) and a learning examples of learning outcomes. of the instruction and the <students> achievement*

The protocol also suggests that the subject had a greater understanding of the sentence than is suggested in her written answer:

> *(00:01) student achievement is also highly (00:01) related to the (00:02) to the classroom management (00:37) ¦ teacher classroom management <behaviour>¦ (00:01) suggest that*

Finally, there is evidence in the protocol that the subject has made a logical inference which had not been predicted by the test designer, and which, had she been able to express it more clearly in writing, would have given her a higher score than the 25% her actual response gained. This inference justifies the subject's assertion that the relationship mentioned in the sentence is a relationship between management and instruction. The logic would run as follows: 'desirable learner outcomes, including student on-task behaviour, student achievement and student attitudes' are examples of the products of effective instruction, therefore the relationship between these things and management is 'the relationship between instruction and management'. Or, in the words of her protocol:

> *'if <man> classroom management is effective then <ins>. instruction can be given. effectively'.*

This inference is certainly logical and shows that the subject has actually understood the core meaning of the sentence she is summarising, i.e. the relationship between 'management' and 'desirable learner outcomes'. The evidence for the subject having made this inference is, however, far from clear. In order to verify that she has indeed made such an inference, it would have been necessary to carry out a communicative validation of the investigator's interpretation in the form of a post-introspection interview.

Subject C

Another subject's response to item I/5 was as follows:

> A group of people have conducted a research and it suggests that certain teacher classroom management behaviours is related to desirable learner outcomes such as student on-task behaviour, student achievement, and they have positive relationship.

Referring again to the marking scheme for this item shows that all the propositions looked for by the markers are present in the response. However, the written response is problematic for two reasons. Firstly, the subject has not stated the main idea in her own words as the item asks her to, instead she has rearranged the wording of the text sentence. Secondly, she has failed to demonstrate her understanding of the nature of the relationship which the sentence mentions. A marker would suspect that the subject had merely copied from the text wording, rearranging the original in the hope that despite her lack of comprehension she could gain a few marks. A generous marker might nevertheless give the answer full marks.

The protocol for this item is interesting for a number of reasons. It shows that the marker's suspicions were well founded, and that the subject really did not understand the sentence she was trying to summarise. It also shows something of the affective factors influencing test performance. The subject's frustration with the test is evident from her intonation (rather inadequately reproduced here by means of an exclamation mark) as she reads the question out, an intonation which indicated shock or surprise:

> *now I answer find the answer of question five use your own words to state briefly the main idea of the* (00:01) *final sentence! final sentence where is the final sentence (00:01) is it mean that erm the last sentence in paragraph four mhm maybe (00:02) maybe (00:02)*

She goes on to clarify to herself what the question is asking, and once again her frustration is evident from the amount of 'tut-tutting' (reproduced here as 'task') she does:

> *briefly the main idea main idea tsk (00:05) is that mean I just write the meaning? of this sentence or tsk (00:02) er (00:07) or (00:03) write this the meaning or (00:01) I explain and I have to give some example tsk is it necessary for me to give some examples? (00:02) briefly the main idea (00:02)*

Finally she admits her real problem with the item:

> *actually I don't understand (00:02) I don't understand this umm (00:01) this er this final sentence because I can't imagine whether how the management behaviours (00:01) is related to desirable learner outcomes I don't understand (00:03) I can't write write some examples to illustrate (00:01) to explain the (00:02) the mm the main idea but I can only write the meaning (00:02) just (00:02) the meaning of this sentence I can just write down erm (00:02) the management behaviours is related to desirable learner outcomes such as err student on-task behaviour student achievement and student attitudes but I can't get the idea (00:02) so I just write down (00:04) the meaning of these two sentences and I don't understand what's the meaning of positive relationship what's positive how? (00:03) I haven't got any examples (00:04) positive relationship (00:02) then what is negative relationship? (00:06) positive relationship (00:05) if there's no examples (00:04) I don't know how how the management behaviours or how teacher classroom management behaviours (00:03) can have a positive relationship (00:03) to the learning outcomes task okay (00:01) just (02:43) okay question six*

Here the protocol has helped to provide evidence of a test-taking strategy which, from truly test-wise students, may produce some plausible looking responses which are based on little or no comprehension of the text. The protocol also shows that, in this case, it is frustration rather than cunning which has led this subject to attempt to employ this strategy. It may be that we often misinterpret the motivation behind test-taking strategies and that if we realised that they may originate in frustration rather than deviousness we might have a more productive response to them, when evaluating the test and students' performance on the test.

Summary and Conclusions

A number of the problems are inherent in the introspective validation procedure. Firstly, in order to produce sufficient data for statistical verification, large numbers of subjects should be involved. Analysis of the data inevitably involves subjective judgment and though techniques have been developed to verify these judgments they are difficult to accomplish. If communicative validation is to be used, the introspective data should logically be analyzed before the subject is interviewed by which time the cognitive processes of interest will have been long forgotten. Another problem with the technique is the enormous amount of time and effort it requires. For small-scale test development projects it is questionable whether the expenditure of this time and effort would be worthwhile. Analysis of the data and the drawing of conclusions involves another problem in discovering the best method of presenting findings. Quantification of the data is necessary to provide scientific respectability, but quantified results do not have the same immediacy or relevance to the reader as the raw data have for the investigator. In addition to quantified findings, there is a need for the establishment of a database of introspective studies of new and established tests where data are presented in such a way that the test-taking process is fully illuminated. The present study has revealed the need to train subjects in the introspective task. If insufficient training is provided subjects may simply use the tape as a means of recording their answers and not produce any truly introspective data. Another problem concerns the reproduction of test conditions in an introspective study. Test motivation is a powerful force in many students when their future career may depend on their test performance. It is difficult to reproduce the power of this motivation in an introspective study, which might suggest that the real test-taking process cannot be observed through introspection.

Though it has many drawbacks and problems, introspection provides the possibility of illuminating the test-taking process. We do not yet know enough about how students behave in tackling test tasks, carefully controlled use of introspection could produce a genuine advance in our state of knowledge in this area, with the establishment of a database of qualitative data illustrating the effects of particular testing techniques on test taking behaviour. It is authenticity of process—the degree of fit between the cognitive processes employed by the test taker and those employed in real performance of the cognitive skill—by which a test should be judged, and introspective studies provide the means of doing so.

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APPENDIX A

Key to transcriptions:

Symbol	
full. stop	short, but significant pause
(00:01)	pauses in minutes and seconds
underlined	quotation from text
<outcome>	mispronounced quotation from text
italic	quotation from test item or rubric
<*behaviour*>	mispronounced quotation from test item or rubric
?	questioning intonation
!	surprised intonation
and good	quotation from/rehearsal of written answer

THE PERFORMANCE PRINCIPLE: TOWARDS A MORE ACTIVE ROLE IN THE HONG KONG ENGLISH CLASSROOM[1]

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The Problem

We are all familiar with the difficulties of making examination oriented text-book teaching communicative. Indeed, many Hong Kong teachers would probably acknowledge that they pay lip service to communicative methodology. They might point out that the pressure on them to *perform* their exam preparation duties in the classroom, as well as on students to ***perform*** well enough in the exam itself to gain admission to Form 6 or to University, is enormous.

Note the use of the word *perform* in this context. In the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary there are four shades of meaning given for the word. Firstly, a musical or theatrical event or action. Secondly, the manner of carrying out an activity or piece of work ('performance' in the examination is the example cited). Thirdly, the ability of a person or machine to do something well. Fourthly, something that needs a lot of effort, work or preparation e.g. 'What a performance!'

We suggest that the more creative connotations of performance inherent in the first definition can be linked with the more mechanical ones involved in the latter three, and that the creative aspect of performance can have a highly beneficial effect, not only on examination results, but, more importantly, on the individual student's academic and personal development.

The new AS Level oral component, which will be part of the 1994 paper, has caused a certain amount of consternation among Form 6 teachers—essentially because it involves performance skills that cannot be taught in a programmed or mechanistic way. We suggest that the Form 5 certificate oral test in revised format, involving role-play and interaction between candidates, will be even more worrying for teachers when it is introduced in 1996.

The kind of performance expected in this type of oral exam is more complex than in the present rather basic model, and will entail awareness on the part of students not only of the linguistic features of spoken discourse, but also of paralinguistic (intonation, stress, use of pauses etc.) and extra-linguistic, or proxemic, features. For example, gesture, eye-contact, facial expression, posture, distance—body language in general. Moreover, students will need to master a range of skills, not only discussion skills and the specialized language of discussion, but public-speaking, and even acting skills.

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[1] This paper was presented at the International Language in Education Conference, Hong Kong, in December 1993. It was accompanied by a video showing a joint performance festival which a small group of teachers from three schools planned and conducted as part of an action research project on the ILE Refresher Course for Secondary Teachers of English, No. ES932.

Although a limited number of students are familiar with the demands of adjudicated performance in spoken English, through their experience of the Hong Kong Speech Festival particularly, the vast majority are rarely, if ever, given the opportunity to perform in English. Those less self-confident, less able, less adventurous students are seldom willing to expose themselves to the perceived perils of public performance and to the potential criticism of strangers. Most teachers, already burdened with a demanding work-load in the first academic term, simply do not have the time to devote themselves to preparing any but the most able, those who may reward such investment of time and effort by gaining honour and recognition for the school.

The Solution

The inevitable question is therefore, given the present unfavourable conditions for nurturing students' spoken English performance skills, *how* can teachers face the challenge of preparing all candidates for these oral assessments with confidence? The answer, we would like to suggest, lies with performance.

Obviously, there are many constraints—such as space, class-size, environment, proximity to other classes, as well as more or less overt pressure to conform to the teacher-centred, teacher-controlled norms of other classrooms and subjects, particularly in respect of noise levels and the configuration of students and desks. There are, however, imaginative ways for the enthusiastic teacher to overcome these logistical problems through negotiation, explanation and co-operation, rather than confrontation.

The film 'Dead Poets Society' in which the teacher made poetry a living experience for his students was extremely popular among Hong Kong students, perhaps because it conveyed the idea of making what you do extra-ordinary. You don't need to encourage students to stand on desks to do this, as they do in the film, but merely to create a performance area by pushing back the desks. Alternatively, preparation can be done in the classroom for performances in the school hall in front of classmates, other classes, or even invited students from other schools.

A project carried out by a group of upper secondary teachers on Course 932 at the ILE was realized in this manner.

The teachers worked with Form 6 students from two typical Hong Kong secondary schools to prepare a Performance Festival, in which the students were both performers and spectators. In a period of less than two weeks, they learnt a great deal about performance skills and the importance of collaboration, which, judging from the surveys carried out by the project initiators, will benefit them both in the immediate future, and in their longer-term goals.

The types of performance were not intended to be seen as distinct or highly specialized, as they would be in a more professional sphere, although of course, as the Hong Kong public well know, good actors often make good singers and vice-versa. The emphasis was on the various skills—linguistic, para- linguistic and extra-linguistic, which performance entails. However, an awareness of the form of the different types of texts themselves and of their common features was also explored.

During their Festival the students performed songs, drama and poetry and we would now like to make some general points about two of these: poetry and drama.

Performing Poetry

Reciting poetry is not necessarily the same as performing poetry. One can be said to have recited a poem by standing in front of a microphone, hands behind one's back, and 'speaking' the poem while staring straight ahead. However, in order to perform a poem successfully one has to bring into play those extra-linguistic features of spoken discourse mentioned above (gesture, eye-contact, facial expression, posture, distance—body language in general). A successful performance of a poem will enhance enunciation and intonation. It will include interpretation and increase enjoyment. Good performers make the poem their own and put life into the words on the page.

As John McRae (1991) writes: 'The text comes to life when performed; it comes off the page, and becomes very much more than either simply a reading text or a listening exercise ... the performed version offers an *interpretation* of the text which the readers can interact with, accept or reject, discuss and evaluate. A vital extra dimension is thus given to the material, while accessibility is facilitated and enjoyment potential enhanced.'

There is, however, an additional reason why 'poetic texts' should always be performed and it has to do with the very nature of poetry itself.

In his book *How Poetry Works* P.D.Roberts (1986) demonstrates how writing English poetry normally involves the arrangement of the rhythmical sound patterns of normal speech and that it is the 'stress-based product of speech and sound, not of the printed work'. Most poets choose many of the words they use, not only for their meaning, but also for the way they sound when spoken. They also consciously arrange these words in such a way that when their poem is performed the listener hears a rhythmical pattern of sound which pleases the ear and enhances meaning.

Before the invention of the printing press, when books were relatively rare because they had to be handwritten, reading was necessarily a public or private 'performance'. This might have taken place in public during a festival or ceremony at court, during a family gathering at the home of a wealthy landowner, during a service or a meal in a monastery, or in private in front of one's lover or mistress. Such performances would certainly have included poetry because people would have realised, through experience, that poetry is the perfect performance material. Poems would have been regarded in the same light as music or song which has to be performed in order to be enjoyed or even understood. A sheet of music for example, means very little to most of us until it is performed by musicians.

In those days therefore, the majority of people would have experienced poetry only during a public performance and would not have considered poems to be principally material for silent reading. Unfortunately, this is not the case today mainly because of the popularity of public examinations which force students to study a poem as one might study a prose text or, as P.D.Roberts(1986) says, as 'meaning conveyed by the printed word rather than as meaning conveyed by sound'. He regards this development as inappropriate because, as he puts it, 'Rhythm and sound are the heart of the poem'.

It follows therefore, that when one is using poems with students and especially non-native speakers of English, they should always first listen to and watch a good performance of the poem to be used before they read it. This is not only the appropriate way to enjoy poems at the outset, but it also provides a model for them when they come to perform a poem of their own choice or a poem they may have written themselves. Moreover, making performance the lynch-pin of a lesson in which a poem is being used will not only encourage them to react and respond to it, but will also give them a feel for the stress- based sound patterns of spoken English.

Drama

Most text-books contain role-plays, dialogues and other material that is intended to be communicative, or even to a certain extent, dramatic. The function of this material is usually to practise specific structures or vocabulary, and little thought is given to the intellectual and emotional relations between the speakers. Furthermore, the tidy sequence of grammatically correct and unnaturally perfect utterances makes the whole exercise appear contrived, frigid, and devoid of personal significance for the learner. By far the most interesting role-plays are those without scripted dialogue, involving basic information about character, situation and objectives, with a communication gap that allows for spontaneity, linguistic creativity and real engagement with the role. Unfortunately, Hong Kong teachers tend to prefer the former highly structured type with its greater predictability, artificiality and ultimately, sterility.

However, the text-book can be used as a departure point for drama even at a fairly simple level. An incident in a presentation passage can be mimed by small groups of students with dialogue improvised by others or elicited by class conferencing and brainstorming. Such humble beginnings may be the basis for a drama project or play. Adaptation of text-book material, of sections of class-readers, of extracts from films or songs, can often be a valuable exercise, in that it gives students an insight into the nature of a text, and its sub-text i.e. what is contained 'between the lines.' There is a highly practical advantage of encouraging students to develop simple scripts based on a given scenario, since the dialogue option of the HKCEE Paper 1 has become a regular feature of this exam.

In general however, it is a good idea to rely on the students' own interests and experience to form the theme or content of the drama. The teacher should focus on known vocabulary, and encourage students to restrict themselves to short exchanges if they are producing dialogue. Even monosyllabic utterances like 'yes', 'no' and simple expressions like 'sorry', 'goodbye' and 'thanks a lot' are open to an enormous range of interpretations and deliveries. Concentration on these details help to heighten students' awareness of the importance of prosodic features, such as rhythm, intonation and pitch in spoken discourse. We often find students tend to deliver learnt speeches or lines with machine gun-like fluency in the misguided belief that hesitations, distractions and pauses are somehow unauthentic. In fact, in the drama the reverse is true—hesitations and pauses are often built into a script, and even where they are not, pauses are often desirable in appropriate places. The realization that native speakers, too, make performance errors, false starts, even grammatical solecisms, will help the second language learner to appreciate that written and spoken forms of discourse usually involve very different conventions and strategies.

There are an infinite number of ways to stimulate students' imagination—photographs, newspaper articles, T.V. advertisements, pop songs, films—to name but a few—in order to encourage them to work on their own scripts or to semi-script and fill in the remaining dialogue through improvisation. Drama games, such as charades, can always be used as a point of departure for more creative work, and also to encourage good group dynamics. Authentic texts should not be used at the beginning (by authentic texts, we mean plays by established English language dramatists) since they will involve too many difficulties of interpretation. The students' own texts will provide plenty of opportunity to work on vocalization and movement. Voice modulation, rising and falling patterns of intonation, rhythm, correct pronunciation—all require practice, and the cassette recorder (or walkman) is the ideal instrument for enabling students to improve through listening and repetition. The combination of voice and movement can best be appreciated on video playback; so video too has a vital role to play. All this practice and self-observation will be for a genuine purpose—that of the performance.

So, to the performance itself. If insufficient time and space are at your disposal, a video or audio cassette recording may well become your performance objective. However, it is worth remembering that the live element of performance is particularly stimulating and students' improvement can best be gauged by the progress achieved between first tentative practices or rehearsals and the actual performance. That is not to say that perfection should be expected—simply that students and teachers are likely to identify with one another in the pursuit of a common goal, and therefore students will take more responsibility for what happens, because the performance belongs to them. By this stage, incidentally, the language belongs to them too, its form having been learnt by heart, but its meaning acquired in a natural context.

There are opportunities to participate in Competitions such as the Hong Kong Schools Drama Project as well as in Festivals and internal school competitions. Our own experience of the enormously beneficial effects of drama on students' oral proficiency, pronunciation, posture and self-confidence is derived from working with groups of initially inhibited secondary students from years one to six, seeing the play extracts chosen for the Hong Kong Drama Competition gradually take shape in workshops and rehearsals, to the point where the actors and actresses performed beyond our wildest expectations in the actual event. We do not believe that these particular students are the only ones with such talent. In fact, whenever we have witnessed performance in Hong Kong secondary schools, we have been struck by the rich potential of many students for observing and mimicking, for employing humour, pathos and even irony on occasions, for spontaneity as well as for studiously rehearsed effects.

To return to the classroom—if a large-scale performance is neither practical nor desirable, simple classroom sketches can be equally rewarding, and in these situations, an accomplished presentation is not essential—indeed humour and valuable language learning insights are frequently derived from performance errors. Case and Wilson's Offstage Sketches from the English Teaching Theatre, a European touring EFL drama group, are good examples of humorous sketches which can be exploited in the original form—or adapted to include local colour. They are specifically written for intermediate level learners of English. Teachers can encourage students to work in small groups to produce a skit or humorous sketch on a theme which may be relevant to other language skill areas, such as composition or listening work.

Students soon become accustomed to the idea of presenting, even if many show initial reluctance. For those who are resistant to the idea of performing in a dramatic context, a talk or oral presentation to the rest of the class is another option. Nevertheless, performance skills still need to be developed, therefore projection and good posture should be encouraged by the teacher. Puppet theatre based on cartoons or even short cartoons on video with students' voice-overs substituted for the original sound are further alternatives. Karaoke singing by groups or individuals can also help to increase awareness of the need for good pronunciation and clear articulation.

Above all, it is important for the students to become actively engaged with the material, and not to feel threatened by exposing themselves to the danger of peer ridicule. The sensitive teacher will intuitively know when a student feels threatened, and, equally, will be aware of the need for students to be challenged and to extend their capabilities. Students are interested in characters and situations, rather than language for its own sake. They rightly perceive language as a medium, which conveys meaning in context. Drama and performance provide this context for the exploration of discourse, and in particular its transactional and indexical features i.e. who initiates and controls dialogue and events and what the attitudes of speakers towards those events and each other are. In addition, the activity is a student-centred one, in which the teacher plays the role of adviser or facilitator rather than authority. After all we all play roles every day, as Shakespeare so pertinently noted:

All the world's a stage
And all the men and women merely players.

Conclusion

There is an expression employed in grammatical terminology—'performance-competence gap', describing the difference between internalized rules of grammar and the grammatical accuracy of actual utterances. Performing in English will not only help to narrow this gap, because greater attention is being paid to accuracy, by the very nature of rehearsal, but it will also help students to appreciate the interdependence of the two. Simulations of interviews and meetings, role-plays, sketches, improvisations, one-act plays—all provide a focus and a target for the learner/performer. Speaking poems, choral speaking and jazz chants all help to bring the written word alive for students, giving context and purpose to what would otherwise be a mechanical learning experience. Besides, the process of creating the performance 'product' is crucial to students' understanding and enjoyment of the materials used. Practices, rehearsals and workshops provide an opportunity for students to develop constructive self-criticism and a sense of collaboration and experience. They encourage the notion of ever-improving capability in mastering the language skills and vocal techniques involved in performance, both in the short term and the long term. As may well be appreciated, the concepts of process, product, purpose and context in an activity constitute an integral part of the modern curriculum. In future task-based English teaching, we firmly believe that the performance principle should be at the very heart of a target-oriented curriculum.

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BRIDGING CHINESE-MEDIUM AND ENGLISH-MEDIUM CONTENT-AREA INSTRUCTION THROUGH CROSS-CULTURAL GRAPHIC REPRESENTATION OF KNOWLEDGE STRUCTURES

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Introduction

The issue of whether English or Chinese should be the medium of instruction for secondary school students in Hong Kong has been the concern of educators, parents, and students for over a decade. In a recent article in the South China Morning Post (South China Morning Post, April 9, 1994, p. 17) on Chinese versus English medium instruction, the pros of Chinese-medium instruction are explored and suggestions have been proposed for providing Chinese-medium students with English-language bridging courses to prepare them for employment. This paper addresses the problem of bridging Chinese-medium and English-medium content-area instruction for English as a second/foreign language (ESL) students, and proposes a possible solution to the problem. 1. It describes the underlying assumptions of the paper, prior knowledge, the Knowledge Framework, and a classroom model based on the Framework; 2. it reports on the findings of an ethnographic study conducted in Hong Kong; and 3. it suggests that the classroom model is a possible solution to the problem of bridging Chinese-medium and English-medium instruction.

Underlying Assumptions

The underlying theoretical frameworks of this paper are prior knowledge (e.g. Swales 1990) or schema theory (Bartlett 1932, Carrell 1988) and the Knowledge Framework (Mohan 1986).

Prior knowledge

This theory assumes that learning is the interaction between prior knowledge and new knowledge. To effect learning, the teacher or the instructional material must be able to activate students' prior knowledge. Prior knowledge is students' accumulated store of facts, concepts, procedures, skills, etc. which contribute to the formation of content schemata and formal schemata or the rhetorical structures of different types of texts (Carrell 1983). The concept that background knowledge constitutes the foundation for students' future learning is increasingly being recognized.

For Hong Kong students, or Chinese students who have to learn content knowledge in English, background knowledge is defined as the sum total of the experiences, both formal and content (Carrell 1983), acquired both in Chinese and in English. While some content schemata may be

1697

culture-specific and thus fail to exist for second language learners (Carrell & Eisterhold 1988), according to the linguistic interdependence principle, there is also a common underlying proficiency which makes possible the transfer of academic or literacy-related skills across languages (Cummins 1989). It is agreed that teachers can, and should, make use of students' prior experiences to facilitate student learning of new knowledge. What are some of the commonalities across languages/cultures which can be used to elicit students' background knowledge and academic or literacy-related skills learned in another language? Can ESL students' available prior knowledge learned in Chinese be activated by an English-speaking teacher? I propose that one solution is the Knowledge Framework.

The Knowledge Framework

Mohan (1986) maintains that there are certain knowledge structures which are common across subject areas. They include classification, principles, and evaluation, which are categories of general, theoretical knowledge; and, description, temporal sequence, and choice which are categories of specific, practical knowledge (see Figure 1). Knowledge structures show the semantic relations of discourse. They are reflected in the top-level or macro-structure of written text. They are representations of the thinking skills classifying, relating cause-effect, evaluating, describing, sequencing and decision-making which are underlying proficiency skills. These thinking skills match the thinking skills that students are expected to learn in elementary and secondary schools as listed in the objectives of various curricula. Some examples of the thinking skills associated with each knowledge structure are shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. The Knowledge Framework

CLASSIFICATION	PRINCIPLES	EVALUATION
Classifying Categorizing Defining	Explaining Predicting Interpreting data & drawing conclusions Developing generalizations Relating causes and effects Experimenting	Evaluating Judging Criticizing Justifying preference, personal opinions
Observing Describing Naming Comparing and contrasting	Planning procedures Carrying out and arranging events in sequence Understanding time and chronology Noting change over time	Recommending Making decisions Recognizing issues & problems Identifying alternate solutions Problem solving
DESCRIPTION	SEQUENCE	CHOICE/DECISION MAKING

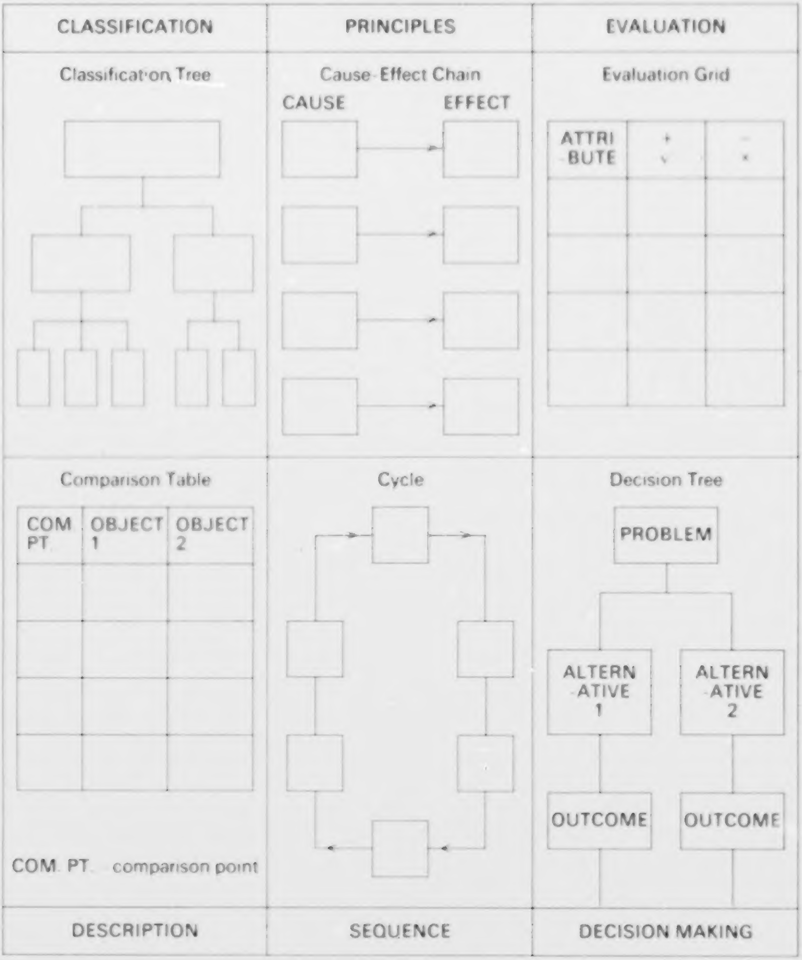
According to Mohan, each knowledge structure has a set of linguistic and cohesive devices or language items specific to itself. For example, *First, ... Next, ... Then, ... Finally* are devices which characterize a sequence (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. Samples of Language Related to the Knowledge Framework
—English—

CLASSIFICATION	PRINCIPLES	EVALUATION
Verbs to be, to have Species nouns—kinds, divisions, categories, classes, types, attributes Possessives—his, hers, theirs, its Relative pronouns—which, who Frequency adverbs—generally, usually, all, every, never, always, mostly	Verbs, adverbs, prepositions, phrases expressing: Cause—is due to, result in, the result of, because, consequently Condition—if ... then, unless, even if, whether ... or Logical probability—would, could, might Scale of amount—all, every, always	Verbs of volition—want, wish Verbs, adjectives describing emotions—like/dislike, satisfactory Evaluation adjectives—good/bad, right/wrong
Verbs to be, to have, to see, to weigh Adjectives Relative pronouns—who, which Quantifiers—some, many Prepositions of place—at, above, around, below, between Adverbs of comparison—similar to, different from, smaller than, almost the same as	Imperative verbs Logical and chronological connectors—first of all, during, after, finally, next, earlier, later, before, initially, in the end Prepositions of space and time—at, about, around, towards, on, over	Modals—can, may, shall, will, could, might, should, would, ought to Verbs of decision making—choose, think, decide, prefer, had rather
DESCRIPTION	SEQUENCE	DECISION MAKING

Knowledge structures are found not only in written text. They appear across modes of communication. They are reflected in oral discourse and they can also be expressed in graphic form. Each knowledge structure can be represented by specific graphics. These graphics can be transferred across subject areas. Thus they can be accessed again and again. For example, the classification tree which classifies imports and exports in Social Studies can be used for classifying plants and animals in General Science (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. Graphic Representation of Knowledge Structures: Examples

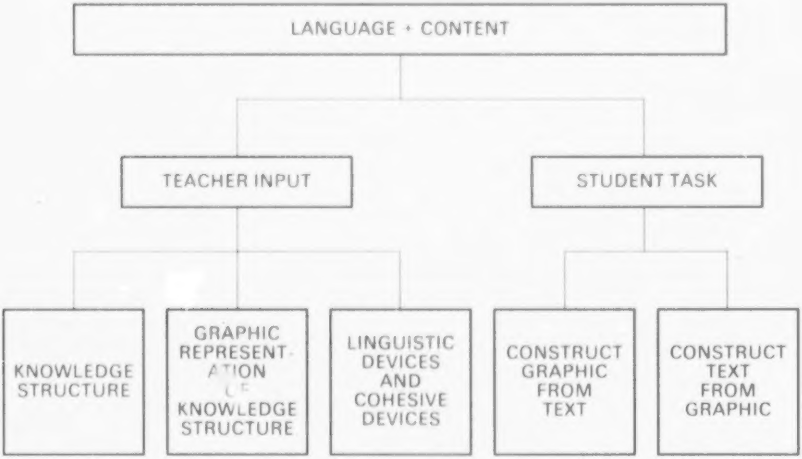

CLASSIFICATION
PRINCIPLES
EVALUATION
Classification Tree
Cause-Effect Chain
CAUSE
EFFECT
Evaluation Grid
ATTRI-BUTE
+
−
√
×
Comparison Table
COM PT.
OBJECT 1
OBJECT 2
Cycle
Decision Tree
PROBLEM
ALTERN-ATIVE 1
ALTERN-ATIVE 2
OUTCOME
OUTCOME
COM. PT. comparison point
DESCRIPTION
SEQUENCE
DECISION MAKING

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

A classroom model

The Knowledge Framework has been adopted with some success in ESL classrooms in Vancouver (Early, Mohan & Hooper 1990; Early & Tang 1991; Tang 1991b; Tang 1992; Tang 1992/3; Tang 1993). Teachers have been developing units and preparing lesson plans based on the Knowledge Framework. A classroom model (Tang 1992/3) which reflects the Framework is found in Figure 4. The model entails (1) explicit teaching of knowledge structures or text organization; graphic representation of knowledge structures; and linguistic and cohesive devices of knowledge structures; and, (2) setting tasks for students to practise constructing graphics from expository prose and, constructing expository prose from a graphic. 'Teaching,' I hasten to add, is not synonymous with lecturing or teacher talk. The underlying assumption of the model is that (1) it highlights the commonalities, i.e, knowledge structures, across languages to build and activate prior knowledge, and (2) it focuses on the linguistic and cohesive devices, which are different between language and language, to effect the acquisition of a second language and the learning of content knowledge. (Comparison of aspects of linguistic devices between English and Chinese has been the subject of much research, but it is not discussed in this paper.)

Figure 4. A Classroom Model


LANGUAGE + CONTENT
TEACHER INPUT
STUDENT TASK
KNOWLEDGE STRUCTURE
GRAPHIC REPRESENTATION OF KNOWLEDGE STRUCTURE
LINGUISTIC DEVICES AND COHESIVE DEVICES
CONSTRUCT GRAPHIC FROM TEXT
CONSTRUCT TEXT FROM GRAPHIC

1. *Explicit teaching of knowledge structures, graphic representations and linguistic devices*

The first component of the classroom model is teacher input. Teachers have to prepared lesson plans according to the Knowledge Framework. They have to be systematic and explicit when they draw students' attention to knowledge structures. They have to link the cognitive skill to the text, and to teach the students to identify the top-level structure of text passages.

They can explain the meaning of the knowledge structure by means of graphics. There are graphic forms which are specific to each knowledge structure, e.g., the tree and web for classification, the table for comparison, the time line for sequence. Teachers should be aware of these and make use of appropriate graphics to present knowledge in all subjects. Graphics provide a focus for reading. They make visible the structure of the passage and highlight the top-level structure. If the same graphic forms are consistently used across subject areas, they can help in the transfer of knowledge across the curriculum. Assuming that knowledge structures are common across languages, if they are used in both Chinese-medium and English-medium instruction, they can contribute to the transfer of knowledge across languages.

Teachers should point out the linguistic signals of each knowledge structure to the students so as to help them to identify text which reflects that particular knowledge structure. In both English and Chinese there are sets of linguistic devices specific to each knowledge structure. Pointing out linguistic devices is important because it helps to develop and improve students' written language proficiency. Another reason why explicit teaching of the linguistic devices of each knowledge structure is important is that each language has its own distinct grammar and text organization. For example, the semantic relations of classification exist in both Chinese and English social studies texts but try translating word for word a Chinese classification text passage into English, and the difference in the grammar and text organization between the two versions becomes obvious. This is the area in which the retrieval of prior knowledge becomes problematic. Therefore, whatever the language, background knowledge of the linguistic and cohesive devices of that language has to be built and when ESL students learn content knowledge in a second language, linguistic and cohesive devices of the second language have to be learned anew. Knowledge structures and graphic representations of knowledge structures permit transfer from one language to another, but linguistic devices have to be learned and practised by students.

2. *Setting student tasks*

The other component of the model is setting student tasks. Since input does not guarantee intake, it is important to design tasks for students to practise (1) identifying knowledge structures, linguistic devices, and graphics and (2) constructing graphics from text passages and writing text passages from a graphic. This is the step which raises prior knowledge to the availability level where it is ready for activation. To implement the model, teachers should set the tasks regularly; make the link between the graphic and the knowledge structure; and make the connection between the knowledge structure and the linguistic devices. They can provide opportunities for students to negotiate with peers and jointly construct meaning from texts and graphics and to write a paragraph from a graphic. It is important to suggest linguistic devices and ensure that students know how to link sentences, and how to present information. Constructing a paragraph from a graphic is a step towards writing expository prose and demonstrating their comprehension of content knowledge, the ultimate aim of students and the concern of teachers.

The facilitative effect of the Knowledge Framework as a conceptual framework for integrating the teaching of language and content is supported by formal and informal research studies in Vancouver (Mohan 1993). But are knowledge structures according to the Knowledge Framework present in Chinese instructional materials used in Hong Kong? Are knowledge structures common across languages? To answer the above questions, I examined a number of Chinese social studies textbooks used in secondary schools in Hong Kong. Results are reported in the following section.

Knowledge Structures and Graphics in Textbooks: Are knowledge structures and textbook illustrations common across languages?

1. *Knowledge structures exist in Chinese-medium social studies textbooks.*

An analysis of a Chinese social studies textbook according to the Knowledge Framework (Mohan 1986) shows that knowledge structures as defined by Mohan (1986) exist in academic Chinese at the secondary level (see Figure 5 & Figure 5A). I should point out that not all text passages in social studies textbooks are pure principles or classification or evaluation passages. Often a text passage shows the relation of two or three knowledge structures, e.g., a sequence of causes and effects or a classification of descriptions. But we can usually determine the structure of a passage by looking at its top-level structure. Often it is possible to impose a structure on the text and highlight the characteristics of that structure.

1705

Figure 5. Analysis of Social Studies Units According to the Knowledge Framework

分類	原理	評估
人口與人口密度 各年齡組別的人口有多少 各籍貫和種族的群共有多少人 户口統計向我們提供了甚麼資料 五種鑑定公民身份方法	影響香港人口因素 有甚麼因素會導致死亡率/出生率下降 怎樣才可以和睦共處 爲甚麼要進行户口統計 公民的權利和義務	我們怎樣才能和睦共處 怎樣才是好公民
香港目前的人口狀況 比較一九七一年和一九八六年香港各年齡組別人數 男女比率是多少 佛教和道教 出生證明書	一九一一年至一九七一年間香港的人口曾長 户口統計怎樣進行	怎樣選擇閒暇活動 怎樣運用零用錢
描述	程序	選擇/ 抉擇

Figure 5A. Analysis of Social Studies Units According to the Knowledge Framework

CLASSIFICATION	PRINCIPLES	EVALUATION
Definition of population Definition of density Classification of population by age, gender, nationality, religion Definition of census Classification of information census provides Five ways of determining identity	Factors affecting population growth Factors leading to the decline of birth and death rates How to live in harmony with people Why is census taking necessary The rights and duties of a citizen	Values: living in harmony To be a good citizen
The demography of Hong Kong Comparison of the population in 1971 and 1986 by age group Comparison of population by gender Description of religions The birth certificate	Population growth in chronological order Census procedure	Choosing hobbies and pastimes Choosing ways of spending pocket money
DESCRIPTION	SEQUENCE	CHOICE

2. *Similar graphic forms are found in Canadian and Hong Kong social studies textbooks.*

Examination of the illustrations of a Chinese social studies textbook according to the Knowledge Framework reveals that graphics representing various knowledge structures are present in Chinese-medium secondary textbooks (see Figure 6). A comparison of the illustrations of Hong Kong social studies textbooks to those of Canadian social studies textbooks at comparable grade level shows that Chinese textbooks are more highly illustrated than Canadian textbooks. However, authors of illustrations use similar graphic forms and conventions. The functions of illustrations are to a large extent similar as well (Tang in press).

Figure 6. Analysis of the Illustrations in a Social Studies Unit According to the Knowledge Framework

CLASSIFICATION	PRINCIPLES	EVALUATION
Graphic organizer of chapter Bar graph: classification of population by age group Bar graph: classification of population by nationality Chart: classification of population by district	Graph: factors affecting change in population	Chart: calculating population density
Graph: increase in population Graph: comparing birth & death rate Bar graph: comparing male and female population Diagram: comparing population by age group Photos: describing landmarks, religion, etc. Chart: comparing population by district Pie chart: comparing population Map: comparing population density	Pictures: Census procedure Graph: Population from 1911 to 1991	
DESCRIPTION	SEQUENCE	CHOICE

In short, knowledge structures in both written and graphic forms are common across Chinese and English secondary textbooks. The findings are not surprising. Since knowledge structures are representations of the semantic relations of discourse, they belong to that level of mental representation at which information, in any form and language, is subject to the same kind of rules. They are similar to what Jackendoff (1983) terms conceptual structure and, thus, permits transfer across languages.

In theory, graphic representations of knowledge structures are common across English and Chinese. They are, thus, a useful tool for building background knowledge learned in Chinese and, later, for eliciting background knowledge in English. They can also be used to access students' prior cognitive skills, e.g., classifying and describing, acquired in any language. But is this thesis supported by research? Can graphic representations of knowledge structures successfully elicit prior knowledge? Do teachers provide opportunities for students to build available prior knowledge? Can prior knowledge be activated? To explore these questions, I conducted a study, employing ethnographic techniques, of secondary students in three schools in Hong Kong.

An Ethnographic Study

The participants

Eleven form-one classrooms, totalling 450 students, taught by 27 different teachers in three different schools were observed: a Chinese-medium grammar middle school; an elite Anglo-Chinese secondary girls' grammar school; and a co-educational prevocational school. A wide range of students in terms of language proficiency, achievement, and socio-economic background and a wide variety of content subjects were observed. However, I should point out that the criteria for the selection of students were grade level and accessibility. The students were, thus, only examples of Hong Kong students and by no means a random sample of the population. I went into the schools for four weeks observing classes assigned by the principal or panel chair person of the school. I also examined various documents, engaged in group discussions with students, and interviewed them. I should also add that this is not an evaluation of teachers or their teaching. It is viewing teaching from a specific point of view, i.e., through the Knowledge Framework. The findings are reported under two headings 1) instruction, i.e., the language of instruction, knowledge structures and graphics students encountered in secondary classroom instruction; and 2) student awareness of knowledge structures and graphic literacy.

Instruction

Finding 1. The language of instruction in most content classes was Chinese and the most common attempt to prepare students for English-medium instruction was translating vocabulary into English.

In the Chinese middle school the language of instruction in content classes was Chinese. In the Anglo-Chinese girls' school, 'while the textbooks, written work and examinations are in English, ... many teachers use a mixture of English and Chinese' (South China Morning, April 9, 1994, p. 17), a mixed-code style (Richards, Tung & Ng 1991) was practised, i.e., 'teachers often switched back and forth between English and Chinese during lessons' (Richards et al. 1991, p. 3). In the prevocational school content lessons were taught in Chinese with frequent code switching. The principals of the Anglo-Chinese school and the prevocational school were concerned about the students' low English standard which, according to them, was declining. While they were aware that the 'mixed code' style of teaching had been criticized by educators as being a primary cause of a decline in English standards (Education Commission, 1990), they were more concerned about the urgency to prepare form-one students for English-medium instruction and learning. They encouraged content teachers to use as much English as possible in content classes. However, in both the Anglo-Chinese grammar school and the prevocational school, the content-area teachers, taught mainly in Cantonese, but translated some terms into English, and wrote the English version of certain vocabulary items on the chalkboard. They explicitly taught the meaning and pronunciation of the words. Thus, the students recognized such English terms as 'histogram,' 'the water cycle,' 'solvent,' 'solubility,' 'programming,' 'photocopier,' 'x axis,' etc., but found the production of the items difficult. Writing English words on the chalkboard and asking the students to read them aloud were the most common attempts that the teachers made to prepare the students for English-medium instruction.

Finding 2. The language of instruction had a great impact on the classroom behaviours and performance of the students.

I could not help noticing the effect the language of instruction had on student learning and participation. In one class in which the teacher insisted that only English was allowed, the result was a total lack of response on the part of the students. I observed the same group of students in another situation where teaching was done in Cantonese. A large number of the students responded appropriately and correctly. The students were able to demonstrate their knowledge and skill because the lesson was conducted in Cantonese. Many reasons could have contributed to the silence in English-medium lesson. According to the students, it was because they did not understand the question or they did not know the answer. There was no comprehensible input (Krashen 1985) and, therefore, no language learning and no content learning. Unfortunately, I did not stay long enough to discover the long-term effects of English-medium instruction on student learning of English. It appears that most of the students I observed found learning in Cantonese much more comfortable than learning in English. Incidentally, some students volunteered that, even in English classes, they found the 'Nicam' style of teaching more interesting and facilitative of learning. Thus, it appears that Chinese-medium instruction of content knowledge is, perhaps, the answer. However, as the principals expressed, sooner or later students will need English for further studies, for overseas examinations, and for professional communication. To quote the Principal of the prevocational school, 'In Textile Design, for example, they need English to communicate with people from other parts of the world. They need English to talk about design, to read design periodicals. Commercial stream students need English to get a job as a secretary.' It is, therefore, imperative for teachers to prepare students for English-medium content learning and communication. How can this be effected? Before proposing an approach, I should describe the classroom tasks the students encountered.

Finding 3. Hong Kong students were likely to experience a variety of academic tasks

Different teachers employed different strategies and carried out different academic tasks in the classroom.They usually delivered information by verbal explanation. The students appeared to rely very much on the teachers' explanation, clarification, and instruction. Often oral presentations were followed by questioning and chalk-board writing. Other tasks included reading aloud, summarizing, story telling, occasional brainstorming, translating vocabulary items from Chinese to English, and hands-on experience in practical and laboratory classes.

Discussion was carried out quite often in some classes. They were sometimes student-initiated when the students asked questions for clarification. More often, however, the students held discussions with their neighbours both for clarification and verification. It was in these negotiations that the students made out the teacher's intent regarding the tasks they had to perform.

Teaching was mostly textbook oriented and instructional-material oriented. Both the teachers and students needed written records of what the teacher had taught partly because of their concern for examinations. The teachers invariably referred to the textbook or instructional material at some point in the lesson. In some classes, the teacher instructed the students to underline phrases in the textbook. Underlining appeared to be a form of summarizing or outline which most of the other teachers gave. Some outlines were in the form of handouts, others in the form of notes on the chalkboard. The students appeared to rely heavily on handouts and notes. Classwork and homework assignments consisted of answering comprehension questions found at the end of a chapter or section in the textbook, completing workbook exercises or worksheets which consisted of exercises such as question-answer, completion of blanks, construction of diagrams and charts, etc. Homework was mostly individual work with an occasional group project.

Finding 4. The students interacted with a variety of graphics in the classroom.

The students interacted with a fairly large quantity of graphics representing all the knowledge structures in the Knowledge Framework. There were representational pictures (Levie & Lentz 1982) which appeared singly or in a sequence. There were picture stories which the students had to read and understand. There were series of pictures showing procedures. Non-representational pictures (Levie & Lentz 1982) included maps of different kinds, showing political divisions, physical features, economic classifications, routes, locations and demographics. Graphic organizers usually appeared in the form of trees or time lines. In mathematics and geography classes, the students had to draw, interpret, and answer questions on graphic representations of quantitative data such as bar graphs, line graphs, pie charts, pictographs and other charts. In addition, they had the chance once every two weeks to interact with computer graphics which they created by programming.

Whether or not teachers drew students' attention to textbook illustrations depended on the teacher and the illustration. The teachers usually drew the students' attention to maps and charts which explain the text. Sometimes, the teacher built graphics on the chalkboard while presenting the lesson. Other times, the students had to answer questions on graphics displayed on the chalkboard either in writing or orally. Some of the teachers prepared their own graphics on handouts and worksheets. The teachers went over the graphics with the students before requiring them to do exercises on the graphics.

However, I should add that the variety of graphics the students encountered in no way signifies that the teachers did not attach importance to the written word. Quite the contrary, teaching and learning were mostly text-based, hence the teachers' constant complaint about the students' low written language proficiency. Only in practical lessons in the prevocational school did the teachers and students rely on graphics more than on texts.

Finding 5. The students encountered different knowledge structures in instruction

The students encountered text representing different knowledge structures in different subject areas. They were also provided with opportunities to practise various skills. However, it was only in language classes that the teacher pointed out linguistic devices. Some examples of knowledge structures in instruction are shown in Figure 7. This figure shows examples of knowledge structures in written text, in oral discourse, and in graphic form with which form-one students interacted. In other words, the Knowledge Framework is common across languages and cultures. These knowledge structures represent knowledge input or available schema (Carrell 1988) which should be retrievable in English. But are they? To answer this question, I attempted to find out these students' awareness of knowledge structures and academic graphic literacy.

1710

Figure 7. Knowledge Structures Form-One Students Encountered in the Classroom

CLASSIFICATION	PRINCIPLES	EVALUATION/ VALUES
Math: classifying statistical representation Geog: classifying problems HK people face Sci: defining solvents & solutes Lang: categorizing genres in written Chinese	Chi. Hist: explaining causes & effects of the Boxer Rebellion Hist: explaining causes of the decline of the Roman Empire Sci: drawing conclusions from solubility experiments Fashion Design: learning general and safety rules of the clothing workshop	Chi.Lit: discussing the right way to deal with people S.S.: discussing advantages of living in cities Writing: writing on the advantages and disadvantages of watching television Ethics: debating whether form-one students should date
Sci: comparing solubility of solvents Math: comparing bar graphs and histograms Hist: comparing Confucianism with Taoism Fashion Design: labelling parts of a skirt	Sci: following laboratory experiment procedure Hist: drawing time line of events in Alexander the Great's life Religion: completing time line of events before Jesus' crucifixion Chi. Hist: telling stories of the Three Kingdoms Fashion Design: following patterning procedure	Writing: writing on 'Emigrating to a foreign country: My views' Math: doing project on preference of brand name sports wear; choice of extracurricular activities
DESCRIPTION	SEQUENCE	CHOICE

Knowledge structure awareness and graphic literacy of Hong Kong students

Finding 6. The students could present knowledge in graphic form after explicit teaching

Similar to a study I conducted in Vancouver, B.C. (Tang 1991a), findings of this study showed that the students experienced no difficulty representing knowledge graphically after they had been explicitly taught. In a group project in which the students in the Chinese middle school had to represent the findings of a survey in graphic form, all the six groups successfully completed the task. They were successful because all the steps had been explicitly taught and they had understood the technique of showing quantity or frequency by means of a graphic. They understood how to use graphics to represent, organize and interpret (Levin, Anglin, & Carney 1987) information. They were able to choose the most suitable format to display their data. Moreover, they tried to make the project more interesting by decorating it with pictures, photographs, and symbols.

Finding 7. The students understood graphics in instructional materials

Interviews with individual students showed that they understood the representation as well as the function of textbook illustrations. I randomly chose a number of students from different schools and asked them to tell me what each textbook illustration was about. There were graphics representing different knowledge structures. They included the following:

- pictures which elicited a story;
- comparison charts comparing the characteristics and genres of two chapters;
- classification charts and trees which categorized various objects and activities;
- diagrams with arrows showing cause-effect;
- maps which defined political divisions and described locations;
- cycles which showed principles, e.g., the water cycle; and
- signs and symbols, e.g., question marks which showed choice and decision making and checks and crosses which signified choice and evaluation.

According to the students, the teachers drew their attention to all illustrations, hence their understanding and accuracy of explanation.

The students relied on the form, the shape, the title, headings, and labels to construct meaning from graphics. They looked at the shape first and formed a judgment. Then they looked at the title to verify their first impression, and the headings or labels if the graphic was in Chinese. When they knew the language, they took advantage of it to interpret non-representational graphics. Representational pictures were usually more easily interpreted.

Finding 8. The students were able to construct meaning from graphics presented in English.

The students who had encountered certain graphic forms in Chinese could make out the meaning of similar graphics presented in English. I interviewed a number of students to find out their understanding of graphics taken from English textbooks used in Vancouver. The graphics represented all the knowledge structures in the Knowledge Framework. The interviews show that with their limited English, the form-one students could make out accurately what many of the graphics were about. It is remarkable that a graphic in English could elicit their prior knowledge acquired in Chinese. They had no difficulty identifying maps and street maps. They recognized visual cues (Hurt 1989) such as the compass points, the scale, and the legend. They seemed to be familiar with classification trees, a graphic form common across languages. All the students could explain a cycle accurately when it was a picture-word diagram. When there were no pictures or symbols to help them, they looked at the shape and, with the help of prior knowledge, made an intelligent guess. The students were aware of the knowledge structures of sequence and principles. They were also aware of simple visual cues (Hurt 1989) such as arrows which could show either procedure or causes.

Quantitative graphics were easily recognized. Bar charts and line graphs, with the coordinate axis, the x axis and y axis are common across cultures. So are pie charts and pictographs with Arabic number labels and the '$' and '%' symbols. The students were familiar with the different forms of graphics for displaying survey data. In the same way, they could identify time lines and time charts without hesitation. They recognized arabic numbers as well as the abbreviations 'B.C.' and 'A.D.', e.g., 220 B.C., which could be found in their Chinese history books.

These findings support the thesis that certain comprehension input in Chinese is retrievable in English. I suggest that graphic representations of knowledge structures are the tools for effecting the activation.

Discussion

The above examples are but a sample of the data collected. However, they have contributed to some interesting findings. In the first place, knowledge structures as defined by Mohan (1986) are reflected in the curriculum and instruction of Form One classes. They are present in academic Chinese discourse and English discourse. Knowledge structures are common across languages and can, thus, be used for building students' available background knowledge learned in the students' L1 as well as for activating prior knowledge when they learn content knowledge in a second language.

Hong Kong students encounter many of the knowledge structures in graphic form in their learning particularly in prevocational or practical subject disciplines. Many graphic forms and textbook illustrations are common across languages. Moreover, Hong Kong students enjoy a high level of graphic literacy. They are aware of different graphic representations and they interact with graphics. They can read and write graphics after they have been taught. They can also construct meaning from different graphic forms. Besides, they can understand graphic representations of knowledge structures presented in a second language. This finding suggests that semiotic acts (Hodge & Kress 1989) within the same culture, e.g., the culture of lower secondary textbook illustrations, may be performed successfully across languages.

It appears that graphic representations of knowledge structures can be used to bridge Chinese-medium and English-medium content teaching. They can be used (1) in Chinese-medium situations to input available prior knowledge. (2) They can also be used in English-medium situations to activate or retrieve ESL students' prior knowledge learned in Chinese. The classroom model described earlier can, thus, be used in secondary schools in Hong Kong to bridge Chinese-medium and English-medium instruction.

Many of the teachers I observed did incorporate some of the components of the classroom model in their teaching. For example, some teachers pointed out to the students the conventions of textbook illustrations, such as the title, the form, headings, and labels. They can go further by making use of graphics to present information and, perhaps, setting examination questions in graphic form as well. I also came across teachers setting tasks which required the students to represent knowledge and data in graphic form. There were occasions when the students had to interpret graphics and represent them in spoken and written language. In other words, isolated bits and pieces of the model were found in some of the classrooms observed but the tasks were neither systematically nor regularly assigned.

The classroom model described earlier is, thus practicable. It is not an entirely novel proposal. Many teachers are already conducting some of the suggested tasks in their classrooms. What is needed is for both language and content teachers, Chinese-medium and English-medium, in L1 and L2 situations, to realize the potential of the conceptual framework on which the model is built, and use the Knowledge Framework systematically and regularly for curriculum and lesson planning and implementation. Language and content teachers will then be able to cooperatively bring about the building, availing and activating of prior knowledge to enhance ESL student learning of content knowledge. They will be developing the students' language proficiency and preparing them for English-medium instruction at the same time.

Conclusion

Finally, this is a brief introduction to an approach which may prove effective in bridging Chinese-medium and English-medium instruction. It is not meant to be a bridging course which provides 'an intensive, cross-curricular, three-month English language development program' (Hong Kong Bank

Foundation 1993), nor does it wish to replace the three-month programme. It is a long-term approach which bridges Chinese-medium and English-medium instruction by addressing the teaching of English proficiency and content-area subject matter simultaneously. The Knowledge Framework is widely adopted in schools in Vancouver. A large-scale project, the Vancouver School Board Language and Content Project based on the Framework (Early et al. 1989) has been launched to increase the academic achievement of English as a second language students and low English proficiency students. Both teacher feedback and research results have been positive. However, further research has to be conducted to establish its effectiveness in the Hong Kong situation.

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談談漢語方言與語文教學

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題目叫《漢語方言與語文教學》我想首先把漢語方言的概念略作說明。漢語方言常常是跟漢民族共同語——普通話相對着來說的，它是漢語的地方變體，也就是說，方言是某一個地區流通的交際語，不是全民族共同使用的交際語。這裏所說的粵語——以廣州話和香港話為代表的地方方言，是現代漢語七大方言之一。七大方言除了粵方言外還有北方方言(官話)、吳方言、湘方言、贛方言、客家方言和閩方言。國內出版的大學文科《現代漢語》教材，使用最多的如胡裕樹主編的和黃伯榮、廖序東主編的《現代漢語》，就都是採用這個「七大方言」說，中國大百科全書《語言文字卷》也用的是漢語七大方言說。方言是口頭交際的工具，作為書面的交際工具，各個方言區基本上都是採用標準的共同語來書寫，來創作。唯有我們的粵方言，在各大方言中確實比較特殊。香港的粵語不但是口頭上的交際工具，而且還在一定程度上進入了書面語，被寫到了某些印刷品和出版物中。打開一份本港的中文報紙，既有共同語，又有方言，某些版面以共同語為主，另一些版面卻又是粵方言的天地。這種在書面語中容納方言成分的現象，是別的方言區所沒有的，堪稱是「只此一家，別無支店」。我們的麻煩正好出在這裏，文章也就從這裏做起。作為口頭交際工具的方言跑到書面語中來了，跟共同語爭起地盤來了。我們的語文老師該怎麼辦，容忍乎？抵制乎？容忍可以容忍到甚麼程度，抵制又該抵制哪些東西？多年來我們的語文老師常常遇到這種「兵臨城下」的困境，眼看粵語的影響給教學帶來干擾。造成教學的許多困難，確有不少的苦惱。我說，既來之，則安之。面對現實，合理對待，既要有所抵制，也要有所寬容。從中文教學的目標出發，從學生的寫作實際出發，該寬則寬，需嚴便嚴，掌握分寸，實事求是，我想問題總是可以解決的。

為甚麼要寬嚴結合，為甚麼要說「該寬則寬」？這會不會被看作是和漢語規範化的精神相左？我想是不會的。今天我們所處的社會，是一個凡事都要相互寬容，不要劍拔弩張的社會，我們國內常說「安定團結」，就是指整個社會環境來說的。社會是如此，學校教育也是如此。我們的教育要造就一批批關心社會，服務社會的人材，必須培養學生、培養年輕一代具有寬闊的胸懷，能容納不同的意見才好。李學銘先生在第二屆中文科課程教

材教法研討會上就發表了這方面的意見，這對於我們面對香港的語言環境來考慮共同語和方言的問題，無疑也會有一定的啟發。漢民族共同語——普通話是全國人民共同使用的交際語，在國內，推廣普通話是一項基本的語文政策，在各個方言地區，特別是像廣東、福建這樣方言複雜的地區，非大力推廣全民共同的普通話不可。因為沒有一個共同的語言，必然會給各地人民的交往，國家的建設和社會的發展帶來許多的困難，一個有明確規範而又能在全民族暢通無阻的民族共同語，往往被視為這個民族文明水準和文化發達的重要標誌。可是，我們在全國各地大力推廣普通話，並沒有要消滅各地方，禁止方言流通的意思。方言和普通話都是人民之間長期使用的交際工具，在方言地區推廣普通話，目的只是要使這個地區的人民從只說本地方言過渡到既說本地方言又說普通話。也就是說，既掌握和本地人民交際的工具，也掌握和外地人民，和全國人民交際的工具，從單一的語言生話過渡到雙語的生活，在掌握共同語的同時，明確把共同語作為社會上共同的交際工具，也就是在大範圍內使用的交際工具，而把方言留作家庭親友之間的交際工具，也就是在小範圍內使用的交際工具。這樣就使民族共同語處於主導的地位而使地方方言處於從屬的地位了。正確理解方言與共同語的這種主從關係以後，說方言的人儘可以在自己的方言區跟自己的親朋用方言進行交際，用不着擔心會有人干涉，會受到歧視。在這個問題上，我個人歷來的看法是：一要「推普」，二要發揮方言的作用。我認為廣東省一方面大力開展「推普」，一方面照常讓一部份電台、電視台用方言播送新聞和娛樂節目，並無甚麼不妥。當然，在節目的安排上一定要注意體現普通話為主的精神，也一定要讓廣大民眾有更多的機會通過廣播和電視學習普通話。國內的情況是如此，既大力推廣普通話，又適當容許方言發揮作用，這豈不就是實事求是，有所「寬容」的精神！現在讓我們回到香港的現實中來，香港的幾百萬炎黃子孫，早就有了一個公認的語言環境——粵語的環境，無論你來自大陸的哪一個省，或是來自台灣，到了這個地方，便都自發地學起粵語來。粵語在這裏是中國人共同使用的交際工具，這是客觀現實，誰也否定不了。在這樣的語言環境中，既缺乏把普通話作為全港人民共同使用的「共同語」的基礎，又不可能指望港英政府甚麼時候會拋出一套推行普通話的政策來，粵語的主導地位如此明確，如此穩固，我們能不尊重粵語的作用，能不在語文教學中適當容忍一部份粵語成分的介入嗎？對待粵語的態度至關重要，因為在此時此地，對待粵語的態度將直接影響我們語文教師在語文教學中對待「粵語干擾」的態度，從而也影響到我們面對現實，如何採取措施來提高學生的語文水平，提高教師的語文教學質素。「容忍」的態度可不是消極的而是基於語言應用多元化的客觀事實，基於粵語在香港社會中所發揮的作用和擔當的角色而形成的觀

念。樹立了這個觀念，遇到學生在書面語寫作中出現粵語的成分，也就一定會有所分析，有所區別，不至於要嘛無所適從，聽之任之，一概容納，要嘛通通關閘，一刀斬絕，一概排斥，不讓任何方言詞語有立錐之地。這中間，如何掌握分寸，如何抉擇取捨，正是語文教師水準高低的具體檢驗。

在考慮如何掌握分寸時，我們不能不轉到中文科教學目標這個題目上來。一般認為，中文科的目標就是要培養學生閱讀的能力和提高他們寫作中文的水平。寫作的訓練總是要有樣板可依，有範文可學的。既然中文科教材所選的白話文都是用標準共同語寫作的名篇，學生學寫白話文，自然也就要往掌握好共同語的方向去努力。一旦偏離這個方向，學生的筆下不是用標準白話文的要求來寫文章，定然要影響寫作水準的提高。這顯然是任何一位中文科教師所不願意看到的。假如我們可以換一個比較靈活的提法來作為中文教學的目標，不是局限於閱讀能力的培養和白話文寫作能力的提高，而是把目標放在培養學生語文表達的能力上，這種表達能力實際上既包括書面的表達也包括口頭的表達，我們的中文課程就變成既是提高寫作水平的課程也是提高語言實踐能力的課程。這一來，對於某些方言成分的「干擾」，大概就用不著那樣緊張了。今天的青少年學生，生活在現代化的社會環境裏，既需要有一定的口語表達能力，也需要有一定的書面寫作能力，兩方面都能夠對付，才算得上是合規格、合標準的學生。語言交際面向社會，在多元化的社會中，要是硬性規定社會上廣為流行的方言詞語一個也不准上口，不准下筆，勢必影響學生充分發揮他們的語言表達能力和書面寫作才華。羣眾語言中生動活潑的，最能傳神的東西，往往以方言的面目出現在你的面前，你張嘴說話，提筆寫作，能夠視若無睹，只顧「標準」，只講「規範」嗎？再說我們的學生既要面向民族國家，面向充滿活力的新時代新世界，也要面向本鄉本土，本港本埠。看來，對待方言「干擾」的問題，確非採取較為靈活，適當「寬容」的態度不可。倘若我們的語文教學能夠建立在「兩點論」的認識基礎上，既注意使學生從範文中學到規範性較強的寫作本領，也注意不排除在語文實踐中適度接納一點生動傳神，充滿時代氣息和生活氣息的方言詞語，以這些方言詞語來豐富，補充書面的漢語，來提高自己的表達水平。這樣，當教師的就不能只是照本宣科，一味要求學生學著範文「如法泡製」，而應該同時引導學生正確選擇，運用那些充滿生活氣息的口語成分，揚棄那些粗俗而無助於增強表現力的方言成分。這對於語文教師來說，要求自然就更高了。要靈活，要掌握分寸，就得調查研究，了解情況，才能做到心中有數。既要調查方言詞語在報刊文字中出現的情況，影響的大小，包括有哪些已進入文學作品和字(詞)典中；更要調查學生在語文作業中使用方言詞語的情況，歸納類別，

統計頻率，分析原因，探求根源。有了調查研究的基礎，加上老師們對於如何對待語文教學中的方言問題已有了較為明確的認識，並掌握一定的原則性和靈活性，這樣一來，面對學生寫作中的方言「干擾」，也就可以胸有成竹地來加以合理解決了。當然我這裏所說的調查研究，並不一定都要由每一位老師自己來做，有關的語文教育機構可以組織力量來做，學校裏同一科的教師也可以結合本校的實際集體來做。大眾的力量總比個人的力量大，調查研究的成果大家可以共享共用，豈不是很好的事情。上次在中文科課程教材教法研討會上，港大教育學院課程學系鍾嶺崇先生和德望學校張瑞文老師宣讀的一份關於中學中文教師對待學生作文中使用方言詞語態度的調查報告，就很能說明問題。這項調查使我們了解了許多實在的情況，打開了我們的思路，我認為是很有價值的。

談了半天，老師們一定要問：那你認為方言詞語進入學生的寫作作業時，到底有沒有明確的取捨範圍，有沒有「開門」和「關閘」的準則呢？下面就來談點個人對這些問題的看法：

1. 寫作的內容和寫作的形式息息相關。語言風格往往配合文章的體裁，這是很自然的。就拿香港每天出刊的幾十種報紙來看，社會、政治、經濟版，國內外要聞版等比較莊重一點的報導文字，跟地方信息版、娛樂版、體育版以及各種消遣性的副刊等等，使用的語言文字，風格上就有明顯的不同。方言詞語、方言句式等出現的頻率，後者肯定要比前者大得多。《馬經》版之類的文字，幾乎純屬口語化，作者不會顧及甚麼白話文的規範問題，也不存在掌握使用方言詞語的尺度問題，這類副刊即令是純方言化，完全用粵語來撰寫，也不會有多少人來反對。新聞版可就完全不一樣，新聞報導要求用詞準確性規範性，既然是用中國白話文編發稿件，傳遞新聞，就應該儘量使用比較合乎共同語規範的語言，除非是生活氣息很濃的地方新聞，適當用個把方言詞語尚無不可，如果在政論評述中，老是出現「搞掂」「輸晒」「執笠」一類的詞語，恐怕就會招來非議了。廣州市讀者最多的羊城晚報，就曾經因為在第一版的新聞報導中用了一個粵語語詞「皮草」而忽略了加上必要的註解，就收到了讀者的批評信。此地的讀者大概不會關心報紙上的語言問題，但作為報紙本身來說，從不斷提高辦報質量的要求出發，語言問題當然也就不容忽視了。報紙的情況是如此，學生的習作呢？我想可以依此類推。儘管學生作文並非都要「上報」，但報紙的體裁、類別，也差不多可以包括學生習作的文體類型了。因此，剖析報紙上不同版面，不同內容在語言文字上的要求，同樣也就可以用來作為對待學生習作語文要求的參

考。讓學生寫一篇生活日記，我認為用一點生活中常用的口語詞匯，包括用一點常見的粵方言語詞，只要用得自然恰切，上口通暢，無疑應該可以允許，由于適當運用口語化的詞語而使文章顯得更加生動活潑的，甚至還值得表揚，值得提倡。說實在，衡量這類生活小品語文質素的關鍵不在於是否使用了不合共同語規範的方言詞語，而在於方言詞語的運用是否恰當，是否有助於增強表現力。即令通篇一個方言詞語也不用，寫出來也不一定就是一篇好文章。只要善於遣詞造句，純粹使用共同語還是使用共同語而又間中摻進少量方言成分，都可以認為是合格的，也都有可能把文章寫好。

2. 有一些地方色彩很濃的，反映本地事物或本地風土習俗的詞語，用共同語往往難以準確傳神，學生作業中如果出現這類方言詞語，應是無可非議的。例如香港粵語中常見的大眾食品名稱「鳳爪」、「燒賣」、「腸粉」、「啫喱」、「蛋撻」、「裹蒸」之類，動作行為常用詞「行街」「飲茶」「沖涼」「返工」之類，特有事物「船民」、「太空人」、「徙置區」、「大飛」、「蛇頭」之類，有的即使能對譯為共同語，也不大容易保持原有的神韻，如「飲茶」的「飲」可以對譯為「喝」，但「飲茶」如果說成「喝茶」，就顯示不出粵方言區人民這種獨特的生活方式——「上茶樓飲茶」的風味來。這一類地方色彩很濃的方言詞語，如果學生在作業中用上了，我想也可以認可，不必多所指責。

3. 有些屬於「兩可」的情況：既有共同語的語詞，又有本地方言的語詞，原則上應該寬容，給運用者以自由抉擇的機會。主要根據使用的場合和語言的環境來決定取捨。不同的文體有不同的語言風格，同樣的事物在不同的地區有不同的叫法，這是完全正常的。只要不發生誤會，不妨礙理解，也就沒有必要強求一致。「超級商場」和「自選商場」，「幼稚園」和「幼兒園」，「單車」和「自行車」，「冷氣機」和「空調機」，儘管叫法不同，卻不妨礙彼此理解；還有一些粵方言的詞語近幾年來大有「南詞北上」之勢，不少粵方言區以外的人也在使用，例如「寫字樓」、「小巴」、「大巴」、「酒店」、「賽事」、「爆棚」之類，外省人也不生疏了。此地的中、小學生生於斯、長於斯，他們當然是習慣於使用這類本地「自產自銷」的詞語，我們也沒有必要非要他們把「寫字樓」改為「辦公樓」，把「小巴」改為「小公共汽車」不可。這類「兩可」詞語隨着中國改革開放形勢的不斷發展，今後還會有增無減。值得注意的是：一部分粵方言的常用詞如巴士、勤力、掃把、水喉、車身、炒魷魚等，已被收入1989年出版的《現代漢語詞典(補編)》中了。這些語

詞雖然仍被標明為「方言」，但既然規範化的共同語詞典收了進去，至少說明這些方言詞使用頻率較大，而且本方言區以外也有人在用，是頗為引人注目的。倘若我們的學生在語文作業上用了這一類方言詞，老師們當然不宜多加指責同樣應該給予認可。

4. 受社會歷史背景和外來文化的影響，香港人說粵語還常常夾雜一點英語語詞，這種現象在年青人中表現尤為突出。既然說話夾用了英語，寫到筆下也就難免夾用英文。對這類現象我們語文老師該如何看待，我說這也不能一概而論，有的可以接受，有的卻不宜「開閘」。比方說：一些日常使用的概念和事物，本是地道「土產」，已有我們祖先代代傳下來的詞語可供運用，可是當今此地有的青年人卻動輒安個洋詞兒來表達，算是趕時髦吧！至少像我們這把年紀的「老土」，聽起來總覺得非驢非馬，怪不自然的。明明可以說「男朋友」「女朋友」，非常貼切明白，為什麼偏要來個boy friend、girl friend呢？還有甚麼「玩得夠唔夠happy」，「他order我」，「我follow佢」之類，寫到白話文中來，我想總不能說是「生動活潑」的表現！至於某些此地口語中大家都習慣直接使用英語的個別概念，如D.J.（節目主持人）之類，學生們筆下夾上個把，為數不多，還是可以「通過」，不必苛責。當前不少外來詞語，由於對譯漢語的方式不一，使用的語言（方言）也不一致，便導致同一事物進入漢語書面語後面孔各異，特別是一些人名、地名、商標等，香港習慣使用的粵語譯名跟共同語的譯名相差很遠，英國首相梅傑譯為「馬卓安」，美國總統布什譯為「布殊」，前英國首相、「鐵娘子」撒切爾譯為「戴卓爾」，還有一些著名「牌子」如「聲寶」實為「夏普」（Sharp），「錦囊」實為「佳能」（Canon），「平治」（汽車）實為「奔馳」（Benz），如此等等，只要粵語還會長期作為香港中國同胞的母語存在下去，這類譯名就不大可能統一起來。反映到語文教學中，學生的作業只能用習慣了的本地譯名，當教師的只能聽其自然，也不必計較這類譯名與共同語有多大的差別了。但有一點似可留意：倘若學生筆下拋開已有的兩種譯名（粵語、普通話）都不用，自己卻又隨意按原文對譯出一個與眾不同的譯名來，結果誰也不懂。對這種未能約定俗成的「創作」，就該有人來管一管，而不能聽之任之。老師要給學生指出，譯名是具有社會性的，任何譯名都必須達到約定俗成的要求，得到社會的認同，決不能自作主張，各行其事，憑個人的喜好辦事。

5. 有一種情況是粵方言的某個方言詞語直接用常用的同音漢字書寫出來，結果其字面涵義和實際內涵掛不上鈎，本地人讀出音來便

可理解，而外地人不懂粵語則茫茫然不知所云。這類方言詞語在白話文的寫作中倒是應該儘量避免。例如「而家」表示「現在」，「點解」表示「為甚麼」，「邊度」表示「哪兒」，如果學生的作文充斥這類詞語，就值得注意了。通常所謂方言成分對書面共同語的干擾莫過於此。另外也有一些語詞，共同語詞典中已有明確含義，現在本地方言用起來意思卻又有些出入，實際上已在一定程度上脱離共同語的軌道了。這類語詞用起來也得小心，以免產生誤會。例如「廣場」一詞，原指敞開的、廣闊的場地，一般是露天的。《現代漢語詞典》的釋義是：「面積廣闊的場地」、「特指城市中廣闊的場地」，我想應該對應於英語中的Square。但現在香港到處用來指商業大廈，大型建築物、寫字樓之類，已不限於露天，用英語來對譯，也不儘是Square了。大家熟悉的如「新城市廣場」，其中「廣場」一詞就叫plaza，還有甚麼「交易廣場」，「財經廣場」、「置地廣場」、「紅磡廣場」、「長沙灣廣場」——，這陣「廣場」風近年來隨着房地產熱的興起又刮向內地沿海一帶及珠江三角洲，目前已有不少號稱「廣場」的大廈紛紛推出發售，這是否意味着「廣場」的意義正在擴展之中？規範化不是束縛語言發展的繩索，規範是在因勢利導中進行的。我想，在學生筆下，遇到寫及這類號稱「廣場」的建築大廈時，照錄原名應該不成問題，但作為教師，是否可以引導一下，告訴學生廣場的原義，說明廣場實為Square，用作大廈還不是普遍的現象，多少帶有方言色彩。這樣，學生也就明白「愛丁堡廣場」、「皇后像廣場」中的「廣場」才是這個詞的普遍用法，把一般與特殊，共同語與方言關係通過這個具體事例適當的闡釋一下，不是對於提高學生的語文運用能力，可以有幫助嗎？

6. 語法上的問題不會太大，因為方言跟共同語在語法上的差異並不突出。粵方言有一些常見的特殊語法現象，為避免學生在作業中用上，可以考慮先入為主，從正面加以引導。教師不妨把「我先走」「食碗添」一類狀語後置的現象以及「經已」(已經)、「擠擁」(擁擠)、「緊要」(要緊)、「人客」(客人)之類構詞成份次序不同等突出的粵語語法現象告訴學生，我想學生是會注意防止把這類方言成分引入書面語的寫作中來的。

上面談的幾點意見，總的來說就是希望老師們在對待方言口語與書面語之間的矛盾時、既要有所規範，又要有所寬容。語文教學不單純是寫作教學，寫作上對語言規範的掌握要注意寬嚴得當，而口語表達上則又不妨多加寬容。語文教學既要使學生能寫出較為通順的白話文，也要使學生在智力方面能得到充分的發展，以提高其口語交際的能力。前者無疑需要對

方言成分的出入有分析地作出必要的限制，而後者原則上是不存在方言詞語能否介入的問題的，因為口頭語言表達能力的培養是通過任何語言形式(共同語或方言)都有可能達到的，而書面語言的寫作訓練，則非有明確的規範要求不可。事實上，任何一種有影響的語言，對書面語言的規範化要求都比較嚴格而對口語表達則往往比較寬容。拿英語來說，日常口頭交際用語不可能要求句句都嚴格合乎語法規範，但寫到紙上，印到出版物上的書面語言，卻不允許出現有不合乎語法規則的語句，至於選入教科書中的範文，一般也總是規範化水準較高的優秀作品。

正視社會多元化的現實和語言多元化的現實，堅持規範與寬容相結合的方針，根據不同情況處理好方言詞語與語文教學的關係，這無疑是本港中文科教師面臨的一項重要任務。不能忘記作為書面語言(白話文)基礎的漢民族共同語是代表中華民族，代表我們祖國的語言，是聯合國使用的六種工作語言之一，沒有明確的規範，隨意滲入各種非共同語的成分當然是不行的，一個缺乏明確規範的民族語言，既不利於世界各國人民的學習和運用，也有損於這個民族的形象。我們的學生如果要求自己能寫出面向全國，面向全世界的中文佳作，就一定要注意自己筆下的語言規範問題，不可隨便濫用方言土語；倘若把要求放低一點，只是要學生通過語文訓練達到一般能夠順利運用文字表情達意，只是立足於面向本地社會，那就可以在規範化語言方面適當放寬尺度了。當前我們語文教師在教學中遇到的難題，多少跟教學目標還不太明確，教學要求似乎仍游移於可高可低、亦高亦低的情況下有關。「解鈴還需繫鈴人」，最有實踐經驗的人最有發言權。能為中文科教學排憂解難的，畢竟還是有豐富實踐經驗的老師們。我在這裏談了半天，能不能也起一點參考作用，那就要請老師們來裁定了。

附記：本文是詹伯慧教授在語文教育學院中文系演講的演講稿。

俗字瑣談

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我們若能認識四五千字，閱讀一般性的書刊大概可以應付得來了。但同是一個字往往有不同的寫法，有正體，有俗體（包括今天通行的簡體字），而書刊用字并非「定於一尊」，所以基本上是四五千字，實際上卻遠遠不止此數。例如「埶」是正字，唐代又作「蓺」、「藝」①，今天簡字又作「艺」，都是俗字。同例的很多，使我們讀古今書籍增加了不少麻煩。現在許多香港、台灣人看不懂內地出版的刊物，許多內地人看不懂香港、台灣出版的刊物，主要原因是在於同字異形；而同異形的主因是由於俗字大量產生。

從通用的立場說，文字本無正俗之分，約定俗成的所謂標準字根本是正俗糅雜，連一般字典辭書也不能分別。我們寫字也不必像清代學者尤其是小學家，用的都是正體字，反而令人費解。

甲骨文和金文裏，同字異形多至幾十個的并不稀奇，我們翻看《甲骨文编》、《金文编》便隨在可見，根本無所謂正字俗字，當然也無所謂標準字。到了秦始皇「一法度」，「書同文字」，才有字形標準，但當時李斯、趙高、胡毋敬所作的標準字書早已亡佚，漢代司馬相如《凡將篇》、楊雄《訓纂篇》、班固《續訓纂》也蕩然無存，只有史游《急就篇》因唐初顏師古注而留存下來。但今天所見二○一六字的明抄本《急就篇》，字形已經面目全非，其間元明坊本中常見的俗字和錯體字如「[illegible]」、「[illegible]」、「[illegible]」、「[illegible]」、「[illegible]」……等佔了百份之五以上。幸而許慎《說文解字》十五卷完整地流傳後世，成為字書的經典、正體的準則，雖然它的標準字形是小篆，與隸書、楷書筆畫不同，但造字的原則萬變不離其宗。

俗字一名最先見於《說文》，如《肉部》云：

「𦙄，髆也。從肉(冂)，象形。肩，俗𦙄，從戶。」段玉裁注說：「從門戶，於義無取，故為俗字。」這是一個象形兼會意的字，上部略象髆頭手臂之形，下面肉字是會意。如果寫成上戶下肉，豈不變成賣肉店子了？「於義無取」是指不符合文字構造的原則。但我們今天通用的是俗「肩」，正字反而被淘汰了。《說文》還指出「膿」、「肣」、「[illegible]」、「粳」、「豉」、「紱」、「袖」、「[illegible]」、「抑」、「灘」、「凝」、「蚊」、「塊」等都是俗字，共十多個，但在《說文》九千三百餘字中所佔比數很小。

後起俗字越來越多，在常用字中很多已經取代了正字，下面隨便舉的百來個字，引號(——)左的是正字，引號右的是俗字，由此可見一斑：

祕—秘
[illegible]—鷄
[illegible]—苔
[illegible]—屎
[illegible]—啼
[illegible]—峙
徧—遍
蹏—蹄
譔—撰
譌—訛
孚—孵
齅—嗅
[illegible]—肯
箇—個
[illegible]—袜
[illegible]—棒
[illegible]—賺
[illegible]—的
然—燃
游—遊
夢—[illegible]
[illegible]—燐
尾—[illegible]
帖—貼
[illegible]—屑
頟—額
[illegible]—腦
貍—狸
颿—帆
[illegible]—嫌
[illegible]—憩
澂—澄
谿—溪
[illegible]—擒
挂—掛
孃—娘
強—[illegible]
璿[illegible]—璇
[illegible]—[illegible]
[illegible]—碱
[illegible]—埋
赶—趕
徑—逕
齩—咬
蹋—踏
詒—貽
詗—偵
[illegible]—叩
[illegible]—制
[illegible]—剿勦
[illegible]—憂
柹—柿
[illegible]—匝
賸—剩
[illegible]—皓
暴—曝
[illegible]—晴
[illegible]—耗
蚌—蜯
別—[illegible]
弔—吊
[illegible]—涎
[illegible]—膝
确—確
[illegible]—島
[illegible]—[illegible]
沈—沉
[illegible]—黛
[illegible]—法
棲—栖
拏—拿
[illegible]—搜
緐—繁
恆—恒
荅—答
[illegible]—蝦
苣—炬
嗛—啣
迹蹟—跡
[illegible]摜—慣
效—効倣
跂—岐
[illegible]—旒
[illegible]—鞋
[illegible]—瞬
[illegible]—刖
猪—豬
[illegible]—庵菴
[illegible]—奈
[illegible]—杯盃
邨—村
[illegible]—潔
梁—樑
秆—稈[illegible]
[illegible]—蝴
[illegible]—[illegible]
[illegible]—襟衿
份彬—斌
頫俛—俯
[illegible]—擔担
匈[illegible]—胸
—[illegible]
燿—耀曜
涂—塗途
緜—綿棉
州—洲
[illegible]—撚
[illegible]—搗
[illegible]—[illegible]
繞—遶
蜨—蝶

[illegible]——劇　　鉏——鋤　　鈔——抄

輓——挽　　[illegible]——堆　　[illegible]——務

阬——阬　　耻——趾　　[illegible]——掌撐撐

諸如此類，不勝枚舉。有些正俗並行，其義無別，如「祕秘」、「夢𡖋」、「挂掛」、「棲栖」、「繞遶」之類；有些正俗並行，但意義各別，如「苣炬」、「孚孵」、「帖貼」、「匈胸」、「州洲」等。

許慎、《說文解字》，漢安帝建光元年(公元一二一)由其子許沖進於朝，全書十五卷，部首五百四十，共收九千三百五十三字。《說文》以後，由於俗字越來越多，字書的字數也相應增加，唐代以前、今已亡佚的五種名著，據唐封演《封氏聞見記》卷二「文字」條開列的數字是：

魏李登《聲類》	一一五二〇字
晉呂忱《字林》	一二八二四字
後魏楊承慶《字統》	一三七四三字
梁顧野王《玉篇》	一六九一七字②
隋陸法言等《切韻》	一二一五八字

唐至清的幾種大部頭字書，如：

唐孫愐《唐韻》	四二三八三字③
宋陳彭年等《廣韻》	二六一九四字
宋司馬光《類篇》④	五三一六五字
宋丁度《集韻》	五三五二五字
明梅膺祚《字彙》	三三一七九字
清張玉書等《康熙字典》	四七〇三五字

可見《說文》以後的字書，所收字數雖然因去取或寬或嚴而多寡不一，總之是數以萬計。

俗字大量生產的原因，多是對文字記憶有誤而又隨便書寫，後人不察，久而習非成是，這一類俗字基本上是錯體字。其次是忘記本字，另造新字，或因標奇立異而故意造字。例如《梁書・曹景宗傳》說：

> 「景宗為人，自恃尚勝，每作書，字有不解，不以問人，皆以意造焉。」

這種作風，一定寫了不少錯字。顏之推《顏氏家訓・雜藝》篇云：

> 「晉、宋以來，多能書者，故其時俗，遞相染尚，楷正可觀。不無俗字，非為大損，至梁天監之間，斯風未變。大同之末，訛替滋生，蕭子雲改易字體，邵陵王頗行偽字⑥，朝野翕然，以為楷式，畫虎不成，多所傷敗。至為一字，唯見數點⑦，或妄斟酌，逐便轉移，爾後墳籍，略不可看。北朝喪亂之餘，書迹鄙陋，加以專輒造字，猥拙甚於江南。乃以「百念」為「憂」，「言反」為「變」，「不用」為「罷」，「追來」為「歸」，「更生」為「蘇」，「先人」為「老」⑧，如此非一，徧滿經傳。」

曹景宗是梁武帝蕭衍的故交，梁的開國功臣；蕭子雲是著名文學家、史學家和書法家。他們的字對社會的影響是可以想像的，因為「皆以意造焉」，「改易字體」，自然造成不少俗字，終於「朝野翕然，以為楷式」了。

北朝的統治階級都是當年的異族，文化水平低，勉強寫漢字不免「書迹鄙陋」，也是可以想像的。例如《北史・斛律金傳》說：

「金性質直，不識文字。本名敦，苦其難署，改名為金，從其便易；猶以為難。司馬子如教為金字，作屋況之，其字乃就。」

官至大司馬、太師的斛律金也嫌「敦」字筆畫多，難寫，「憂、變、能、歸、蘇」豈不更複雜難寫？所以在「專輒造字」之中，有些字也許因為不懂得怎樣寫，才另造一個怪字出來。

在新造俗字大行其道的時候，不是沒有人要匡俗正謬，如《魏書・江式傳》載江式於北魏延昌三年(公元五一四)上書說：

「世易風移，文字改變，篆形謬錯，隸體失真，俗學鄙習，復加虛巧，談辯之士，又以意說，炫惑於時，難以釐改。……乃曰『追來』為『歸』，『巧言』為『辯』[9]，『小兔』為『䨲』，『神虫』為『蠶』，如斯甚眾，皆不合孔氏古書、史籀大篆、許氏《說文》、《石經》三字也。」

江式因而「撰集字書，號曰《古今文字》，凡四十卷」，可惜當時既不發生作用，後來連書也失傳了。甚至極力反對俗字的劉仁之，《魏書》本傳說他「性好文字，吏書失體，便加鞭撻」，也無濟於事。因為已成風氣，習慣成自然，要寫正字反而不容易。

這種風氣不獨南北朝為然，後世也差不多。唐初顏師古《漢書敍例》說：

「《漢書》舊文，多有古字，解說之後，屢經遷易，後人習讀，以意刊改，傳寫既多，彌更淺俗。」

所謂古字，是指正字。三代兩漢之書的真面目後世已不可見，那時候還沒有所謂俗字，是可以肯定的，但我們今天所見的三代兩漢之書，因「後人習讀，以意刊改」，以致俗字連篇。如果作者復生，看看自己的作品，一定有不少字是不認識的。

北宋文學家、史學家宋祁《乞禁使俗字奏》[10]說：

「伏見朝廷每有冊書詔令布下四方，而使俗作字，不據經古，及題署宮殿，率多訛略。萬民所察，百官所瞻，誠非其宜。臣且一二言之。今之『勅』字(俗字)，……若改以為『敕』(正字)，義亦無難。議者謂行之已久，變必驚俗，此非通論也。……宮殿之署，標榜高嚴，遠人朝覲，注目仰觀，學在四夷，亦不可誣。……且如今紫宸、垂拱常所御[illegible]，而[illegible]字從[illegible]、從殳；今之左偏，遂從尸下作共。[illegible]字從上，今乃作山。紫應從此，今書作此。宸應從辰，今書作[illegible]。閤門以西為西外龍門，以[illegible]代[illegible]。如此之類，不得不改。」

這反映了皇帝詔令常用的「敕」字和宮庭匾額的題字，竟然也用俗字，可見影響多麼深遠了。宋王闢之《澠水燕談錄》卷九：「仁宗天縱多能，尤精書學，凡宮殿門觀，多帝飛白題榜。」如果出於御筆，宋祁當然不敢觸犯，但不知道宋仁宗是否因此一奏而有所改正，但一般士子還是我行我素。宋孫奕《履齋示兒篇》卷九《文說》記載一件科舉考試趣事：

> 「誠齋先生楊公（萬係）考校湖南漕試，同寮有取《易》義為魁。先生見卷子上書『盡』字作『尽』，必欲擯斥。考官乃上庠人，力爭不可。先生云：『明日揭榜，有喧傳以為場屋取得個『尺二秀才』，則吾輩將胡顏？』竟黜之。」

楊萬里不取「尺二秀才」，但「尺二」一直流行到今天。

俗字在宋代大量流行，孫奕歸咎於《說文》以後的字書，《示兒編》說：「許慎《說文》之後，又有《玉篇》、《廣韻》、《類篇》、《集韻》等，字書愈廣，率皆兼載俗書，讀其書者，往往不知本始。」又說：「自俗書之亂，失其本真，後學緣訛襲舛，不可勝紀。」因此他在同書的卷十八至二十三《字說》舉列當時流行的俗字大約四百左右，並解釋所以俗訛的來由。這是一個驚人的數字，其中不少俗字現在還普徧使用，如決、[illegible]、冲、[illegible]、[illegible]、[illegible]、[illegible]、[illegible]、[illegible]、勅、效……等等。至於訃、爆、援、鴉、諦、撼、魍、魎……之類，後世已經不作俗字看待了。宋代坊刻本流傳到今天的還多，我們不難從影印本裏發現許多俗字。

元明兩代的俗字，除了繼承宋代的以外，又有不少新出籠的，特別是小說戲曲之類，隨處可見。到了清代，由於《康熙字典》的規範，俗訛的字才大量減少。

造成俗字的原因很多，我們嘗試與《說文》本字互相比較，略舉若干常用字為例，加以分析。引文以段玉裁注本為主，至於卷數、部首，一查便知，從略。

例一——因忘記本字而另造新字

《說文》：「邍，高平曰邍，人所登；从辵，[illegible]，[illegible]。闕。」[11]又：「灥，水本也：从灥，出厂下。厵（隸省作原），篆文从泉。」段注：「後人以原代高平曰邍之邍，而別製源字為本原之原，積非成是久矣。」因為忘記了邍，假借原字代替。古書中本該作邍的也一律被改為原，連屈邍也不能倖免了，甚至《玉篇》亦無此本字。而原為泉原的本義也因此被廢，俗字遂加水旁作「源」來替代。

《說文》：「[illegible]，減也：从[illegible]，衰聲。一曰[illegible]也。」又：「衰，艸雨衣，秦謂之萆。从衣，象形。」[12]後人因忘記了作[illegible]弱解的[illegible]，以作草雨衣解的衰來替代。衰的雨衣本義消失了，俗遂加艸作「蓑」代之；這種雨衣又有用竹葉做，所以又有「簑」字出現。《詩・小雅・無羊》「何蓑何笠」，毛

傳云：「蓑，所以備雨。」清陳奐《詩毛氏傳疏》說：「蓑即衰之俗」，並引《說文》此條為證。《詩經》和毛公的時代當然沒有蓑字，是後世改的。

《說文》：「凥，処也。从尸、几，尸得几而止也。《孝經》曰：『仲尼凥。』凥，謂閒凥如此。」又：「居，蹲也。从尸，古聲。」同上例，因忘卻凥字，以居為凥，居字為蹲的本義因此消失了，俗遂作「踞」字替代。許慎所見的《孝經》，首句是「仲尼凥」，但後來通通被改成「仲尼居」了。段氏居字注說：「居篆正謂蹲也，今字用蹲居字為凥處字，而凥字廢矣。又別製踞字為蹲居字，而居之本義廢矣。」(見尸部注)

例二——因部首義近而誤寫

六書中形聲字最多，多數是由兩個字合成的，一個規範字義，一個表示字音(諧聲)。如果部首字意義相近或字形相似，就常常因記憶有誤而弄錯，如果部首的字義字形都近似，自然更容易搞錯了。例如：

《說文》：「荅，小尗也。从艸，合聲。」

假借為問荅、酬荅字。因草和竹都是草木，所以誤寫部首而成「答」。但塔、剳、搭、鎝等字，卻又仍用荅，非常矛盾。又如：

《說文》：「蘀，艸木凡皮落陊地為蘀。从艸，擇聲。」

同上例，俗字又誤寫部首作「籜」。他若蔟、蓎、蕢、蓬等字，俗字又作簇、篖、簣、篷。又如：

《說文》：「紟，衣系也。从糸，今聲。」段注：「俗作衿。」《說文》：「緥，小兒衣也。从糸，保聲。」段注：「褓，俗緥字。」《說文》：「絝，脛衣也。从糸，夸聲。」段注：「今皆作袴」，是俗字。又作褲，是更後起的俗字。糸是細絲，製衣的材料，故因部首義近而誤，遂為俗字。又如：

《說文》：「旳，明也。从日，勺聲。《易》曰：

『為旳顙。』」又：「晧，日出皃。从日，告聲。」日和白不但形近，日光白色，義也相近。所以俗字誤作白旁，成為「的」、「皓」；而《周易·說卦》「為旳顙」，《詩·陳風·月出》「月出晧兮」，也被改為俗字了。又如：

《說文》：「燿，照也。从火，翟聲。」

《說文》：「煇，光也。从火，軍聲。」

火能發火，故俗字作「耀」、「輝」。段注：「煇，俗作輝。」古今字書都沒有「光」部，書寫時俗字比正字筆畫更難安排，但後世偏偏通行俗字，實在費解。

《說文》五百四十個部首，其中字義相近的頗多，如「鳥隹」、「虫䖵」、「韋革」、「骨肉」、「彳辵」等是。言從口出，所以言部和口部的字常常互調偏旁；行走用足，所以俗字往往走足不分；積土為山，所以山部字俗或從土。因此又產生了不少俗字。

例三——因部首形近而誤寫

兩個部首字義雖然差別很大，但字形相似，也容易張冠李戴。例如：

《說文》：「祕，神也。从示，必聲。」

這是神祕、祕密、祕書的正字，因示作偏旁時與禾差不多，故俗字誤作「秘」。又如：

《說文》：「睽，目不相聽也。从目，癸聲。」

引伸為乖違的意思，《周易・睽卦》今仍作睽，但一般書札以久不相見為「暌違」，卻誤作日旁，就因為目、日字形相似。又如：

《說文》：盟，《周禮》曰：『國有疑則盟……殺牲歃血，朱盤玉敦，以立牛耳。』从囧，从血[13]。……盟，古文从明。」

《說文》：「衁，血也。从血，亡聲。《春秋傳》曰：『士刲羊，亦無衁也。』」

血和皿，字義相差極遠，但字形很相似，所以俗字誤寫成「盟」、「[illegible]」。這兩個字都與血有關係，前者是常用字，後者是冷僻字，見《左傳・僖公十五年》，亦被改為俗字了。又如：

《說文》：「勮，務也。从力，豦聲。」

《說文》：「劫，人欲去，以力脅止曰劫；或曰，以力去曰劫。从力，去。」

力與刀，義異而形似，故俗字誤作「劇」、「刼」。前者段注云：「字譌从刀作劇」，正字已被廢棄不用；後者正俗并行，但一般多用俗字。又如：

《說文》：「秄，壅禾本。从禾，子聲。」

《說文》：「秏，稻屬。从禾，毛聲。……」

前者俗作「耔」，段注云：「耔，俗字」。後者俗作「耗」，都寫錯了部首。耒是犂頭的木柄，不是禾稻，義不相涉，只是字形相近而已。又如：

《說文》：「槈，薅器也。从木，辱聲。鎒，或从金。」

《說文》：「櫌，摩田器也。从木，憂聲。《論語》曰：『櫌而不輟。』」

木與耒的字形不太相似，但槈、櫌是耕田的工具，與耒同類，所以俗字便誤加兩橫畫而作耒旁，成「耨」、「耰」，連《論語・微子》也改為「耰而不輟」了。

「踏」，秔俗作「粳」或「稉」等等，都因諧聲的字「音有轉移」之故。

例四——因聯文而誤加或誤寫偏旁

明焦竑《焦氏筆乘》(續集卷五)說：

「俗於聯字，有因上誤下者，有因下誤上者。『駔儈』，誤以『儈』从馬作『驓』；『髫齔』，誤以『髫』从齒作『齠』；『蹴鞠』，誤以『鞠』从足作『踘』。此類甚多，皆一時趁筆之誤，後多沿其失而不考耳。」

這又是俗字來源之一。由兩個字合成的聯綿詞很多，「因上誤下」或「因下誤上」的很普遍，誠如焦氏所言。但也有其中一字本無偏旁的，也因另一字有偏旁而誤加。如：

《說文》：「畐，滿也。从高省，象高厚之形。」畐字本無偏旁，但「偪側」則因「側」字有人旁而誤作「偪」；「逼迫」則因「迫」字从辵而誤作「逼」。又如：

《說文》：「遘，遇也。从辵，冓聲。」

「邂遘」，也因「遘」字有辵而誤作「邂」。大徐本《說文》不知「邂」是俗字，在「新附」中增入，解釋說：「邂遘，不期而遇也。」又如：

《說文》：「局，促也。从口，在尺下，復局之。一曰，博所以行棊。象形。」

《說文》：「促，迫也，从人，足聲。」

「局促」之「局」，俗字因「促」有人旁而誤作「偈」，又有因「促」有足字而誤作「跼」，寫成「偈促」、「跼促」。又如：

《說文》：「䡩，車迹也。从車，從省。」

《說文》：「迹，步處也。从辵，亦聲。蹟，或从足、責；𨒪，籀文迹，从朿。」

段注云：「䡩……俗變為蹤，再變為踪。」「蹤」和「踪」都是俗字。「迹」字俗作「跡」，是因為誤將「迹」字的「亦」和「蹟」字的「足」混合而成。

有時候因為只記得字的諧聲字，忘掉部首，結果只寫對了一半。例如：

《說文》：「𩈣，面枯小也。从面、焦。」

《說文》：「顇，顦顇也[18]。从頁，卒聲。」

這兩個字合成聯綿詞，本作「𩈣顇」。但聯文多同偏旁，而這兩個字的偏旁相差很遠，只是用來諧聲的「焦、卒」部易記憶，所以或假借「焦萃」、「焦瘁」來代替，或因「顇」而作「顦」；通作「憔悴」，都是俗字。又如：

《說文》：「仿，仿佛，相似，視不諟也。从人，方聲。俩，籀文仿。

《說文》：「佛，仿佛也。从人，弗聲。」

段注：「仿佛，或作[illegible]佛，或作髣髴，或作拂[illegible]，或作放悲，俗作彷彿。」這種俗譌，與上同例，因為只記得「方、弗」是諧聲字，偏旁部首錯了。「髣」、「[illegible]」、「彷彿」都是俗字，後者也因部首「亻彳」形近，更易誤寫。

例五——隸變的混亂

從小篆變為隸書，謂之隸變；楷書源於隸書，故稱今隸。二者筆法雖然不同，結構卻是相同的。但篆隸之間差異頗大，不僅筆畫、結體和字形不同，規律也不如小篆嚴謹。例如《說文》屮部的三個字：

《說文》：「每，艸盛上出也。从屮，母聲。」

又：「毒，厚也。害人之艸，往往而生。从屮，毒聲。」

又：「熏，火煙上出也。从屮，从黑。屮，黑，熏象。」

「每」字的屮作「𠂉」，「毒」字的屮作「十」，「熏」字的屮作「千」，同一部首卻有三種寫法，那個變得合理呢？又如尾部的三個字：

《說文》：「屬，連也。从尾，蜀聲。」

又：「屈，無尾也。从尾，出聲。」

又：「尿，人小便也。从尾、水。」

尾字隸變作「[illegible]」。「屈」、「尿」筆畫少，卻把尾字省筆為「尸」；「屬」字筆畫多，反而不省。部首有省有不省，漫無準則，很不合理。再如夭部三字：

《說文》：「喬，高而曲也。从夭，从高省。」

又：「奔，走也。从夭，卉聲。與走同意，俱从夭。」

又：「幸，吉而免凶也。从夭，从屰。夭，死之事，死謂之不幸。」

同一部首，「喬」字的夭不變，「奔」字的夭變成「大」，「幸」字的夭變成「土」；「走」字从夭止，亦然。以上亂寫部首的幾個字，後世都認為是正字，但嚴格說也算是譌字，只有一個「喬」字是對的。

由兩字合成一字的很多，那兩個字的位置如何安排，是有定位的。如果隨意調動原則上是不對的，而且同一個字又有兩種寫法了。下面所舉的十幾組字例，引號「—」上面的是原本的定位，下面是調亂了位置：

咊——和　秌——秋　翄——翅　[illegible]——[illegible]

[illegible]——鷗　纍——縲　鞌——鞍　䛐——詞

飧——飱　槩——概　稾——稿　槀——槁

憋——[illegible]　嗸——嗷　[illegible]——魂　羣——群

畧——略　懕——懨　慙——慚

這些字變換位置後雖然不會變成另一個字，如「忠忡」、「古叶」等，但如果不依照原來的字形而隨便換位，我們的漢字豈不成了一團糟！上文所引《顏氏家訓》，說「蕭子，雲改易字體」，大概這是其中一種「改易」法吧。

也有將合體字中的一個字分拆開來寫的。例如下面從辵（隸變作辶、⻍）的三個字：

《說文》：「[illegible]，隨行也。从辵、从，从亦聲。」

又：「[illegible]，步行也。从辵，土聲。」

又：[illegible]，迻也。从辵、止。」

這三個字，隸變作「從、徒、徙」。將辵字分開作「[illegible]」，從此，字典就歸入「彳」部了。辵部的字很多，其他都分開來寫，只有這三個例外，又是一種「改易」法。又如：

《說文》：「襍，五采相合也。从衣，集聲。」

隸變作「雜」，把「集」字的「木」移到左邊「衣」字之下，字典就歸入「隹」部了。宋江少虞《皇宋實事類苑》卷五十一《字言》說：「古文自變隸，其法已錯亂，後轉為楷字，愈益譌舛，殆不可考。」說得很對。

* * * * * * * * * * * *

上面所舉的許多俗字，都從正字演變而來，積非成是已久，至今仍然通行。但如《顏氏家訓》所舉的「百念為憂」、「言反為變」、「追來為歸」、「先人為老」之類，俗之又俗，因為沒有應用上的需要，後世已不通行。這種稀奇古怪的俗字，字書亦多不收，《玉篇》成書於南北朝「專輒造字」的時代，所收如「𠒇」、「𠆤」等[15]，數量也很有限。

載錄創造怪字最多的字書是遼僧行均的《龍龕手鑑》，此書成於遼聖宗統和十五年（公元九九七），宋神宗時傳入中國[16]。清錢大昕《十駕齋養新錄》卷四「宋時俗字」說：

> 《龍龕手鑑》多收鄙俗之字，如𡕒為多，𡚻為矮，甭為棄，𡘼為暗，歪為苦乖反，𡗥為烏怪反，𡙇為寬，皆妄誕可笑，大抵俗僧所為耳。

這種造字法宋時各地也有不約而同的，如吳曾《能改齋漫錄》說：

> 夔州下俚有俗字，如以𡚻為矮，𡘼為齋，訟牒文案亦然。[17]

范成大《桂海虞衡志》卷十二「雜志」：

> 俗字：邊遠俗陋，牒訴券約專用土俗書，桂林諸邑皆然。今姑記臨桂數字，雖甚鄙野，而偏傍亦有依附：𡚻音矮，不長也；閄音穩，坐於門中，穩也；𡘯亦音穩，大坐亦穩也；仦暗嫋，小兒也；𡰪音臘，不能舉足也；門音櫖，門橫關也。他不能悉紀。余閱訟牒二年，習見之。

范成大於宋孝宗乾道八年（公元一一七二）知靜江府，府治在今廣西桂林，當年是「邊遠俗陋」的地方，所以「鄙俗之字」通行。宋孝宗淳熙年間，周去非曾任桂林通判，所著《嶺外代答》也舉了幾個當地俗字：

> 氽音酉，言人在水上也；氼音魅，言沒入水下也；閄和馘切，言隱身忽出以驚人也；𣭲音鬍，言多髭也；丼東敢切，以石擊水之聲也。[18]

「丼」是井的正字，中間的一點像汲水甕，見《說文》，但這俗字只是字形暗合而已，并非作井字用。又《說文》：「閃，闚頭門中也；从人在門中。」閄字寫成人在門外，是俗訛而已。

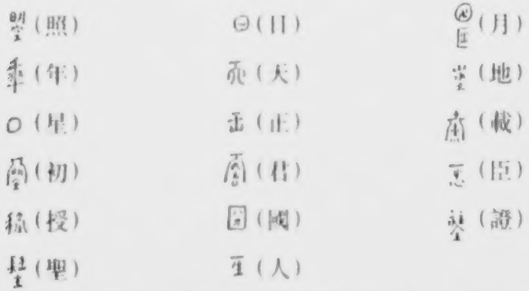
造字的風氣由來已久，作者非一，文獻可徵而作者可考的，在南北朝之前有三國時代的吳主孫休。《三國志・吳書・三嗣主傳》裴松之注引《吳錄》載孫休詔書曰：

> 禮，名子欲令難犯易避……孤今為四子作名字。太子名𩅦，𩅦音如湖水灣澳之灣；字𠁅，𠁅音如迄今之迄。次子名𩃎，𩃎音如兒觥之觥；

字䂓，䂓音如玄䙫之䙫。次子名壾，壾音如草莽之莽；字䁍，䁍音如舉物之舉。次子名㓹，㓹音如褒衣下寬大之褒；字𠅝，𠅝音如有所擁之擁。此都不與世所用者同，故鈔舊文會合作之。夫書八體損益，因事而生，今造此名字，既不相配，又字但一，庶易棄避。其普告天下，使咸聞知。

原來造字是為了容易避諱，其實這八個字有音無義，一定沒有人用的。《三國志》本傳說孫休死後，孫晧繼位，「封休太子𩅦為豫章王，次子汝南王，次子梁王，次子陳王」，只舉出太子名，其餘都不書名，按照史書體例是比較少見的，是不是連陳壽也覺得麻煩呢？

武則天也造字，因她在歷史上是重要人物，後世討論者頗多，如宋王觀國《學林》、孫奕《履齋示兒編》、趙彥衛《賓退錄》等是。據時人施安昌《從院藏拓本探討武則天造字》說⑲，武則天於載初元年(公元六八九)到聖曆元年(六九八)，共造了十八個字：一個「照」字，兩個「月」字，以及「日、年、天、地、星、正、載、初、君、臣、授、國、證、聖、人」十五字，正書外還有草書(書影五)：



這十八個字中，《舊唐書・則天皇后紀》只說：「則天皇后武氏，諱曌。」又說：「載初元年春正月，……自以曌字為名。」除了這個字，不曾提及其他。關於武則天造字的問題，因為涉及歷史、文字、書法、金石和字典各方面，千餘年來議論紛紜，而引錄這十八個字的書籍，字形也不完全一致。本文不作專題論，就此帶過。

唐范攄《雲溪友議》卷一：

「王僕射起再主禮闈，遠近稱揚，皆以文德並興望之也。武宗皇帝召至殿陛，曰：「朕近見二字，一『[illegible]』一『[illegible]』，莫能詳焉，特詢於卿。」王公對曰：「臣於三教經典，竊嘗徧覽，向者二字，羣書未之見也，未審天顏於何文得之？《周穆王傳》有『[illegible]』、『[illegible]』二字，經百儒宗，但言古馬名，不敢分於飛兔、腰褭，於今靡有詳之者也。」上笑曰：「知卿夙儒，偶為此二字相試，非於經籍中得之。」

雖然開玩笑，畢竟也是造字。

歐陽修《新五代史．南漢世家》：

「(劉)龑初名巖，又更曰陟⑳。九年(公元九二五年)，白龍見南宮三清殿，改元曰白龍，又更名龔，以應龍見之祥。有胡僧言，《讖書》：『滅劉氏者龔也。』龔乃採《周易》『飛龍在天』之義，為『龑』字，音『儼』，以名焉。」

這個建都於廣州的南漢小朝廷皇帝，改了幾次名都不合意，最後索性自己造一個來用。《易．乾卦》：「九五，飛龍在天，利見大人。」造得很有意思，但是本無其字，怎麼唸呢？音「儼」當然也是自創的了。

宋莊綽《鷄肋編》卷下：

「有伯珙者，輒為抱券人誤寫作『[illegible]』，遂仍其謬。既而試進士中第，……自注姓名音切，而求之《廣韻》、《玉篇》，凡字書中皆無『王』旁作『恭』字音，乃止以『居悚切』注之。眾皆不悟，遂形誥敕。後世當又增此一字，可笑也！」

幸而此公不是知名之士，不似孫[illegible]、武曌、劉龑，所以字書不曾「增此一字」。

總言之，俗字五花八門，成因複雜，正俗之分，一般性的字典詞書也弄不清楚，在應用上也沒有分別正俗的必要。但一個字有兩種或以上的字形，確實增加了識字的麻煩，幸虧南北朝以來所造的怪字早被揚棄，不然就更麻煩了。

附注

① 見清段玉裁《說文解字注》卷二下《示部》注。

② 原書已不可見，今本《玉篇》先後經過梁蕭愷、唐孫強及宋陳彭年增字，共二萬一千七百七十一字。今本即陳彭年本，一共增添了五千八百字。封氏說的是原著。

③ 《唐韻》已佚，據《鉅宋廣韻》(上海古籍出版社景宋本，一九八三)卷首載錄的孫愐自序，有「起終五年，精成一部，前後總加四萬二千三百八十二言」的話。

④ 舊題司馬光撰，其實是王洙、胡宿等合作的。宋英宗治平四年(公元一〇六七)，由司馬光進於朝。

⑤ 清張玉書等奉敕編撰，康熙五十五年(公元一七一六)頒行，因是欽定官書，影響極大。

⑥ 所謂偽字，如「草」作「[illegible]」、「長」作「[illegible]」之類，詳時人王利器先生《顏氏家訓集解》(上海古籍出版社，一九八〇)有關部分。按《梁書．高祖三王傳》說，邵陵王綸「博學善屬文，尤工尺牘」，寫信是比較隨便的，「頗行偽字」大概指尺牘而言。

⑦ 王利器先生說，《龍龕手鑑．雜部》：「[illegible]，古文，必堯反，今作猋，飛火也。」又云：「[illegible]，音立。」顏氏所斥，當即此等。

⑧ 王利器先生《集解》引徐鯤曰：「顧炎武《金石文字記》云：『追來為歸，見穆子容《太公碑》，作[illegible]；先人為老，見《張猛龍碑》，作[illegible]；更生為蘇，今人猶用之。』」又案：百念為憂者，《龍龕手鑑．心部》：「[illegible]，古文，於求反。志也，亦愁也。今作憂，同。」又案：不用為甭者，《龍龕手鑑．不部》：「甭，音弃。」亦今人猶用之字。

⑨ 此字後世仍用，如隋文學家柳䛒，見《隋書》本傳及《北史・文苑傳》。晚唐書法家僧人䛒光亦用以為名，字書多有之。

⑩ 四庫館臣輯本《宋景文集》卷二十七。

⑪ 各本作「高平之野」，段本據《會韻》而改。

⑫ 篆文中間作 ，像草製雨衣之形。

⑬ 「从血」，段注本作「皿聲」，疑未安，今從大徐本。

⑭ 段注云：「許書無[illegible]字，大徐增之，非也。」錢氏大昕曰：「血部之[illegible]，當是正字。」

⑮ 見卷上《一部》，說前者是「天」的古文，其實古文並無其字；後者但音「竹瓦切」，不知其義。

⑯ 宋沈括《夢溪筆談》卷十五：「幽州僧行均集佛書中字為切韻訓詁，凡十六萬字，分四卷，號《龍龕手鏡》。燕僧智光為之序，甚有詞辯。契丹重熙二年集。契丹書禁甚嚴，傳入中國者法皆死。熙寧中有人自虜中得之，入傅欽之家，蒲傳正帥浙西，取以鏤板。」按此書共二六四三〇字，不止十六萬字。

⑰ 此文不見於今本《能改齋漫錄》，據宋趙與時《賓退錄》卷五引。

⑱ 《嶺外代答》已佚，有輯本，此據《賓退錄》卷五引。又按，今粵語俗字作氽者，亦同。

⑲ 見《故宮博物院院刊》一九八三年第四期。

⑳ 按《舊五代史・僭偽列傳》：「劉陟，即劉龑，初名陟。梁貞明三年（公元九一七）八月，陟乃僭號於廣州……改名龑。」與《新五代史》稍異，其改名來由亦未言及。

中國大陸的語文教學改革

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改革是當前語文教學的主旋律，改革呼喚著理論的指導，語文教改要深化，必須深入進行語文教學的理論研究，有了語文教學理論的指導，語文教學實踐就能把握正確的方向，就能推動語文教改的深入發展。

語文教學發展的歷史證明：理論指引改革，改革發展理論。我國語文教學的歷史源遠流長，從文字的產生就開始了，而語文教學的理論研究也隨之產生。《論語》就是孔子從自己長期教育工作的實踐中總結出來的一本教育理論著作。《學記》是根據當時新興封建地主階級的要求總結當時的教學經驗，並針對當時教育上的流弊，對教育目的、教育制度、教學內容、教學原則、教學方法、學年制和成績考核以及教師問題等進行較全面而系統論述的文獻。後來，還有《朱子童蒙須知》、《程氏家塾讀書分年日程》、《讀書作文譜》、《教童子法》等，這些理論著作都是從教學實踐中總結概括出來的理論研究成果，它們對當時的教學實踐都起過指導作用，所以，教學實踐與理論研究是相輔相成，相互促進。

「五四」運動前後，民主與科學等各種新思潮風起雲湧，在「五四」新文化浪潮的沖擊和影響下，國語運動與新文學運動相互配合，形成了一個聲勢浩大的語文教改運動。改革的實踐需要理論來指引，當時國外引進了大量的教育理論著作。如柯爾文的《中學教學法》、海沃德的《欣賞之教學》、桑代克的《教學之原理》等。國內的一些語文專家紛紛投入教改實踐，開展語文教學的理論研究，力圖使語文教學具有科學性、實用性和訓練價值，相繼編寫出許多有質量的論著。如夏宇眾的《中學國文教授之商榷》、葉聖陶的《對於小學作文教授之意見》、梁啟超的《中學以上作文教學法》、黎錦熙的《新著國語教學法》、王森然的《中學國文教學概要》、阮真的《讀文教學研究》、《中學國文校外閱讀研究》、《中學作文教學研究》等等。這些著作由於來自語文教改實踐，又吸取了國外的先進的教學法理論和心理學研究成果，在當時均有較大影響。這些專著的問世，奠定了中學語文教學法理論體系的基礎，鞏固了中學語文教學法在教育科學中的地位，開拓了中學語文教學法理論研究的途徑，標誌著中學語文教學法學科理論體系的初步形成，為中學語文教學法的進一步發展作出了貢獻。

三十年代中期，各大學文科、師範教育和國專為培養中學國文師資，普遍建立國文教學法學科，對教材有了更高的要求。促使語文教育家對中學語文教材的理論體系作了更為深入而廣泛的研究，發表了許多研究成果，這是中學語文教學法學科理論研究得到發展的重要前提。

四十年代，語文教育界圍繞著語文教學實踐所面臨的一些研究課題，深入開展了關於「中學生國文程度低落」、「搶救國文」以及文言文和白話文教學改革等問題的討論，對這些問題進行理論研究，揭示了語文教學的某些規律，為中學語文教學改革起了積極的推動作用。

建國以後，蘇聯的教育理論，導致對語文學科的性質和任務有了新的認識，啟示人們對語文學科中的語文基礎知識教學和文體教學的規律作了深入研究，提高了語文教學理論水平，並結合語文教學實驗，寫出了一些語文教學理論專著，有力地推動了語文教改的健康發展。

八十年代以來，西方國家的先進教育理論大量引進，人們開始用新的觀點和新的方法來審視已經建構的語文教學法學科體系，並在理論研究上，要求對語文教學領域裏的許多重大問題作較系統、深入的更高層次的研究。

由此可見，語文教學的實踐與理論研究猶如鳥之雙翼必須協同活動，虛實結合，共同發展。

誠然，語文教學改革要取得突破性進展，光從語文教學本身的理論來考慮是遠遠不夠的，而要進行跨學科研究，要把心理學作為語文教學的理論基礎來研究。這是語文教學走向科學化的重要因素。

語文教學要以心理學為理論基礎，我們從教育史上可得到啟示，瑞士教育家裴斯塔洛齊和德國教育家赫爾巴特都主張把教學論建立在心理學的基礎上，夸美紐斯、盧梭等教育家也提出要按學生的心理特點和心理能力來安排教學，歐洲十九世紀上葉，曾發生「教育心理化」運動，裴斯塔洛齊和赫爾巴特就是這個運動的代表。當代前蘇聯教育家贊可夫竭力主張教學論要與心理學研究結合起來。他說：「學生心理的研究如果不直接作為教學論研究的一部分，那就必然會導致所提出的論述缺少根據和教條主義」。贊可夫還認為教學論和各科教學法之間存在一種相輔相成的辨正關係，新的教學論原則是在各科教學法的實驗中產生的；反過來，它又將對各科教學法起一種「指導和調節」的作用。我國三十年代教育家袁哲的《國文讀法教學原論》(1939年商務印書館出版)就是以心理學作為理論基礎，運用心理學理論去分析閱讀方法。王森然的《中學國文教學概要》(1927年商務印書館出版)主張用心理學的理論和心理測驗選編教材。艾佛的《中國文學教學心理學》等都是以心理學作為理論基礎。

心理學運用到語文教學中去，就能科學地去分析教學過程，認識教學過程中心理活動的實質、規律和作用，就能從心理學角度去分析學生的學習特點和智能的發展狀況，以利促進教學改革。教學是教師和學生雙邊活動方式的構成體，是受教與學相互依存的教學規律所制約的。教學改革的著眼點是學生，最終目的也是學生，並且要落實在學生「會學」上，這就必須把研究學生心理放在首位，把學生心理的研究作為語文教學改革的基本點，探求教材教法怎樣才能符合學生的心理，怎樣才能調動學生的積極主動性。因此，要進行教學改革，對語文教學與心理學的跨學科研究是刻不容緩的了。

語文教學與心理學聯姻是當前世界教學改革的趨勢。無論是美國的布魯納的結構主義理論、西德瓦根舍因的範例教學論、前蘇聯贊可夫的「教學與發展」新體系，抑或蘇霍姆林斯基的「合諧教育」理論，無不都是以心理學為理論依據。布魯納的教學觀叫「認知發展論」，它是以認知心理學為理論基礎的教學論，是根據皮亞杰的認知發展理論，著眼於推動學生的智慧發展階段。贊可夫的教學觀叫「一般發展論」，其指導思想是「以最好的教學效果來達到學生的最理想的一般發展。」它的根據是維果斯基的「最近發展區」理論，著眼於「現有發展區」和「最近發展區」之間的發展區域。贊可夫所提出的教學原則，都是以心理學為依據的。以瓦，根舍因和蘇霍姆林斯基所研究的教學方法與教學理論來看，它們之所以取得這樣巨大的成就，都同他們以心理學理論作為指導分不開的。

教學改革要正確處理師生聯系，歷史上曾有兩種對立的理論，即教師中心論和兒童中心論，前者是封建社會的產物，後者是資本主義上升時期的產物。這兩種理論都給我們教育工作帶來一定的危害。以教師為中心來說，學生必須跟著教師轉，應該無條件接受教師灌輸的知識。兒童中心論，即教師成了學生的尾巴，讓學生牽著教師的鼻子走。這兩者是從一個極端走向另一個極端，在處理教與學、主體與客體的關係上，有一個迂迴的發展過程。捷克教育家夸美紐斯早在十七世紀就針對封建主義壓制的兒童個性發展的教育，提出了學習主動性原則，他主張充分發揮兒童學習的主動積極性。德國教育家赫爾巴特和前蘇聯教育家凱洛夫卻相反地認為教師是教學的主體，強調以教師為中心，排斥學生在學習中的主體地位，以致影響學生智力的發展、能力的培養。德國教育家第斯多惠認為教師和學生都是教學的主體，而把教材視為教學的客體，強調要促進學生自動地得到發展，主張用問答法來啟發學生的思維，調動學生的主觀能動性。瑞士心理學家皮亞杰也強調發揮學生主動積極性。他說：「傳統的教育方法與新教育方法的對立，乃是被動性與主動性的對立」。他主張讓學生多自學、多做練習、多做實驗操作，以便充分發揮他們的主體能動性，讓他們自己去

發現、去獲取知識。知識是由兒童主動建構的。美國教育家杜威卻走向另一個極端，提倡兒童中心論。「從做中學」作為教學的基本原則，以生活化的活動代替教學，以兒童的直接經驗代替書本的知識，以學生的主動活動代替教師的主導作用。教師在教學中只能從旁輔導。二十世紀三十年代，美國心理學家斯金納，從事動物的操作性實驗。他根據動物主動操作杠桿，提出學習以學生為主體這一命題。當代人本主義心理學家馬斯洛、羅杰斯重提以學生為主體，要以此來轉變傳統的教學思想，要培養學生積極主動的探索精神，並過份強調要尊重學生的人格。因此，許多心理學家又重新研究學生在學習中的主體地位問題，相繼出現了許多新的思想和教學方法。如美國布魯納提倡的發現法，前蘇聯贊可夫的教育與發展，強化學生的主體意識。日本從一九八零年以後特別強調自主學習，每周有三個下午安排學生到圖書館看自己喜歡的書，還在高中開設一百多門選修課充分體現了自主學習的精神。

我國新時期的教育，為了培養四化建設人才，感到解決「學為主體」的重要，相繼從理論與實踐的結合上對學生在學習中的主體意識進行研究，不少特級教師在教改實踐中逐步樹立學習以學生為主體的教學思想。如特級教師錢夢龍的「以學生為主體，以教師為主導，以訓練為主綫」的和「三主」思想，特級教師潘鳳湘的「教讀法」，其中有六個讀書步驟，(默讀課文、查詞典、分小組朗讀課文、聽寫字句、做讀書練習、分小組互查互評讀書練習、教師講課、寫讀書札記和熟讀課文)除教師講課一個步驟外，其餘五步均為學生主動活動，它突出了「學為主體、教為主導」的原則。特級教師洪鎮濤以培養學生自學為主，以思維訓練為核心的課堂教學步驟：提示、設問——閱讀、思考——討論、切磋——歸納、總結——練讀、練寫。這個教學步驟真正體現了以教師為主導，以學生為主體的教學思想。如在學習新課時，教師進行簡明概括的提示，接著根據課文的知識點、能力點和教學目的揭示矛盾，創設問題情境，啟發學生積極思維，討論切磋，課堂充滿探索發現的氣氛，學生始終處在獨立思考之中。特級教師張富認為教學過程最後歸宿于學生的認識過程，學生是認識活動的主體，教師要引導學生自己去獲取知識。他說：《傳統的教學是教師講一點，學生學一點，學生只能跟著教師後面轉，壓抑了學生的創造性思維》。所以，他在教學中十分注意發揮學生作為主體的能動作用。他分「學」課和「習」課兩種課型。在「學」課中，先由學生自學，再由教師揭示。「習」課，先由教師布置題目，讓學生進行聽、說、讀、寫訓練，再由學生互評，教師講評，一步步引導，讓學生自己去學習，突出以學生為主體的地位。特級教師魏書生的「六步教學法」，也是以學生的學習為主，教師作些點撥引導，它是學習以學生為主體的充分體現。

其次，由重知識輕智能到知識、智能的辨證統一。傳統的課堂教學以傳授知識為目標，以教師講讀分析為核心，以學生獲取現代書本知識為滿足，忽視學生智力的發展、能力的培養。一九七七年、七八年各省市及全國的語文高考試卷中除作文外，基本上是知識性試題一統天下。為了適應高考要求，教學中存在著單純灌輸語文知識傾向，而對發展智力、培養能力未予以應有重視。

改革開放以來，人才問題顯得十分突出，當時許多教育界知名人士強烈要求改變傳統的教育觀念，反對把學生單純作為儲存知識的容器，提出發展智力、培養能力的要求，為四化建設培養開拓型人才。改革開放的逐步深入，國外的先進教育思想大量引進，傳統的教育觀念受到猛烈沖擊，一些富有經驗的特級教師、優秀教師顯露出他們的才華。這階段圍繞著發展智能舉行了許多教學觀摩活動。這些教學觀摩活動，各有特色，有的從教學模式上啟發學生智能，有的從教學方法上啟發學生智能，有的用提問設計來啟發智能，有的從教材改革上進行啟發，都從各個不同側面來啟發學生智能。這樣，使語文教學改革深入了一步，語文教學思想上升到一個新的層次。

教學思想的轉變，便促進了教材和教法的改革。教材是代表一個國家的水平，世界各國都在抓教材改革。這些年來，我國語文教材幾經修訂，雖在內容上作了較多變動，在原有基礎上質量有了一定的提高，但由於教材體系陳舊，教學思想不夠解放，並沒有突破《文選》型的框框。我國從南朝梁代蕭統主編的《昭明文選》開始，一千多年來，都是文章選編。如《古文觀止》、《古文標注》、《古文析義》等。年深日久，逐漸僵化，教材基本上處於散裝狀態，教材缺乏系統性，其癥結是不重視理論知識對教材的統帥作用，沒有一個科學的序列。教材內容分課文、注釋、語文知識、思考與練習，其間看不出有什麼邏輯聯系，語文教材的時代性和實踐性沒有得到充分體現，尤其是寫作教學，根本沒有教材，往往臨到上課時，想一個題目，讓學生寫，既沒有明確的要求，也缺乏統一的計劃，所以，收效甚微。

長期以來，我們的教材偏重文藝性的散文、詩歌、小說，而忽視實用的說明文、議論文、應用文；偏重古文，忽視現代文。盡管這些名家名篇，典範性強，可以效法，但有的內容陳舊老化，時代感不強，與學生的實際生活距離較遠，學科研究的最新成就和科技發展的最新信息，沒有得到反映。

自八一年以來，各地選編了十多套試驗教材，統編教材一統天下的局面有所改變，教材只有在激烈的競爭中，才能不斷創新，提高質量，但根本問題是要打破文章選編的體系。

首先，教材要以理論知識為主綫，以課文為例子的編排體系。特級教師陸繼椿編的語文教材，一共有一百多個知識點，採取「一課一得，得得相聯」的辦法，逐點領會，逐點運用，逐點深入。特級教師魏書生根據初中語文知識分成四個部份，十九個項，一百十八個點，並用知識樹的模式組成一個整體結構，即「語文知識樹」。他是用理論統帥教材，組織訓練。

其次，選材範圍要擴大，文體門類要增多。閱讀教學的任務之一是開闊學生的視野，豐富他們的知識，培養他們的興趣和能力，形成良好的閱讀習慣，為他們今後的學習和工作打下基礎。因此，教材內容、題材範圍要廣泛，應涉及到社會生活方方面面，特別是反映最新科技成就的說明文應大大增加。由於科學的發展，文理相互滲透，應當增加一些自然科學新內容、新知識。而目前我們的統編教材是文理不相通，知識面狹窄。這與科技發展跨學科、邊緣學科迅速發展的趨勢很不相適應。

再次，教材要注意學生年齡特徵。美國心理學家布魯納說，教材一定要適應學生的年齡特徵，學生學起來才有興味。並說，兒童有他自己觀察世界、認識世界的獨特方式，給任何年齡的兒童或學生教某門學科，就要按這個年齡的兒童觀察事物、認識事物的方式來教學，無論教材的編排或語言文字，都要考慮到這一點。

前蘇聯教育家贊可夫認為傳統的語文教材，在形式上單一呆板，課文千篇一律，課文後面的思考題和習題也有不少枯燥乏味、不能啟發學生思考的形式主義的東西，完全忽視了兒童的年齡特徵。他說，新編教材一定要適合兒童的心理特徵，形式要活潑、體裁要多樣、內容要廣泛，要有新異性，富於時代氣息，使兒童通過學習能對現實生活有較為廣泛深入的了解。國外的語文教材有大量色彩鮮艷的插圖，學生很喜歡，能啟發他們的想像和思考。在編排上要靈活多樣，不斷變化，能提高學生的學習興趣。

第四，教材從單一求同向多元求異發展。從國外看，經濟發達國家都有多套教材供教師選用，而我國的語文教材長期以來單一求同，大大落後於時代前進的步伐和不適應社會發展的需要，何況我們地域遼闊，城市與農村、沿海與內地教育的發展很不平衡，不能統一使用一套教材，強求一律。雖然各地自行編寫了十多套教材，但因受高考指揮棒的影響，這些教材在使用上不能不受到限制，實際上仍然不能離開統編教材。根據我國的國情，應該一綱多本，不應受高考指揮棒的約束。

教材要面向現代化，就要處理好傳統教材與現代教材的關係。教材有一定的繼承性，不可能把傳統內容統統刪掉，尤其是一些名家名篇，但教材又必須隨著時代的前進和科技的發展，不斷更新教材內容，增強時代感。教材要求訓練目的明確，訓練內容有系統性和訓練方法要注意科學性，使各項訓練在縱向和橫向的安排上均有內在聯系，構成一個嚴謹的訓練體系。

有了好的教材還得選用適當的教學方式。傳統的教學方法往往忽視學生的主動性，把學生看作被動地接受知識的容器，知識只能由教師講，問題只能由教師提，教師積極主動，學生消極被動。這種封閉型的教法必須進行改革。

目前，在語文教學中，傳統的教師講，學生聽的滿堂灌，抑或形式主義的問答談話的牽牛式教學方法已不多見了，但脫離課文語言文字的分析思想內容和表現方法的教法還大有人在。教法不徹底改革是不利於培養學生聽說讀寫能力的。現在世界各國教法改革的趨向是在教師的啟發引導下，增加學生的自學和討論，強調學生在學習中的主體地位，注重學生掌握學習方法，讓學生自己去鑽研，去發現、去獲取知識、去鍛練能力。

蘇聯教育家贊可夫認為傳統的教學方法是單從知識傳授出發，程式化老一套，如對文藝性課文，不論內容如何、教學要求怎樣，皆千篇一律的採取固定不變的模式，這是壓抑學生創造思維的。他又說，傳統的教學方法，完全從教師的教出發，而不是從學生的學出發，根本不考慮兒童認識活動規律和教學規律。因此，他主張教學方法靈活多樣，即使同一篇教材，也可採用不同的教法，只要貫徹教學思想和教學原則，完全可以根據自己的教學經驗和風格，選擇學生認為合適的教法，但要按課文的特點有所側重，如文藝性課文要著重激發學生的思想感情，政論性課文，要著重啟發學生的邏輯思維，決不能對每篇課文都作面面俱到的分析，教師要抓住關鍵，重在引導，讓學生自己去獲取知識。凡是學生能理解和領會的，都讓他們自己去理解和感受，教師要給學生的探索性思考指出方向。贊可夫還批評有的教師不顧學生的心理特點和智力活動，只是按事先議定的模式，先朗讀，後分析，再歸納，再朗讀，結果學生處於昏昏欲睡的狀態，實際上是用形式主義的框框來束縛學生的思維活動。

教法改革的重點應放在學法指導上，就是要在傳授知識和培養能力的過程中，使學生學會思考問題，掌握學習方法，要把培養學生獨立學習能力作為一切教學工作的出發點和歸宿。教學實踐表明，學生掌握語文學習的方法，學習就有了鑰匙，思維就是了翅膀，智力就能得到開發，於是就能自己開動腦筋去探索、去鑽研。錢夢龍老師的「六步自讀法」：「認讀——辨體——審題——問答——質疑——評析」，就是根據學法指導提出的。于漪老師教《木蘭詩》時，重點是對學生進行概括能力的訓練，要求學生每讀一節，以四個字的詞組概括內容，擇要板書，其目的是在於讓學生通過自己的概括，理解敘事詩的特點，學習敘事詩的方法。于漪老師教《晉祠》時，拿出《中國名勝詞典》，讀出有關晉祠條目，與課文有關文字進行比較。這樣使學生明確詞典與說明文的寫法不同，特點各異。教師教給學生讀書方法，引導學生掌握讀書要領，提高學生分析問題、解決問題的能

力。在學法指導中，也體現了「教為主導，學為主體」的原則，當然，學法指導要從學生實際出發，要建立適合本班學生的訓練序列，學法指導才能落到實處，逐步提高。

傳統語文教學的主要弊端是教學過程同步化、教學結構程式化，這就不能充分發揮學生作為認識主體的能動作用，不利於培養學生探索、發現、創造的精神，這是一種封閉型的教學。課堂教學結構的優劣，直接影響課堂教學的成敗，語文教學要獲得較大的突破，必須改變這種封閉式的教學結構。

國外的課堂教學結構，突出學生自主性、主動性和探索精神。例如日本一九八○年以後，課堂教學結構是「把握主題——進行探索——討論總結——遷移活用」。這是一個自主學習、發現學習的教學結構，突出了探索創新的精神，而教師的主導作用則表現為精心設計教學結構，組織學習過程，掌握學習方向，引導學生學習總結，學生則要從學會到會學、善學、形成學生獨立學習的能力，確保學生在學習中的主體地位。

課堂教學結構的改革，是人們對教與學相互關係認識的進一步深化。現代化的語文教學力求使學生在一定的條件下，用最少的時間去爭取教學的最佳效果，這種課堂教學結構就要很好地反映教與學的相互關係，並充分發揮師生的兩個積極性，實現教學的全部功能。

傳統的課堂教學結構是單向信息傳遞，忽視信息的反饋，不利於學生智力的發展和能力的培養，從滿堂灌的教學過渡到問答談話的教法是一大進步，雖然問答式教學是雙向傳遞，但由於問題由教師設計，學生被迫就範，形式上是雙向傳遞，實際上是機械應答。我們應把師生間的縱向交流與學生間的橫向交流交織起來，組成多功能、立體化的網絡結構教學。如于漪老師教《晉祠》一開始要每個學生用一句話介紹一處名勝古蹟，並且要很快說出，表達要完整。學生積極思考，從杭州的西湖講到長白山的天然湖，從東岳泰山到西岳華山、南岳衡山等。設計這樣一個環節，其目的是：第一，增加信息量，加大知識的覆蓋面；第二，培養學生口頭表達能力，因為一句話，講一處古蹟，要求完整；第三，發展想像力，每講一處，在腦子裏就展現出畫面；第四，培養民族自尊心和自豪感。這樣，上課達到立體化多功能了。又如于老師教《聽潮》，作者用博喻的手法，寫浪潮來的聲音，其中有像鐃鈸的聲音，關於鐃鈸，注解上有，但有一位學生問詞典上與書上注的不一樣，我相信詞典，還是相信書？于老師要求大家去查一查，比較一下，看看哪個解釋更準確。學生積極性很高，各種解釋確不一樣。于老師要求學生到《辭典》的音樂部去查，一查就知道，鈸有兩種，小的叫鐃。這樣學生獲得了新知，查工具書也得到了鍛練。課堂上像這樣的交流就是網絡式結構教學。

遼寧特級教師魏書生的「六步教學法」：（定向——自學——討論——答疑——自測——自結）中的「討論」。錢夢龍的四種基本課型（自讀課、教讀課、作業課、復讀課）中的「教讀課」湖北大學黎世法的「六課型」（自學課——啟發課——復興課——作業課——改錯課——小結課）中的「啟發課」。他們的課型結構都注意利用和發展學生的橫向交流，保持一種優化的信息傳遞方式，形成一種縱橫交流的主體交叉的網絡結構。

語文教學改革是一項系統工程，無論是教育思想的轉變，教材教法、課型結構的改革都是相互聯系、相互制約的。我們必須運籌全局，進行同步改革。

近十年來的教改實踐表明，語文教改要想取得突破性進展，一定要立足於整體，從宏觀上著眼。使各部分的功能都服從整體的最優化目標。在總的戰略目標下，實施各項教改實驗，對語文教學各個方面進行綜合治理，把教材改革的適應經濟發展的需要，把教為重點轉為學為重點，把直綫型教學轉為網絡型教學，實現教學效果的優化，為語文教學的整體改革開闢了蹊徑。

異體字與異體詞

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一、何謂異體字

何謂異體字？異體字又名異形字。

狹義的異體字，一般要具備三個條件，這三個條件是：讀音相同、意義相同、形體不同。所謂讀音，通常包括古音和今音；所謂意義，通常包括本義和各個義項。廣義的異體字，除了包含狹義的異體字以外，還包括一部分在文獻中經常通用的通假字和古今字①。本文在討論異體字時，本來只着眼在現代漢語方面，但在現代漢語中，仍然有不少文獻中的通假字和古今字，如祕秘、托託、周週、注註等是。為了討論的方便和切合實際的情況，這裏所提到的，是廣義的異體字。

此外，筆畫有誤的錯字和讀音相同、意義不同、形體不同的別字，本來不算異體字，但也有人以「約定俗成」為理由，把一些錯別字視為異體字。談到「約定俗成」，意見往往頗為紛紜，究竟「約定俗成」的原則是甚麼？在甚麼情況下才可接受為「約定俗成」？「習非成是」算不算「約定俗成」？這些問題，恐怕不會有一致答案，也難以有一致答案。事實上，的確有不少所謂異體字，其實是「習非成是」的錯別字。這種情況，其實不單是異體字的問題，也往往是異體詞的問題，因為詞由字所組成，異體字出現在詞裏，就有所謂異體詞。

二、何謂異體詞

何謂異體詞？異體詞又名異形詞。

有人認為，異體詞也像異體字那樣，要具備三個條件，這三個條件是：讀音相同，意義相同，形體不同；不具備這三個條件，就不是異體詞。也有人認為，異體詞應該有兩類：一類是形體不同，而讀音和意義相同的；另一類是意義相同，而讀音和形體不同的。所謂讀音不同，情況也不一樣，其中有聲母不同的，有韻母不同的，有聲調不同的，又或在聲韻調三方面，有兩者或三者不同的。

上述兩種意見，都同意形體不同、意義相同是異體詞的重要條件，大家有分歧的，是讀音方面的看法。朱炳昌在《論異形詞的歧異和規範》一文

中，既說明了這種情況，又特別強調異體詞和異體字之間，不能說沒有聯繫，但應該有區別。他指出，字是記錄語言的符號，是書寫形體的單位，而詞是能自由運用而又最小的語言單位，即造句單位。因此，我們不應把讀音相同和意義相同或只是意義相同，作為畫分異體詞的標準，而應把意義相同和運用相同，作為畫分異體詞的標準。換句話說，所謂異體詞，指的是形體不同、意義相同，而在同一語言環境中可以換用的一組詞語②。

根據上面的說法，異體詞基本上可分為兩類。一類是讀音相同或相近、意義相同、用法相同而形體不同的一組詞語，如：參與、參預；複習、復習；畜生、畜牲；倒楣、倒霉；風韻、丰韻；風姿、丰姿；模仿、摹仿；連橫、連衡；通通、通統、統統等等。另一類是意義相同、用法相同而讀音不同、形體不同的一組詞語，如：卑躬屈節、卑躬屈膝；將功贖罪、將功折罪；名副其實、名符其實；放虎歸山、縱虎歸山；齊心合力、齊心協力；白手成家、白手起家、白手興家等等。我們如果只知其一而不知其二，當與人討論異體詞時，就會引起不必要的爭論。

三、異體詞與同義詞的分別

異體詞的重要條件既然是意義相同、形體不同，那麼，異體詞是不是就是同義詞？一般來說，我們把異體詞視為同義詞，也不是不可接受，但嚴格來說，我們平時所說的同義詞，其實應該是相對同義詞，即所謂近義詞。近義詞之所以產生，主要是為了要準確地反映事物之間的輕微差異，精密地表達不同人對客觀事物的不同感情和態度，有時更是為了要適應不同語體風格的需要。近義詞產生愈多，愈可使我們的表達更豐富、更精密、更多變化。至於異體詞，可說是同義詞中的等義詞，即絶對同義詞。絶對同義詞是沒有甚麼實際意義的重複物，在語文應用方面，消極性較大，因此談語文規範的人，往往主張把這些絶對同義詞，視為應該接受規範的對象③。

值得留意的是，有些詞語在應用時，有時是同義詞中的等義詞，即絶對同義詞，有時又是同義詞中的近義詞，即相對同義詞，究竟這些詞語該不該視為規範的對象，是可以進一步討論的。例如：沈寂、岑寂，都有寂靜之意，這是等義詞，但「岑寂」有時又可解作寂寞，與「沈寂」並不通用，於是兩者就不可以視為等義詞。又例如：旗子、旗幟，都可以指用布帛或紙張造成的長方形、三角形或方形標誌，大多掛在杆上或牆上，這是等義詞，但「旗幟」有時既可以比喻榜樣或模範，又可以比喻有代表性或號召力的某種思想、學說或政治力量。這樣，「旗子」和「旗幟」，就不是等義詞，而是近義詞。又例如：復元、復原，都有病後恢復健康之意，這是等義詞，但「復原」又可解作恢復原狀，於是兩者就只是近義詞而不是等義詞。

又例如：終生、終身，「生」指生命，「身」指軀體，但生命寄存於軀體，軀體則賴生命來維持，兩者關係極為密切，因此有人認為這兩個詞在意義上互相通用，可以視為不同形體的等義詞。不過，大家都知道，「生」較抽象，「身」較具體，抽象字詞，往往有較大的涵蓋性，所以我們用「終生」時，多就一生事業方面說，而用「終身」時，多就切身事情方面說；這樣，「終生」和「終身」，就不是等義詞，而是近義詞了。為了減少運用上的麻煩，有人主張把上述這類詞語合併歸一，或分工並存④。我認為，為了語文應用有更精微、更準確、更多變化的表達，合併歸一，並不是最好的解決方法，嚴格地分工並存，在語文的教與學方面，的確可以減少一些麻煩，但卻會減損了語文應用的靈活、精微與光彩；同時，只認識詞義分工的學生，在面對詞義不分工的篇章時，也會引起是否能夠確切理解的問題。高水平的語文教學，應該能使學生自如運用、確切理解這些既是等義詞又是近義詞的異體詞。當然，對不同程度的學生，自然該有不同層次的學習成果要求，這是大家都明白的。

四、異體字詞衍生的原因

異體字詞的衍生，情況頗為複雜，歸納起來，大致可分從形、音、義、用四方面來說明。

1. 形方面的原因

方塊漢字屬表意文字體系，不同時代、不同地區的人，在長期使用漢字來記述事物的過程中，已出現了用形體不同的文字來記述同一事物的現象。在甲文和金文中，有大量資料足以作為證明。秦統一文字以後，漢字形體基本上已穩定下來，但在長久使用的過程中，又出現了隸變形體的結果，有些字篆文並不相同，隸變後形體混同；也有些字篆文只有一個，隸變後衍生了兩個、三個以至多個形體。由隸而楷，又增添了異體字衍生的機會，再加上在書寫過程中，字的筆畫不免有或長或短或增或刪的差異，於是又出現了不少異體字。這些異體字如果是單音節詞，或組成雙音節詞和多音節詞，就出現了不少異體詞。如古蹟、古迹、古跡；遍查、徧查；祕密、秘密；煙火、烟火；冰雪、氷雪等等。

另一種情況是，漢字形體有繁有簡，是歷來普遍的現象。早在商代，同一意義的甲骨文，固然有繁有簡，周秦時期的篆書，也有省文的情況。漢魏以降，碑刻俗字層出不窮，更產生了大量異體字詞。宋元時代的小說戲曲以至官私文書，出現大量簡體字，都不免增加了異體字詞的數目。而國內為了推行簡體字，從1956年起，先後公布了不同的《漢字簡化方案》，原意固然是為了糾正社會用字混亂的現象，但也提供了不少異體字

詞資料，使社會上異體字詞的數目增加。這種情況，不但影響了使用簡體字的地區，也影響了使用繁體字的地區。現時本港不少人徹澈不分(徹底、澈底)、像象混同(想像、想象)、託托無別(託交、托交)、畫必作劃(計畫、計劃)、譁必寫嘩(譁變、嘩變)……可說都是拜字體簡化之賜。甚至有人用《現代漢語詞典》所收的詞目，來評核字詞的正誤，而不知《現代漢語詞典》用的是簡體字，更不知現代漢語中的詞，並不能涵蓋古代漢語中的詞。

2. 音方面的原因

同音或近音假借，是古代漢語和現代漢語產生大量異體字詞的原因。

由同音或近音假借而造成的異體字詞，一般有兩種情況。一種情況是純屬同音或近音而假借，與意義毫無關係。如：頂瓜瓜、頂呱呱、頂刮刮；孤另另、孤零零；紅彤彤、紅通通；慢吞吞、慢騰騰等等；這些附加式的虛語素，常常有用同音或近音字來書寫的情況。又如：哎呀、哎喲、唉呀、唉喲、噯呀，噯喲；丁當、丁東、丁冬、叮當、叮噹、叮咚；滴答、滴嗒、嘀嗒、的答、的搭等等；這些感歎詞或象聲詞，也往往用同音或近音字來記錄。又如：巧克力、巧格力、朱古力、朱咕叻；冰激淩、冰淇淋、冰淇淩，冰其淩；刮刮叫、呱呱叫；一古腦兒、一股腦兒；這些外來語或方言詞口語，由於翻譯或記錄語音時用了同音或近音字，於是就產生異體字詞。

在廣州話方言區中，這種情況尤為明顯，有時甚至忘了本有的字，而用同音或近音字來代替。如：雨溦溦(雨微微)、大譗地(大笪地)、泥湴(泥辦)、火灺(火屎)、鉸剪(較剪)、溏心(糖心)、瀹熟(灼熟)、打館(打獻)、香賁賁(香噴噴)、螺屌(螺篤)、盍氣(激氣)、韽聲細氣(陰聲細氣)、無譗颯(無搭颯)、欶氣(索氣)、侲仔(腎仔)、銖鈍(戇鈍)、好嬻(好盞)、車命(車炮、車砲、車礮)、邋遢(辣撻)、齷齪(閉翳)、殗殜(奄尖)、慌瑟瑟(慌失失)、禴仔(拉仔)、墨屎(墨七)等等⑤。

另一種假借的情況是，除了同音或近音的因素外，還有同義或近義的因素。其中有先用本字後用假借字的，有先用假借字後造本字的，有先用假借字後造本字，最後用假借字的。如「親戚」的「戚」字，是斧鉞武器的本字，後來借用為親戚；到了現在，已是久假不歸了。又如芙蓉、鷓鴣，是先有假借字夫容、遮鴣，後來造了本字，假借字就不用了。又荷、無、霸三字，本來是何、亡、伯的假借字。「何」是人荷戈的樣子，有負擔的意思；「亡」除了丟失、逃亡之意外，也用來表示沒有；「伯」的本義是兄長，可引伸為部落之長或盟主。可是到了後來，大家都用「荷」來表示負擔，用「無」來表示沒有，用「霸」來表示諸侯盟主，反而把何、亡、伯視為假借

字了。其他如訂貨和定貨、瓷器和磁器、復習和複習、報導和報道、人才和人材、迫真和逼真、計畫和計劃、繁瑣和煩瑣、縹緲和飄渺、浩淼和浩渺等等，都是同音或近音和同義或近義的異體詞，而這些異體詞，是我們現在所常用的。

3. 義方面的原因

有些異體字詞，是因為同義或近義通用而衍生的，而對應的字，往往有異音的情況。細察這類異體字詞，義的因素，佔了主要地位，只要不改其義，或有義的聯繫，就可以改用不同形體出現。下面試歸類略作說明：

一類是借不同事物來表達同一意思。如尋根究柢和尋根究底，「柢」和「底」都是同一部位；又如橫剖面、橫切面、橫斷面，「剖」、「切」、「斷」的意義不盡相同，但都有把物分開、分割之意；梅雨和霉雨，「梅」、「霉」本不同義，但有人從梅子成熟時期與陰雨天氣聯繫，於是造了「梅雨」一詞；有人從器物易霉時期與陰雨天氣聯繫，於是造了「霉雨」一詞。天淵之別和天壤之別，「淵」指水，「壤」指地，都與天有很遠的距離。

一類是改變了原有詞形的文字排列次序來表達同一意思。如演講和講演、效果和果效、感情和情感、代替和替代、覺察和察覺、翻天覆地和覆地翻天、拐彎抹角和抹角拐彎、刻骨銘心和銘心刻骨、評頭品足和品足評頭、同心協力和協力同心等等。這種更改詞形的做法，有時是為了適應平仄格律，有時是為了遷就上下文的聲調，有時是為了語氣強調，有時是為了表達方便，有時或許只因為表達者記不牢原有的詞形。無論怎樣，這類異體詞大多在應用時衍生，但詞形可以有變，意義則沒有變，或至少在表達者心目中的意義不變。不過，我們對人人習用的穩定詞形，在意義方面大家已有共識，一般不宜隨意更改，事實上也有許多詞形，根本不能更改。

一類是同一事物，往往有多種名稱，名稱不同，自然就會用不同的字詞來書寫，於是又衍生了異體字詞。為甚麼同一事物會有不同名稱?原因是多方面的，有可能是學名和俗稱的問題，有可能是地域方言的問題，有可能是古今時代不同的問題，有可能是本源不同的問題。如肺結核俗稱癆病或肺癆，痙攣俗稱抽筋，蜈蚣俗稱百足，又稱天龍、蒺藜、蝍蛆等；又如馬鈴薯又稱土豆、山藥蛋、地豆、芋豆、洋山芋、地蛋、陽芋、洋芋艿、洋番薺、番人芋等，顯示不同地域的人，對同一東西有不同的稱呼，而方言語詞與普通話語詞不同，更是常有的現象。又如貓，在古代有許多名稱，包括：女奴、天子妃、烏員、白老、含(銜)蟬、虎舅、貍奴、鼠將、蒙貴等。又如中國古代曆法有所謂「七曜」，即把二十八宿按日、月、火、水、木、金、土排列，七天一周，周而復始，而西洋曆法也有「七日為一

周」的說法，所以後來按照國際慣例，把作息按七天作一單位排列，稱為星期。基督教徒每七天做一次禮拜，所以星期又稱禮拜：來源有別，產生了不同名稱，但講的是同一事物。上面所舉，都是一些詞形有別，其義不改的例子。

4. 用方面的原因

異體字詞的衍生，可說與字詞的形、音、義有極密切的關係，上面的說明，我相信已大致顯示了實際的情況。我說「大致」，主要是因為只提及形、音、義三方面，仍然有涵蓋不到的地方。在這裏，我要再作補充。

我認為，談異體字詞，固然不可不留意形、音、義問題，但更不可忽略的，是用的問題。因為所有異體字詞，都是在應用的過程中出現的。用，是異體字詞直接衍生的來源。我們為甚麼會用異體字詞？一種情況是有意為之，一種情況是無意為之；更有一種情況，是由無知或疏忽而誤用的。例如我們為了加強表達的效果或樹立個人的語文風格，有時故意不用人所習用的字詞，甚至刻意把語言變異，不少文學家和學者，往往是異體字詞的推廣者或製造者：這是有意為之。又有時為了應用的方便，我們會忘掉規範字詞的考慮，而不經意地用了其他通用的異體字詞。有意為之，未嘗不可以增加語文表達的姿采，但也會構成字詞規範的障礙。由無知或疏忽而誤用，本來是錯別字的問題，但用錯別字的人如果愈來愈多，經過長期的習非成是以後，就會形成一股「約定俗成」的勢力，有些為人接受的異體字詞，其實只不過是用的人在初時寫了錯別字。例如《現代漢語詞典》認為「交代」也作「交待」，「徹底」也作「澈底」，「莫名其妙」也作「莫明其妙」，「故步自封」也作「固步自封」等等，正是在所謂「約定俗成」的旗幟下，把一些本來誤用的字詞，變為「合法」的異體字詞。不少語文學者或語文教育工作者，也往往會以「約定俗成」為理由，贊成大家以寬容的態度，去接受本來是錯別字的異體字詞。毫無疑問，「寬容」，就會促成異體字詞的衍生。

此外，避諱也會促成異體字詞的衍生，這是有意為之的一類。如《隋書・高祖紀》卷一：「漢太尉震八代孫」，「風骨不似代人間」，「代稱純孝」，「不代之業」，「精采不代」，「弘道於代」，「祖考之代」；卷二：「代俗之徒」，「德為代範」，「與代推移」，「干戈之代」，「行歌避代」，都是為了避唐太宗李世民的「世」字而作代[6]。又如《後漢書・儒林傳》：「孔僖因讀吳王夫差事，廢書歎曰：『若是所謂畫龍不成，反為狗者。』」劉頒注曰：「按古語皆云畫虎不成，此誤。」其實並非誤用，而是有意為之。《野客叢書》三十有這樣的說明：「此非誤，蓋章懷太子避唐諱所改爾。正如令狐德棻

《後周書》引韋祐語，古人稱『不入獸穴，焉得獸子』同意。亦避虎字，非誤也。」⑦在日常生活的語文應用中，我們有時也會為了忌諱的理由而改用異體字詞，或自鑄新詞。這方面的例子頗不少，也不必一一舉述了⑧。

五、異體字詞與語文教學

中國語文教學有很多難點，異體字詞是其中之一。遇到教材裏的異體字詞，或學生筆下的異體字詞，教師往往要耗費大量時間、精神，去翻閱字典、詞典和其他有關參考資料；有時忙亂了好一會，仍然找不到確定的答案；有時找到自以為是確定的答案了，但稍後卻發覺原來是錯誤的。麻煩還不止此！為了一些異體字詞，教師有時還要承受校長、督學、家長以至社會人士各方面的壓力，同事與同事之間，也會為了一、兩個異體字詞而爭論不休，甚至傷了和氣。

有人着眼於異體字詞的缺點，指出異體字詞的存在，使我們增加了理解和應用的困擾，因此最好按照一些原則，把異體字詞加以規範。所謂規範，就是為字詞樹立明確而一致的標準。也有人認為，字詞規範，雖可減少教學和學習的不必要干擾，但如果以為字詞規範真的可以解決理解和應用方面的困擾，卻不是事實。因為異體字詞不但普遍存在於古代漢語中，而且也有不少存在於現代漢語中，學生如果只認識規範了的字詞而不認識異體字詞，在閱讀時就會出現理解的障礙。至於字詞應用，如果大家都用規範了的字詞，當然有利溝通，但要是規範過了頭，把一些相對同義詞(即近義詞)也合併歸一，於是事物之間的輕微差別，就不能得到準確的反映，而感情和態度的細緻別異，也不能得到精密的描述，語文的精微和光彩，就會大大減損了。這對中國語文的發展，是十分不利的。

談到異體字詞，我們不能不留意字詞規範的問題。字詞規範，有它本身的積極意義和作用，這是從事語文教育的人都同意的，但字詞規範的分際，就常常引起爭論。有人提出「約定俗成」作為原則，荀子《正名篇》說：

> 名無固宜，約之以命，約定俗成謂之宜，異於約則謂之不宜。⑨

這其實就是以普遍通用作為原則。不過普遍通用到甚麼程度才算「宜」，荀子並沒有清楚交代，而一向以來，似乎人人都說不清楚。只是「約定俗成」到底是個很好的盾牌，於是許多人往往拏了這面盾牌，去維護自己的字詞誤用；也有人高舉「約定俗成」作為旗幟，去使字詞誤用合法化，《現代漢語詞典》裏，就不乏這樣的例子。更有人以「約定俗成」作為利器，去砍殺那些一向都有人應用、認識的正字正詞，這就自鄶以下，不足深論了。

我以為，在日常生活的語文應用中，以至在小學、初中的語文學習中，強調字詞規範是需要的，有時甚至可能是必要的，教師最好不要經常

提出些絶對等義的異體字詞，去干擾學生的語文學習和應用。但到了高中以上階段，教材和參考資料都會出現不少異體字詞，教師和學生對異體字詞就不可能避而不談。多認識一些異體字詞，尤其是多認識一些並非絶對等義的異體字詞，對學生和一般人的閱讀和寫作能力，應該都有切實的幫助。

六、結語

談論語文教學的人，都很強調傳意功能的重要。傳意功能當然重要，但並不表示字詞教學不重要。有人用外語學習的角度，去評論字詞教學不重要，甚至認為字詞研究不必要。這些意見，其實顯示了一些人對中國語文特質缺乏認識，可以不必詳論。

在現代漢語中，雙音節詞最多，但也有一些單音節詞。一個詞，可以是一個概念，也可以是多個概念。字詞教學，其實正是概念教學。學生掌握概念時，如果不夠準確，或有偏差，就根本不能發揮傳意的功能。空談傳意功能而不重視字詞教學，是不切實際的。

字詞教學，會出現不同性質的障礙，異體字詞的干擾，是其中之一。如何適切地指導學生辨別異體字詞，是個值得留意的問題。不過所謂「適切」，真是談何容易！談字詞規範的人，可能會忽略了相對同義詞即近義詞在語文理解和表達中的價值與作用；不談語文規範的人，又可能會過分縱容絶對同義詞即等義詞的泛濫。在語文教學中，如何約制等義詞的出現，如何幫助學生掌握近義詞，是個值得思考的課題，而在字詞研究中，準確地釐訂近義詞的概念，對教師的語文教學和對學生的語文學習，也是有幫助的。

附註

① 參閱詹鄞鑫《漢字說略》，1992年6月遼寧教育出版社，頁291。
② 參閱朱炳昌《異形詞匯編》，1987年9月語文出版社，頁260至261。
③ 參閱同上，頁262至263。
④ 參閱同上，頁263。
⑤ 參閱孔仲南《廣東俗語考》，1992年3月上海文藝出版社重印本，卷一頁4至卷十二頁33。
⑥ 參閱陳垣《史諱舉例》卷五，1958年1月科學出版社，頁89。
⑦ 參閱陳垣《史諱舉例》卷六，同上，頁96。
⑧ 李中生在《中國語言避諱習俗》一書中，舉了許多日常生活忌諱的例子，都與語言禁忌有關，可以參考。（1991年11月陝西人民出版社）
⑨ 見梁啟雄《荀子柬釋》，1964年4月太平書局，頁314至315。

汕頭話與普通話的比較——數量詞與名詞的組合特點

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汕頭話屬於漢語閩南方言，俗稱「潮州話」、「潮汕話」。主要流行於廣東省東部地區，如汕頭、潮州、潮安、揭陽、揭西、潮陽、普寧、惠來、澄海、南澳、饒平、海豐、陸豐等市縣；海南、臺灣部分地區；南洋潮籍華僑居住地，如泰國、新加坡、馬來西亞、印尼、柬埔寨、菲律賓等國家。現在，粵語地區的香港、廣州、深圳、珠海，也有很多人講汕頭話。本文將從汕頭話跟漢語普通話作比較，在數量詞與名詞的組合上論述其表示法、搭配、省略諸方面的特點。

一、汕頭話數詞有特殊的表示法

（一）採用合音式表示法

汕頭話在數讀「五十六」時，先將「五」(ŋou^{6})與「十」(tsap^{8})速讀合音為「ŋop^{4}」，然後與「六」(laŋ^{8})組合，讀成「ŋop^{4} laŋ^{8}」。在數讀「六十五」時，先將「六」(laŋ^{8})與「十」(tsap^{8})速讀合音為「lap^{4}」，然後與「五」(ŋou^{6})組合，讀成「lap^{4} ŋou^{6}」。在數讀「七十六」時，先將「七」(tsʻik^{7})與「十」(tsap^{8})速讀合音為「tsʻiap^{8}」(潮音「雀^{8}」)，然後與「六」(laŋ^{8})組合，讀成「tsʻiap^{8} lap^{8}」。

（二）採用合音合體式表示法

現代漢語普通話數詞「廿」，意思是「二十」。一般不寫作「卄」。由於讀音為「nian」(念)，故以「念」為「廿」的大寫字。汕頭話數詞「卄」是「廿」的別寫，意思都是二十。其特點是：①正體與異體：「廿」為正體，「卄」為異體。②合體：「卄」是由「二」個「十」(兩個形體)合併而成(一個形體)的合體字。③合音：汕頭話「卄」的讀音由「二」和「十」拼合而成：ziʔ^{6}(二)+tsap^{8}(十)→ziap^{8}(卄)，潮音為「染^{8}」。如「二十五」在數讀時變為「卄五」(ziap^{8} ŋou^{6})。④異讀：變「二」(ziʔ^{6})陽去為(ziʔ^{8})陽入，作為「卄」的又讀音，潮音為「兒^{8}」。如：「卄五」讀作「ziʔ^{8} ŋou^{6}」。「二十四史」(ziap^{8} si^{3}史)也可讀作「ziʔ^{8} si^{3}史」。

現代漢語普通話「卅」的讀音為sa，意思是「三十」。汕頭話數詞「卅」，也是「三十」的意思。其特點是：①合體：由三個「十」形體融合而成。②合

音：「卌」讀音sap^{8}(潮音「杉^{8}」)。它是「三」的聲母與「十」的韻母拼合而成：sã^{1}（三）十tsap^{8}（十）→sãp^{4}（卌）。如「三十六」可寫作「卌六」，讀作「sãp^{4} laŋ^{8}」。數讀規律與「廿」相同。

現代漢語普通話「卌」讀音「si」，四十。汕頭話「卌」(siap^{8})，潮音為「涉^{8}」，也是四十的意思。其特點是：①它是四個「十」的合體字。②讀音由「四」聲母與「十」的韻母拼合而成：si^{3}(四)十tsap^{8}(十)→siap^{8}(卌)。如「四十二」，可寫作「卌二」，讀作「siap^{8} zi$^{?6}$」。數讀規律與「廿」相同。

(三)經常採用白讀音的表示法

1. 現代漢語普通話百位數後面用「零」表數詞，汕頭話一般用「空」、「單」的白讀音數詞來表示。如「一百空(k'aŋ^{3})三」，即「一百零三」。「空」的白讀音為「k'aŋ^{3}」，文讀音為k'oŋ^{3}。汕頭話在數讀時採用白讀音，不讀文讀音，也沒有「一百零三」的讀法，因為這是現代漢語普通話的書面語。

汕頭話百位數後面的零數也可用「單」的白讀音來表示。「單」文讀為taŋ^{1}，白讀為tũã^{1}。如「一百單五」讀作「一百tũã五」，不讀作「一百taŋ^{1}五」，當然也不讀作「一百零五」。古代漢語早就有「單」表示「零」的用法。《醒世姻緣》第九十回：「我活了一百單五歲，古往今來，普天地下，誰有似我的？」「單」為「零」，潮音為tũã^{1}。

2. 概數也用白讀音來表示

現代漢語普通話概數「幾」(ki^{2})，表示多少。「幾」文讀為ki^{1}或者ki^{2}，白讀為「kui^{2}」。「kui^{2}」為汕頭話「鬼」的讀音，由幾→鬼，故寫作「鬼」。汕頭話概數用「鬼」不用「幾」，也表示多少。

汕頭話概數「出」(ts'uŋ^{1})與「齣」同音，有多餘的意思。如「十出人」，即「不止十人」。概數「外」(ŋua^{7})，就是「開外」，即「多」。如：四十外歲(四十多歲)。古代漢語也用「外」表示「多」，如唐·谷神子《博異志陰隱客》：「二年外，一月餘，工人忽聞地中鷄犬鳥雀聲。」汕頭話概數「加」即「多」、「增加」，不用文讀kia^{1}來表示，卻用白讀音ke^{1}來表示。

當然，數詞也有文讀(也可用白讀)來表示的。如「一」，在數讀時既可用文讀(ik^{4})表示，也可用白讀音(tsek^{8})來表示。

(四)採用複合式表示法

汕頭話數詞有的用複合式語素來表示。如「五十」，是由係數5乘位數10構成。「四萬」是由係數4乘位數萬構成。「三千」是由係數3乘位數千構成。「十」只能做位數「萬」的係數，可說「十萬」，但不說「十百」、「十千」。

（五）採用加在基數後面的表示法

汕頭話概數「進退」、「出頭」、「膠郎」加在基數後面來表示。「進退」，即左右內外。如汕頭話說「六十進退」，就是「六十左右」的意思。汕頭話一般不說「左右」。「出頭」即「多出一點」的意思，如「這個人五十出頭」，意思就是「這個人五十歲多一點」。汕頭話「膠郎」的意思是「完整」，即「剛好」。如「六十膠郎」，就是「六十完整」，「剛好六十」。

（六）採用連用表示法

汕頭話概數有的用連用法來表示。如「三五(個)」、「四五(人)」、「一四七(號)」、「二五八(號)」、「三六九(號)」。以上是連用基數。也可連用係數，如「零空」，兩個係數連用與分開意義不同。連用時指「完全沒有」，讀音也不同，可讀作 laŋ^5 kaŋ^5，也可讀作 loŋ^5 koŋ^5。

（七）採用形容性表示法

汕頭話有些與漢語普通話不同的數詞，採用形容性表示法。例如：

零落(laŋ^6 lo^2)：寥寥無幾。

闌個(laŋ^1 kai^5)：「闌」就是「不稀」。少個。

寡個(kua^2 kai^5)：少數，減個。

好誃(hoh^4 tsoi^8)：很多。

太是誃(ts'ai^2 si^6 tsoi^8)：甚多；太為甚。

妥是誃(to^2 si^6 tsoi^8)：頗多。

酷誃(kah^4 tsoi^8)：「酷」是「極」。「極多」。

濫滿(la^6 mua^7)：「濫」原指水泛溢，即過滿足，言極其多。

淡薄(tam^6 poh^7)：稀少，也指「零落」。

恰榜(k'ap^4 paŋ^3)：「榜」是標準，「恰」是適當，標準適當。

恰恰(k'ap^4 k'ap^4)：適當，不多不少。

狼戾(laŋ^2 li^3)：言極其多。《孟子》：「樂歲粒米狼戾。」「狼戾」猶「狼藉」(laŋ^2 tsia^4)。原指「亂七八糟」。戾(li^3)汕頭音讀為「裂」。

此外，還可採用在基數後面加「成」，或在兩個基數中間加「腳得」來表示分數的方法。如「十分之九」，可說成「九成」(s$\widetilde{\text{ia}}^5$)。「十分之五」可說成「五成」。分數詞「三分之二」，汕頭話口語稱為「三腳得二(腳)」。「四分之一」說成「四腳得一」，都是形容性的表示法。

（八）採用序頭式表示法

1.　汕頭話常用序頭(前綴)「頭」、「大」表示開頭「一」。如數讀序數詞時，讀為「大、二、三、四」，「大房、二房、三房、四房」，「大兒、二兒、

三兄、四兄」；「頭、二、三、四」、「頭間、二間、三間、四間」、「頭堂課、二堂課、三堂課」、「頭巿、二巿、三巿、四巿」。

凡「第一」的都可以「頭」計數，如頭行、頭條、頭到、頭生、頭日、頭碗、頭隻、頭個、頭件、頭號、頭等。在汕頭話口語中，一般說「頭行」不說「第一行」。

2. 用前綴「排、數、初」表示序數詞。如「排一、排二、排三、排四」、「數一、數二、數三、數四」。排數讀日期時，「初」讀作「ts'iu^7」，汕頭話音為「秋」，如「初一、初二、初三、初四」。又如「正月初(ts'iu^7)一」。在數讀班級時，「初」讀作「ts'o^1」，如「初(ts'o^1)一班、初二班、初三班」。

二、汕頭話數量詞與名詞的組合有省略的稱數法

(一)在時間數量詞數讀上的省略

「星期」叫做「禮拜」。「一個星期」稱為「一個禮拜」。「禮拜」可以簡稱為「拜」，於是，「星期一」可稱為「拜一」。以此類推，從星期一至星期天，分別可以省略稱為「拜一、拜二、拜三、拜四、拜五、拜六、拜日。」汕頭話「星期天」叫做「星期日」，因此，稱為「拜日」，不叫「拜天」。汕頭話「五分鐘」叫做「一個字」或「個字」。「二十分鐘」叫做「四個字」。「四十五分鐘」叫做「九個字」。「十五分鐘」叫「三個字」。沒有「一刻鐘」的稱數法。「六點十分鐘」稱為「六點搭二」、「一點四十分鐘」稱為「點搭八」。「二點三十分鐘」稱為「二點半」。

(二)在序數數讀上的省略

「第一」是現代漢語普通話的序數詞。汕頭話在數讀序數時，一般將「第一」縮稱為「頭」。「頭」有第一的意思，是數詞。如把「第一碗」稱為「頭碗」，沒有「第一碗」的說法。以此推開去，「第一碗飯」略稱為「頭碗飯」。「第一號獎」略稱為「頭號獎」，「第一個人」略稱為「頭個人」，「第一條橋」略稱為「頭條橋」，等等。

(三)領頭的係數「一」和第二個係數後面的位數都可以省略

現代漢語普通話數字中以「一」為首位時，只有在十位數中這個「一」才可以省略。如：「一十元、一十六斤」可稱數為「十元、十六斤」。漢語普通話多位數的末位，如果前位數不是零時，往往使用省略法，如「一千六百」可以省為「一千六」。但如果附有量詞時，通常不能省略。如「二千三百斤」，不能說成「二千三斤」。汕頭話則不同，不管帶不帶量詞，領頭數「一」和末位數一律可以省略。例如：

漢語普通話		汕頭話
一百五十元	→	(一)百五(十)銀
一千五百元	→	(一)千五(百)銀
一萬三千元	→	(一)萬三(千)銀
一角四分	→	(一)角四(分)
一丈三尺	→	(一)丈三(尺)
二百五十斤	→	二百五(十斤)
三百六十人	→	三百六(十人)
六百八十天	→	六百八(十天)

以上這些數量短語，加括號的表示在稱數時可以省略的成分。由此，汕頭話跟漢語普通話相比較，可以看出其特點：一是領頭的數詞「一」在數讀時都可以省略；二是第二個位數中的「十、百、千」也可以省略；三是甚至連末位數後面的量詞「分、尺、斤、人、天」也可以省略，只要說出它們前面的個數就行了。

(四)約數和問話的數量詞也可以省略

汕頭話十進單位的約數用「成」來連在位數的前面，後面再加上量詞。如「成百個」(上百個)。「成萬擔」(上萬擔)。「成十斤」(大約十斤)。

汕頭話問話也可以用省略的稱數法。如：「十鬼？」(十幾？)「百鬼？」(一百幾十？)。「千鬼？」(一千幾百？)「萬鬼？」(一萬幾千？)「個鬼？」(一元幾角？)「鬼個？」(多少個？)「鬼人？」(多少人？)「鬼尾？」(多少尾？)「鬼門？」(多少門？)「點鬼？」(一點幾分？)「寸鬼？」(一寸幾分？)「尺鬼？」(一尺幾寸？)「丈鬼？」(一丈幾尺？)。還有「拜鬼？」(星期幾？)「鬼歲？」(多少歲？)「鬼年？」(多少年？)「鬼日？」(多少天？)。

三、汕頭話數量詞和名詞搭配的特點

(一)、汕頭話數詞可以直接與名詞組合，作定語，修飾名詞。

現代漢語普通話數詞一般要和量詞組合才能修飾名詞，只有在成語裏或沿用文言說法時，才可以直接和名詞搭配。如「一國兩制」、「三言兩語」、「一草一木」。

汕頭話不但數量詞能修飾名詞，而且數詞能夠單獨和名詞直接搭配，修飾名詞。比如：「十八梭船廿四洲，二隻鉎牛一隻溜」、「一物合一約」、「四目定定，二山相疊」、「六人欲來，一人唔去」、「二姐妹三兄弟」。

(二)、汕頭話量詞可以直接和名詞組合，放在句首。

量詞和名詞搭配放在句首。這是汕頭話語法結構的特徵之一。例如：「堂課教來好。」「個學校攏總是讀書聲。」「隻飛機飛去了。」「個人有志氣。」

(三)、汕頭話概數的位置可以放在基數後面、量詞名詞的前面，構成「係數＋位數＋概數＋量詞＋名詞」的結構方式。

例如：「二十進退歲人」(二十歲左右的人)、「三十膠郎歲人」(剛好三十歲的人)、「四十出頭歲人」(四十歲多一點的人)。

(四)、汕頭話有些單音名詞可與相應的量詞組合構成新詞；有些單音數詞和名詞可構成短語。

汕頭話單音名詞比較豐富，構詞力很強，常與相應的量詞構成新詞。如：灶下(tsau^{4} e^{6})：廚房。床下(tsʻɤŋ^{5} e^{6})：眠床下面，飯床(puŋ^{2} tsʻɤŋ^{5})：飯桌。眠床(miŋ^{6} tsʻɤŋ^{5})：床。走起(tsau^{6} kʻi^{8})：起身。企起(kia^{7} kʻi^{8})：居住。椅條(ĩ^{6} tiau^{5})：條凳。椅頭(ĩ^{6} ʻau^{5})：凳子。

有些單音數詞可以與名詞構成短語。例如：一年半載(時間不長也不短)。一回半回(個別次)。一人半人(個別人，極個別)。四鄉六里(喻範圍很廣)。四親六情(各方面的親戚，全部親友)。十腳十手(即雜腳雜手，喻幫倒忙)。

(五)、汕頭話各量詞與名詞的搭配，有些是按照事物的形象、特徵、意義或功用，在事物名稱前，而安上相應的量詞使意義或概念更明確，應用更廣泛，從而相對穩定下來，形成習慣。例如：

用量詞「粒」(liap^{8})稱圓的東西：卵、豆、珠、球、柑、柿、星。

用量詞「隻」(tsiaʔ^{4})稱四腳或二腳的動物和車船用具等物：雞、鵝、鴨、牛、馬、豬、羊、狗、獅、虎、貓、鼠、汽車、貨車、電船、腳屐、床、椅、桌、櫥等。

用「座」(tso^{6})稱高山或龐大建築物：山、樓、橋、塔、厝等。

用「條」(tiau^{2})稱長條形動植物和其他事物：龍、蛇、蟲、竹、草、杉、藤、根、鐵、鋼、綫、絨、路等。

因為「事情」要經歷長時間，故將量詞「條」意義引伸，與「事情」搭配，如：「條事」、「條古」、「條事過大條」。宋書《百官志》：「輒雲各掌六條事。」論語《顏淵》：「恐懋猶未曉，故又舉一條事。」即「一件事」。

用「輪」(liŋ^{1})稱輪轉一次：探親訪友往返一次，輪值一次，都可以稱為「一輪」(liŋ^{1})。

用「撮」(tuʻuoʔ^{7})稱事物不多：一撮人(一堆人)，一撮土(一堆土)、一撮飯(一堆飯)。

用「寅」(in^{2})稱同輩同層：子女同時姐妹稱為同寅姐妹，同時官員稱為同寅官，一排又一排稱為同寅，樓臺有多層，每層稱為同寅。

汕頭話有些量詞與名詞的搭配，來源於沿用古代漢語的習慣用法，這是有根據的。例如：

「叢」(tsaŋ^{5})：叢樹，叢花。南朝・陶弘景在《真誥・運象篇四》中記載：「有六叢杉樹。」唐・白居易《買花》詩也載：「一叢深色花，十戶中人賦。」

「副」(hu^{3})：一副衫褲（一套衣服）。唐・溫庭筠《崔尉子》中說：「臨行贈資糧，兼與衣一副。」陳子昂《謝賜各衣表》：《並賜臣手詔及冬衣兩副。」

「尾」(bue^{2})：一尾魚（一條魚）。唐・柳宗元《游黃溪記》中說：「有魚數百尾。」《古今小說・任孝子烈性為神》：「周得霎時買得一尾魚。」

「身」(siŋ^{1})：塑像的量詞，如：一身佛，二身觀音。劉世儒引《佛國記》：「王便夾道兩邊作菩薩五百身。」

從上面這些特點看來，汕頭話數量詞和名詞的搭配並非偶然，乃是社會發展和人們的需要，約定俗成；同時，也受到傳統的習慣的影響，很有特色。

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論語文科的本質

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我國已出版的數十部語文教學專著，對語文科的性質已有一個共識，認為語文是具有思想性的工具性基礎學科。這一認識無疑是正確的，但它不足：承認了有工具性思想性並不能區分語文與其他學科。因為中小學所有其他學科都有廣義的思想性，也都離不開語言文字，任何學科有語文教育因素——至少它要教育學生掌握一批該學科的專業術語詞匯。

問題在工具性、思想性各處於甚麼地位。故此我在1982年發表的《語文教學科學化簡論》①中指出：在這二重性中，工具性處於主導地位，是工具性思想性這對語文科基本矛盾的主導方面。這樣，可以進一步區分語文與其他學科，也就確定了語文教學的主要方面是工具性問題。但是這一認識還不足，它仍然不能解決語文教學內部的一系列的根本問題，如語文到底教甚麼學甚麼，語文知識、語文技能的內含是甚麼，語法是不是中小學語文科的基礎知識、分析句子成分之類是不是語文基本技能，潘鳳湘老師的「概括句意」練習是否科學②，是不是語文基本技能……這一切的一切仍然缺乏判斷的依據。

關鍵仍在對「語文」、對語言的認識，這一最最根本也最最原始似乎大家都早已認識的問題上。從理性上說，還要認識中小學語文科的本質，認識具有思想性的工具性為主導的語文科的本質。為此：

第一，我們先要明確語文科是母語教育學科。這點認識無分歧，但對它的意義至今認識、注意得還不夠，或者說被忽視了。語文科對我國絕大多數人絕大多數學校來說是漢語教育學科，不是英語或俄語等教育學科。這裏，(一)要認識到學習母語與學習外語的內容是不同的。漢語的特點，它的語音、字(詞)匯、語法、它的表意手段、它的交際規律，均有別於任何外語；也就是說我們的語文課要掌握的字詞句篇，要理解習得的語文知識、語文技能均有別於學外語，均有別其他民族的母語教育。譬如，掌握印歐語系的語言的關鍵是詞匯量，而掌握漢語的關鍵則是識字量。世界各民族的母語教學都有共性的一面和個性的一面。對每個民族的語文教學來講，個性都是基本的根本的方面。我們的語文科要建構漢語文科自身的特有的教學內容體系，不能簡單的搬用別國的語文教學內容。在向外學習時只能吸取具有共性的方面，而不應搬用屬於個性的東西。而這正是九十年

來語文科教學的教訓之一。從《馬氏文通》以來，逐步成為語文知識主體的漢語詞法句法知識，即一般所說的「漢語」知識中至今包含了太多的太不符合漢語特點從印歐語系套來的東西。因此，我國的語文教學盡管知識越教越多，但學生語文水平卻不見提高反而下降(當然這只是原因之一)。五十年代向蘇聯學習而實行的漢語文學分科，所謂「語言是科學，文學是藝術」似科學非科學。它既不符合我國以實用性文章教學為主的傳統，也不符合中學基礎教育的目的。它是短命的，但被它強化的偏愛文學教學、注重文學分析而輕視實用文章教學的傾向，至今仍深深地影響着我國的語文教學。今天必須總結這些歷史教訓，科學的建構符合漢語文特徵的語文科教學內容體系。

(二)要明白學習母語的方法途徑也不同於外語，漢人學漢語的途徑方法，也與英國人學英語的方法有所不同。學母語，必定是先有一定的口語能力而後學書面語。而學外語一般來說從書面語開始並以書面語學習為主，同時發展口語。學習方塊漢字顯然不同於學習拼音文字，讀寫漢文與讀寫英文也決非無異。但是長期以來我們忽視學習漢語文的特殊方法、特殊規律。而且近七十年來政治歷史的原因，極為遺憾地輕視了我國幾千年的語文教育傳統。受「五四」新文化運動的影響，口語進入了語文課堂，打破了語文教育只教文言文——書面語的傳統，這是歷史的進步，必須肯定。但是也從此把我國語文教育種種符合漢語文特徵包容學漢語文規律的做法一概當作了封建八股！集中識字扔掉了，朗聲吟誦大量背誦當成了死讀書……轉而分析之風日盛，不是思想分析、便是文學分析，學語文越來越不開口不朗讀，只是看，不重記憶，只重理解。結果呢？六十年代初的教育水平不如二十年代，八十年代初的語文教育水平如六十年代；九十年代，從總體看仍不見水平上升，實際在下降。不重視傳統經驗，實質上是忽視漢語文及學習漢語文的特殊規律。面對這種歷史的斷層現象，面對這沉重的教訓，需要深深地反思。母語就是母語，學母語就要遵循母語學習的規律。這是需要我們認識並進一步具體探討的一個根本性的問題。

第二，我們還要進一步確認語文科的本體是母語的言語教育學科，而不是一般的語言教育學科。

1836年德國語言學家威廉·洪堡德就開始區別語言與言語。本世紀初現代語言學理論的奠基者瑞士語言學家索緒爾進一步指出：語言是人的言語活動中的社會部分，他不受個人意志支配，是社會成員共有的，是一種社會心理現象。言語是人言語活動中個人意志支配的部分，它帶有個人發音、用詞、造句的特點。這樣便規定了語言學研究的對象是語言而不是言語。這樣便把言語的研究留給了心理學。我國的語言學界接受了索緒爾的觀點，我國的語言學概論明確的區分了語言與言語。但是十分可惜的是在

認識研究或從事語文教學時卻忘記了這一區別。談論語言學習，談論學習漢語的文章中一般都將言語混同於語言。當然廣義的「語言」是可以包括言語的。問題也正在這裏啊！概念上的混同導致了語文教學內容的混雜，使中小學的語文與大學的漢語學習沒有質的區別，形成了我國大中小學在差不多的水平上一起學習「現代漢語」的見怪不怪的局面。

要認識語文科的本質，把握語文科的規律，使用模糊的「語言」的概念是不行的，應該科學的區分語言與言語。索緒爾的觀點是正確的，區分語言與言語，指導語言學的研究，也應該用來指導語文教學。一旦明確這一點，這樣去做，中小學語文科便能豁然開朗。

語言的學習是在言語活動中實現的。語文教學的本體是言語，而不是語言。盡管中小學語文教學的總目的是使學生掌握祖國的語言——漢語言。但它指的是掌握語言的本身，而不是語言的理論知識；要求培養的是運用語言的言語能力，而不是分析認識語言的能力。對此，語文教學大綱規定得十分明確：

「小學語文教學的目的，是指導學習理解和運用祖國的語言文字，使學生具有初步的聽說讀寫能力。」

「中學語文教學必須教學生學好課文和必要的語文知識，進行嚴格的語文基本訓練，使學生熱愛祖國語言文字，具有現代語文的閱讀能力、寫作能力和聽說能力，具有閱讀淺易文言文的能力。」

這裏的識字、閱讀、作文、聽說均是言語活動，聽說讀寫能力均屬言語能力。中小學語文教學就是要使學生掌握一個個漢字，掌握盡可能多的詞語，聽懂看懂、說出寫出符合言語規律的話來，具備理解與運用漢語的言語能力；而不是理性的總體的了解漢字的特徵、詞類的界定、句法的規則，具有分析詞類分析句子結構等理性的把握漢語言的能力。這後者恰恰正是大學中文系學習「漢語」的目的任務。我們中小學語文教學就是要通過言語活動去使學生掌握祖國語言，就是要通過學習言語知識，通過言語技能訓練去培養學生運用語言的言語能力，就是要讓學生掌握漢語字詞句本身。

這裏我們強調了中小學語文科是言語教育學科，這並不排除教學中的語言因素。除了這一言語教學的最終的根本的目標就是掌握好語言外，在教學過程中講一些中小學生能理解的能指導言語活動的語言知識是完全應該的。但必須明確，中小學語文知識的主體，即所謂的語文基礎知識是言語知識，這是第一位的根本的；學習一些語言知識必須為培養言語能力服務，在中小學這是從屬的第二位的，它不應是中小學語文知識中最基礎的部分。

第三，這裏還應該指出，一般文章與文學作品都是言語，文章屬交際言語，文學則是言語藝術。語文科培養的言語能力是言語交際能力，而不是言語藝術能力。中小學語文科是基礎教育的一部分，它培養的是每一個社會成員都必需具備的運用母語進行交際的能力，而不是培養社會一部分（很小一部分）人具有的運用藝術言語進行文學創作的能力。現行大綱沒有要求中小學培養學生進行文學創作的能力，它僅僅要求培養學生具有初步的鑒賞文學作品的能力，而且沒有寫進總目的，只是附屬性的第二位的。語文科主要學習實用性交際的文章，而不是藝術性的文學作品。文學作品在中小學首先要為培養言語交際能力服務。

總之，語文科是母語交際言語教育學科，這就是中小學語文科的本質。這一本質使它區別於任何學科，這一本質決定着語文教學的目的任務內容和方法。這是我們實事求是的科學的認識和從事語文教學的起點。明確這一點，我們便可以更準確的把握語文科的屬性。語文科是言語教育學科，不是語言教育學科。所以：

語文科是技能性學科，不是知識性學科。
語文科是工具性學科，不是思想性學科。
語文科是實用性學科，不是藝術性學科。

這裏的「是」與「不是」不是對立的絕對排斥的，而是指在這一對對矛盾中，盡管相互聯系對立統一，但前者是矛盾的主要方面，處於主導地位的方面，決定事物性質的方面。結論只能這樣作。這是認識研究從事語文教學的唯一的正確的邏輯起點，是認識與把握語文教學規律的唯一的邏輯起點。只有在這個基礎上才能形成語文教學學科理論，也才能使語文教育界在這個基點上統一認識；我國的語文教育才能走上科學高效的軌道，真正適應現代高速發展的社會的需要。

在確定語文科母語言語教育的本質後，還需要認清它的重重屬性。語言是人類社會組合與發展的工具，它與人類社會的一切方面相聯系；言語存在於人的一切活動之中，聯系人活動的一切方面。語文教學當然也與社會與人的各方面相聯系。語文科是個極其復雜的矛盾體，它各方面的矛盾關係，顯現出它復雜的特徵。因此，在認清本質之後還要認清其他涉及學科教學全局帶根本性的特徵。

第一，語文科是內含人文性、思想性的學科。

語言，通過言語傳遞交流負載着民族的思想文化。作為符號系統的語言本身是沒有思想性，階級性的，但言語總是思想意識的反映。語文科進行的是言語教育，它通過言語活動培養學生運用語言的能力，因此語文教學的每時每刻、它的全部活動與過程，都滲透着思想性，甚至政治性階級性。正因為如此，任何時代任何國家，都要求語文科承擔傳播民族的階級

的思想文化倫理道德的任務。語文科客觀存在教化作用。重教化是我國從古至今的語文教育傳統。但在探求語文科的教學規律，追求語文科的科學化時，要認時到「重教化」這一傳統，處理不好便會成為歷史的包袱，會阻礙語文教學及研究的進展。

對語文科來說，它的工具性永遠是第一位的，思想性只是第二位、派生的。思想性永遠是在言語的工具性中體現的。思想教育要在語文教育中進行。思想性不是語文科的學科本質，不是最根本的特性。片面強調語文科的思想性，語文科便會變質，便可能變成不倫不類的政治科，或是零亂瑣碎的知識科。近幾十年來幾度「左」的政治的沖擊已給了我們足夠而沉重的教訓，今後再也不能重蹈覆轍了。我們要理直氣壯每時每刻堅持語文科言語工具性第一，思想性第二，通過工具性去體現思想性。

第二，語言習得具有終生性、社會性，而語文教學則有一時性、域限性。

要認清人們言語的習得運用是社會性的，語文教學離不開家庭環境的語言習得，離不開其它學科中的語言習得，離不開社會交往、社會活動中的習得。語文科要建構一個開放的教學系統，要處理好課堂域限性教學與社會性語言習得的關係，要使語文課堂教學起到指導學生社會性語言習得的作用。這裏重要的是要明確：作為語文科，它的立足點就是課堂，它的特徵是域限性；作為語文教師就是要上好語文課，使學生懂得並能夠自覺的在大社會中學語文。語文學習是終生的，有限的，課堂教學不可能完成人的全部語文學習任務。終身教育的提出更強化了基礎教育的職責。對語文科來說，更要求通過課堂教學打下堅實的語文基礎，更要着力培養語文能力，培養自學能力，使學生懂得也能夠進行終生的語文學習；也就是說要使特定階段裏進行的一時性的語文教學真正做到使學生課堂得法，課外得益——在終生社會性語文習得中得益，從而實現葉聖陶先生教是為了不需要教的理想。

深入認識語文科的階段性一時性和域限性，處理好階段性與終生性，域限性與社會性的關係，是語文科更好完成自身職責的原則性問題之一。

第三，語文科具有高度的綜合性。對此認識比較統一，不必詳述。

思想性、社會性與綜合性，都各自顯示語文科的屬性的一個方面，是語文科與其他學科相比之下的明顯的特徵。而語文科正因為有這些屬性使它比其他學科更複雜，更難把握其規律。這些特徵錯綜複雜的形成了一串語文教學的難點。

第四，認識從事語文教學的艱難性：

1. 語文科教學內容的複雜性和階段、程度的模糊性。2. 語文學習的多途徑性。3. 由於歷史的因素，已形成一些傳統的似是而非的觀念，

這些觀念有着強大的影響力控制着語文教學。這裏影響面最大的就是「文以載道、文道統一，內容決定形式，內容與形式統一」這一套觀點。這些已被中國社會普遍接受，經受了千百年歷史驗證的觀點，難道還是「非」！

是的，今天必須明確的指出，它的確對語文教學來說並非都是真理，的確有「非」的一面。它正是阻礙語文教學進一步發展，阻礙語文教學把握自身規律的主要的「難點」，最大的「難點」。

文以載道、內容決定形式和文道統一、內容與形式統一的觀點，對文章對文學以至於整個社會的言語交際來說都是正確的，是真理。就是語文教學，對范文進行認識分析評價，也得遵循這些原則，這不容質疑。但是，我們面對的是語文教學，不是談論社會的一般言語交際，而是認識如何教尚不會或者不能很好進行言語交際的未成年學生如何學會言語交際，如何學會以文載道。不是作為社會的正式成員直接以文載道去參與社會交際，而是教學生如何學文、如何以一定的文載一定的道。學生的習作的目的並不是馬上去參與交際，只是一種練習。交際與學習交際、社會應用與學習社會應用，顯然是相關而不相同的兩個問題。這兩者有質的區別，是不能混同的。可惜直到今天這兩個問題基本上被混同為一了。這正是語文教學不科學的一個重要表現方面。

在語文科中工具性是主導的方面，思想性是從屬的，這也就是說語文教學要——文第一、語言形式第一，內容與道只能處於第二位的從屬的地位。立足形式，以形式教育為己任正是語文科區別於其它學科的基本特徵；這是語文教學各方面每時每刻都必須遵循的一條基本規律。

任何學科都存在「文與道」這一對矛盾。語文科之所以立科，就是它立足於「文」，以「文」的教育為己任，「文」處於學科主導地位；其它學科立足於它各自的「道」，以「道」的教育為己任；道處於學科的主導地位。這難道還有任何疑義嗎？

認準學科的對象、明確學科的本質與特徵，這是所有學科建設的根本，是認識學科、建設學科理論的邏輯起點。語文科無法例外。學科對象不清，從何談從與研究這一學科？學科的本質不明、特徵不清，怎能把握學科的規律？怎麼建構學科的科學體系？又怎能遵循學科的客觀規律去科學有效的進行學科的教學？可惜的是，語文科獨立成科九十年，學科的對象還不十分確定、對學科的本質與特徵的認識還很模糊，或說是混亂不已。正因為如此，至今我國的語文教學雖歷史最漫長、經驗最豐富，但至今沒有自己的學科理論，沒有自成體系的科學有序的知識與技能系統，教學當然只可能是經驗型的缺乏科學依據的各行其是低效率的進行。

嚴格的說，語文還沒有成為真正的學科，語文教學離科學化現代化還有一段距離。我們語文教學工作者，一定要集中力量回到學科對象這一基

點上來進行探討，盡快得出科學結論，以便進一步探討語文教學各方面的規律，建構科學的語文教學內容體系與方法體系。我集四十年學習、從事、研究語文教學的經驗認定：

語文科是文（語言形式）與道（內容）重重因素的高度的綜合體；它是具有鮮明的思想性、社會性，而立足於文，以文為主，以工具性為主導的，同時具有階段性、域限性的，通過言語學習語言的母語交際言語教育學科。簡言之，語文科的本質是母語的言語教育學科。這就是語文教學原理中的原理。

附註：

① 見《教育研究》1982年11期。

② 潘鳳湘是南昌市二中特級教師，他成功的進行了「教讀法」語文教學改革實驗，概括句意是他的一項基本的閱讀技能訓練。

創造思考教學與語文教學

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(一)

創造力是人類文明發展不可缺少的動力。回頭過去，人類的歷史就是一部創造史，所以有人說創造力是所有能力中最重要的一種。近年，科技發展一日千里，資訊發達，促進了人類對新技術、新發明的追求，創造人材就更被重視了。在西方，為了培養創造型的人才，多年前便已開展了創造思考教學。拓弄斯(E. P. Torrance)稱之為一場「靜默的革命」(拓弄斯，1988)。這場革命在六十年代展開，學者、教師們嘗試以各種方法，訓練學生的創造思考能力和解決問題能力，大量研究結果証明，創造思考訓練的確對提高學生的創造能力有顯著效果，而且，這種效果是長期的，可以影響學生日後於社會工作時的表現(吳靜吉，1979; Howeison, 1981; Torrance, 1962，1988)。這些研究結果又顯示，如果創造力高的人，即使從事一些一般人認為較刻板、沉悶的工作，如售貨員，也可以有優於別人的表現。據學者估計，自一九五零年到一九六四年，有關創造性或創造力的論文著作已有四千一百七十六篇之多(簡，1982)。直至現在，有關創造思考教學的研究已以萬計，可說是成績斐然。

(二)

創造的意義和內涵十分複雜，可以從多層次觀之。學者們有的認為創造是一種能力，也有的認為是一個歷程，而創造和個人的人格特質，又有密切的關係，忽略了其中一面，我們對創造的了解都不全面，所以近年不少學者都採綜合的觀點。

戴維斯(Davies， 1969)將創造力歸納為以下三個可經訓練而獲得的成分：創意態度、創意能力、和創意策略，頗適合教學的情況。他認為創意態度是一種樂於面對新事物和富想像力的態度，這種態度有利於發展創意。創造能力所指的便是拓弄斯等所指的流暢力、變通力和獨創力，是不同的認知創造能力。流暢力(Fluency)指產生觀念的多少，即具有產生大量意念的能力。變通力(Flexibility)指不同分類或不同方式的思考，即從某一種思考方式轉向另一種方式的能力。獨創力(Originality)指反應的獨特

性，想出別人所想不出的。創造的策略則是有意識和自發的產生新組合、新意念的技巧。他並據此設計了一套全面發展創意的訓練模式，從意識、能力以至到技巧方面，加強受訓者的創意，使理論能落實於現實。他的說法結合了感性的認知和理性的認識，有內在的成分，也注意到外在的創作成果，全面而現實性強，值得參考。

(三)

創造思考教學是由教師按照創造力發展的原理，運用適當的教育方法和策略，結合課程，安排合理、有效、有目的教學活動，並以開放、富鼓勵性的態度，引導學生主動學習，以培養和激發學生創造力的教學模式。

創造思考教學不同於傳統教學的地方是，它是以學生為主體的，以激發學生的學習興趣和想像力、創造力、解決問題能力為主要目的。張玉成(張，1988)分析創造思考教學的要義及與傳統教學模式的不同，認為創造思考教學的要義有以下六點：

(1) 就教學的輸入(input)而言，創造思考教學強調重視因應個別差異選取適當的教材，避免教材走向壟斷，形成餵食現象。

(2) 就教學的轉化過程(Transformation)而言，創造思考教學捨棄統一教法的食譜式教學，鼓勵教師因材、因時、因人制宜施教。

(3) 就教學的輸出(output)而言，創造思考教學重視人盡其才，鼓勵有創新的表現，歡迎有不同的成果。和時下教育的要求一致，劃一標準不同。

(4) 創造思考教學的功能不止於學習舊有，更希望能創新知。在這個基礎上，創造思考教學重視幫助學生排除心理障礙，培養創意及提升思考能力，期望他們日後能走上創造之路。

(5) 創造思考教學的具體目標，不在強調立即有創造或發明事蹟，而着重在情意方面，發展學生的好奇心、想像性、冒險、不怕困難、勇於表現、樂於突破等特質；在知性方面，則貴能增進學生的敏覺性、提高其思考的流暢性、變通性、獨特性及精緻性等特質。

(6) 創造思考教學不是一個獨立運作的教學方法，而強調在教學輸入、過程、輸出及其功能、目標等方面，多元化、突破性或創新性的追求。整個作用的完成，有賴其他教學方法或技巧的配合與運用。

由以上各點來看，創造思考教學是一種思考式的、多元的和開放活潑的教學模式，但創造思考教學和傳統教學也並不矛盾，應可以和傳統教學相輔相成、互為效果。這點在下文將再說明。

1770

歷來提出有關創造思考教學原則的學者很多，他們的意見多著重在如何能讓學生自發學習和提供最好的學習環境，以鼓勵和激發學生的創意。個人覺得如從教學的角度全面來說，創意思考教學的原則，可以包括以下各點：

(一)教學模式：以學生為中心。鼓勵學生參與、發表意見。

(二)課堂氣氛：開放、自由、活潑。

(三)教與學的態度：

(1) 重視學生的意見。

(2) 不立刻下判斷。

(3) 接納錯誤和失敗。

(4) 對他人的意見不可持嘲笑的態度。

(四) 教學方法：

(1) 鼓勵從多方面思考問題。

(2) 鼓勵不平凡的想法、答案。

(3) 鼓勵利用多種感官。

(4) 避免樣板化、劃一的標準答案。

(四)

中國關於創造思考教學的研究發展較遲，但近年也已開始略見成績，特別在台灣，自七十年代以來，研究者日眾。學者除發表論文外，並嘗試設計了不同的創造思考教學計劃，付諸實行，成績比大陸和香港都要突出。陳龍安在《創造思考教學的理論與實際》一書中列出了台灣方面的研究十多種，顯示出台灣近年在這方面的成績。

這些研究的對象，由幼稚園至大學生都包括在內；實施的科目則包括數學、國語、自然、社會，以至作文和繪畫，研究的範圍十分廣泛。就實施的時間方面而言，短期和長期的都有，有的甚至追踪數年。這都反映出台灣對創造思考教學方面的研究已頗全面，成績值得重視。

大陸方面，近年始開始重視創造思考教學，所以有關的研究不多。在1982年21個省、市等的教育雜誌252本，約九千個篇目，只有三篇是以創造力或創造性思維為題的(朱，1991)，可見有關研究的零落。八十年代後期，大陸的創造思考教育開始發展，一批以專門培養學生創造力為目標的教育實驗在全國各地展開。據朱作仁在九一年出版的《創造教育手冊》所記，在八十年代，國內分別進行了幾個對中小學生的創造思維能力的研究，結果都証明了思維教學對培養學生的創造思考能力有幫助。這都是中國大陸方面近年在創造思考研究方面所取得的成果。同時，近年大陸出版

的有關創造教育和創造思考的專論也很多，這都說明創造教育已獲得應有的重視。所以有人說目前是大陸創造教育的展開期(朱，1991)。

(五)

很多人認為中國語文科很悶，很八股，沒新意。其實語文科是最能表現創造力的學科。自然科學中的事物有必然的規律，不可以天馬行空，自然不如語文世界的廣闊。人類語言的創造力極強，同一句話，不同人說有不同意思；同一意思，不同人有不同說法；甚至同一個人，在不同時間、場合，說相同的內容，也可以有多種不同的表達方式。由此可見語文天地的空間之廣。在上述中國各地所進行的有關創造思考能力研究中，不少便是透過語文科進行的，而且都証實有效。在香港也有人嘗試在語文科中進行創造思考教學，如謝錫金博士關於寫作教學的理論便很強調激發學生創意。筆者在中學及港大的校外課程中，也曾嘗試教學生多種創意策略，激發學生創意，效果也不俗。試舉一個簡單的例子說明一下。

腦衝激(Brainstorming)是一種很常用的創造思考策略，早在數十年前由奧斯朋(1953)提出(奧斯朋的其中一本重要著作實用想像學有中譯，香港由益智書局出版)。腦衝激的用意是在集體中，藉各成員的交互作用，對於一個刺激詞，引出大量的觀念反應，由量質而導致質變。

在進行寫作前，教師可以將學生分組，每組約八至十二人。之後教師提出一個主題／名詞，請學生即時對之作出聯想，想法越多越好。在開始聯想前，教師可以盡量鼓勵學生作遙遠的聯想，一切不平凡的、不規則的、古怪的想法都可以提出，任意念隨意自由湧現。腦衝激的一個重要原則是推遲評價，不要打斷聯想，因為過早的判斷很容易會扼殺了不尋常的新意念，所以教師要特別提醒學生不要立即下判斷，不要嘲笑他人，以免影響意念的產生。

聯想完畢後，教師可以請學生將提出的意念修飾、組合，整理成寫作的素材。其中一個方法是將材料分類，找出有用的材料，將無用的或枝節的材料刪去，這便可整理成寫作大綱。

這個方法的好處是可以鼓勵學生多角度思考(發散思維)問題，同時在互相刺激的情況下激發更多的意念，近年已被廣泛運用於很多不同的行業，如廣告界、戲劇界，甚至工商業等。

有人以為創造思考教學只適用於寫作教學，其實在教學的其他環節也同樣可以利用這些策略作創造思考訓練。同時，進行創造思考教學也不一定要進行活動，簡單的提問或課後練習，如能恰當運用，也可以收到很好的效果。以下是筆者和一些老師利用自由聯想法擬出的練習：

1. 假設在唐山大地震發生的前夕，有一名仙女告訴你地震快要發生了，你會怎樣做呢？試列出十項你會做的事。

2. 假設現在要籌建唐山地震紀念館，請你為總設計師，請你於課文中選出三樣東西放置於紀念館中，並替每樣東西撰寫一段簡單的說明。
3. 假設你是中國總理，唐山大地震後，百廢待舉。試擬定一個重建唐山的計畫大綱。

自由聯想法鼓勵學生自由運用他們的想像力及創造力，作出種種假設。以上的假設，有的將設放在事發前，有的將假設放在事發後；有的純屬幻想，有的卻於想像中也有現實性；既可以幫助學生重溫課文重點，也可以啟發思考。

以上例子說明進行創造思考其實完全可以結合語文教學的任何環節進行，最重要的是要能提供思維訓練的機會與空間，讓學生的創意得以發揮。

（六）

一次在書中看到一個小故事。一個老師在黑板上用粉筆點了一點，問一班幼稚園學生那是甚麼。學生們立即說出了幾十個無奇不有，妙趣橫生，完全出乎老師想像之外的答案。他找一班中學生問同樣的問題。問題講完後，學生們都垂下了頭，沒人說話。靜了好一會，終於才有人鼓起勇氣說出一、兩個很平凡的答案。

很多人說小孩子原都是很有創意、想像力、好奇心的，但學校教育卻一點一點的將他們的這些能力削減了。我們的教育是不是真的這樣？或者說，我們是不是正在這樣做？創造思考教學不一定是最好的教學方法，但創造思考教學法卻正好可以補傳統語文教育之失，幫助我們將學生的創造力重新解放出來。這正是創造思考教學的意義。

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閱讀認知過程各種技能的評估

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前言

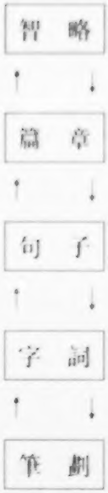
了解閱讀的認知過程是心理學家一向關心的主題。有學者指出，教師對閱讀過程的觀念，深深影響他們閱讀教學的內容和方法(Shavelson & Stein, 1981)。教師認為閱讀過程始於文字，教學就會重視文字符號的解碼技能；他們認為閱讀目的為追求意義，就會教學生怎樣從文章裏分析要旨。每一位教師對教材深入處理的部分及教學時間的差異，或許是因為他們對閱讀的看法有別。

下文描述學者從信息加工觀點所建構的幾種閱讀模式，並為認知過程裏不同層次的技能提出在教學情境裏診斷學生表現的方法。較多學者論及的三種閱讀模式是：1. 下而上模式(bottom-up model)；2. 上而下模式(top-down model)；3. 交互模式(interactive model)。

閱讀模式

下而上模式假設信息處理過程始於信息的最小單位（筆劃）。據高夫(Gough, 1976)分析，眼睛先接觸筆劃，腦中便形成筆劃特徵的短暫表徵。讀者從表徵中辨別文字筆劃，根據筆劃的組合，在心理詞匯裏尋找相應的詞義。信息的處理一步一步向上序進發，由字而詞，由詞而句，由句而章，由章到智略(Schema)（見注）。

古德曼(Goodman, 1976)與高夫的觀點不同。他主張閱讀是一個預測下一步信息並作確實或否定的過程。他透過分析兒童朗讀誤差(miscues)而建立他的閱讀模式。他注意到，當兒童邊讀邊理解意義時，偶爾會犯上符合文理的錯誤，唸出與原字有別的音來。例如「制服」唸成「校服」。古德曼解釋那是因為兒童運用智略去理解筆劃文字，而非單純追隨筆劃文字務求準確唸出聲音的結果。他說，有效的閱讀不是對文章所有元素準確知覺及辨別，而是選擇最少，最有建設性的必要綫索去猜測而第一次猜測正確的技能。換句話說，他力主閱讀是追求意義，是讀者已有知識配合篇章信息的過程。這是上而下模式。閱讀始於智略層次，向下序信息分析。讀者運用已有知識去猜測文章繼之而來的文字或意義。



上而下與下而上模式各有不足。交互模式是前兩者的互補。讀者閱讀時同時運用上而下及下而上的策略(Rumelhart, 1977)。上而下過程先激活智略去預測及推想。閱讀的目的及期望會影響對閱讀材料的選擇。相對來說，當讀者注視文字時就開展下而上的過程，再激活合適的智略去配應輸入的信息。讀者監察下而上方向輸入的信息，可能會變更最初的期望。開始閱讀時，讀者就會開展交替方向的過程。例如：

「程序的確十分容易。首先你把東西分成不同類別。當然要看你有多少要做，否則一堆就夠了。除非你缺乏設備，需要到別的地方去，否則你已準備好了。最重要是，你不要一次做得太多。那是說，寧少了一點，也不要過多。短時間內，這看似不重要，但很容易變得複雜，而且，一個錯誤做成的代價很大。最初，整個程序似乎複雜，但是，很快就變得平常。很難預見在不久將來須要停止工作，沒有人能說出何時。程序完成後，可以把東西再分成不同類別，放到適當的地方去。最後那些東西會再一次運用，而整個循環會再重複。這就是生活的一部分。」(Bransford & Johnson, 1973, p. 400)

讀者看這篇文章感到困難，除非他看之前知道篇章的題目是「洗衣服」。開始閱讀時，或許會採取下而上的策略，然後搜尋一個智略去理解。煞那間，或許會激活幾個所知道有關「工作」的智略，此時，採用上而下的策略去確實假設。一直往下看，直至肯定選擇一個最妥當的智略為止。如

果看完整篇文章都不理解的話，那反映交替採用下而上和上而下策略都找不到合適的智略。

不管是哪一個處理方向，處理信息的過程可以分為幾個層次討論。下文就各個層次的技能先提出論證，再為教師建議評估學生各種技能的方法。

各種技能的評估

一、文字辨認

閱讀時，文字提供兩類信息：1. 文字本身的特徵，如部首；2. 上下文理的限制，如「勝利」與「不勝感激」中兩「勝」音義的差異。

理解文章不佳與閱讀速度有關。讀得慢的一個原因是讀者專注分析個別筆畫及文字(Curtis, 1980; Lesgold & Curtis, 1981)。如上文所言，閱讀過程中各種層次是互動的。當需要花較多時間辨認文字，高層次的理解技能就會得不到充分的認知資源去運作(Norman & Bobrow, 1975)，即注意力受到限制，理解的表現就受影響。反之，辨認速度快，上序的信息就會得到較多注意力。

語境及文理是文字辨認的綫索。能力高的讀者辨認文字時較少依賴文理(McConkie & Zola, 1981), 因為他們這種技能已經自動化。相反，能力低的讀者若沒有文理之助，辨認文字便困難(Perfetti & Roth, 1981; Stanovich, 1981)。

評估

從以上理論分析，可見速度與理解有關，而語境可以補足文字不完整的信息。技能低的讀者可以依賴語境，補償對個別文字辨認技能的不足。因此，可以找出兩個準則評估學生文字辨認的技能：速度與準確性。

教師一向只注意學生辨認文字的準確性，如在學生朗讀時糾正其音。如是，就診斷不出理解不好是由於文字辨認慢還是受其它因素影響。教師可以就學生年級程度、目的、範疇選擇若干數量互無關係的文字，叫學生盡快朗讀。教師把學生猶疑或錯唸的文字記錄下來，事後加強訓練。這樣不單可為個別學生診斷，也可建立一份學生生字的清單。

二、詞義理解

詞義知識是閱讀理解一種重要的技能(Davis, 1968)，兩者的相關度高（蕭炳基，1985），篇章有很多陌生詞語會影響理解(Freebody & Anderson, 1983)。據畢奇等人(Beck, Pertetti & McKeown, 1982)的分析，理解時上序信息加工受詞義加工三方面的影響：

1.　準確性：指記憶裏與字詞聯繫的語義知識。要是注意力須分配到語境去推敲詞義，理解就會中斷。

2.　靈活性：反映讀者詞匯知識的深度和廣度。讀者的詞匯知識豐富，可就一個詞在不同語境而靈活理解。

3.　流暢：反映詞義觸接的速度。速度高會節省認知資源以分析句子或篇章的意義。

教師只訓練學生準確辨認詞義，即增加詞匯量還是不足夠的(Beck et al, 1982)，相對來說，靈活性與流暢性更有助理解文章。

評估

教師可針對以上三方面的加工，編擬三類題目，測試學生不同的能力：

1.　再認詞語的正確意義，以評估其準確度。

2.　判斷哪個近義詞更適合某語境，以評估其靈活性。

3.　從語境推斷某詞的意義，以評估其流暢性。

這幾種技能在閱讀時是互相連繫的，但是為了診斷及教學目的，學生在每類題目的表現，會反映他們的字詞知識及技能當中的差異。

對一個詞語的認識不是有或無的現象。例如學生在多個同義詞中選取了一個正確的解釋，再要求他定義，他的答案可能有歧義或者受語境局限，如此評估就不全面。例如問他界定「調」，可能他只會把這個詞的其中或他唯一知道的意義說出來。他選擇一個適當的同義詞，不等如他的知識豐富。測試就要評估他詞匯「質」方面的知識，包括詞義認知能力：詞義的多義及句義；詞語遣用能力：詞句脈絡及文理綫索的掌握(蕭炳基，1985)。例如：

(1)　「隱蔽」一詞是甚麼意思？

(2)　這個地方非常____，相信沒有幾個人知道。

a. 隱約　　b. 隱藏　　c. 隱蔽　　d. 隱匿

(3)　這個地方非常隱蔽，相信沒有幾個人知道。

「隱蔽」一詞在這句裏是甚麼意思？

a.　不知名的地方

b.　少人到的地方

c.　神秘的地方

d.　少人居住的地方

第一類題目需求較少程度的語義知識，但可以由要求準確區別語義的題目補充。這樣就算發現不到學生對某詞的準確語義知識，也可以由他們判斷哪個句子運用某詞最恰當，從語境辨識詞義的表現而提高評估的效度。

三、句子加工

閱讀時，要把眼前的句子與先前看過的句子綜合，建構成連貫的語義表徵，儲存在記憶裏。有幾種加工把新舊信息綜合。

1. 檢核眼前的句子是否與短期記憶裏的意義有吻合之處(Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978)。例如：

(1) 小明到海洋公園參觀

(2) 他說那是一個很好玩的地方

句(2)的代詞與句(1)的小明與海洋公園吻合。

2. 如果眼前的句子與短期記憶的意義表面不相關，就會運用橋渡推理(bridging inference) (Haviland & Clark, 1974)，把句子綜合。例如：

(1) 約翰把野餐用品放在車廂裏。

(2) 啤酒暖了，不好喝。

由於野餐用品包括啤酒，前者是後者的概括義，因此，運用推理，啤酒便與句(1)連繫起來，新信息便綜合到記憶裏已建構的篇章表徵。

3. 如果眼前句子難以綜合到短期記憶裏，就會檢核長期記憶裏是否存在有關本文的信息。例如：

(1) 遠處樹林的上空掛著厚厚的雲煙。

(2) 她側望時，發現一隻蜜蜂在客廳飛舞。

(3) 她放下書本，拉下窗子。

(4) 樹林大火。

(5) …………

根據卓夫(Chafe, 1973)的說法，由於句(2)(3)與句(1)的主題不同，句(1)就不會留在短期記憶裏，而暫時儲存在長期記憶裏，變成後方(backgrounded)信息。當遇到句(4)，就會從長期記憶裏的本文意義搜索，找出句(4)最有可能性的參照，如句(1)，那麼，句(1)的信息就會重上前方(reforegrounded)。讀者可利用句子的綫索，如重複的概念「樹林」把剛儲存在記憶裏的篇章意義重新激活起來(Lesgold Roth & Curtis, 1979)。這種句子綜合加工是依賴已有的有關信息及處理記憶信息的能力。假如不知道所需的信息(如野餐用品包括啤酒)，或記憶裏的信息不完整，如忘記句(1)，就不能把眼前句子與前面內容聯繫。綜合困難，理解就受損。

綜合加工所需要的信息要在記憶中出現，因此建構文章連貫性表徵並不容易。成人或技能高的讀者能利用綜合加工偵察及發現理解的錯誤(Carpenter & Daneman, 1981)。

評估

教師避免設計毋需理解或只理解少許就能回答的題目，這些題目只需理解句子的表面意義。例如：

(1) 小明站在大牛左邊。
小明站在大牛哪邊？
評估學生句子綜合能力，最好把句子意譯。例如：

(2) 蘋果對人類健康是很有價值的。
文章說哪種水果對人類健康很重要呢？(a) 荔枝 (b) 蘋果 (c) 西瓜 (d) 柚子

(3) 人的美不在於外貌，服飾和髮型，而在於她的品德。要是沒有內在美，就算有漂亮的外表，也不會為人讚賞。
依文中所言，內在美與甚麼有關？

兩個例子都要求把題目與文章有關的部分比較，以找出語義相交的答案。例(2)，讀者要看文章有關的句子，然後辨認出「價值」與「重要」相交的意義；例(3)，在比較前，文章裏幾個句子先要綜合。

綜合加工會增加閱讀時加工的負荷 (Carpenter & Just, 1981; Haviland & Clark, 1974; Lesgold, Roth & Curtis, 1979)，應付這個問題需要閱讀技能及應付課業要求的能力。可以出示一組句子，測量學生在時間及複雜度的條件負擔下理解所付出的代價，因為閱讀理解所花時間反映句子綜合的代價。針對以上兩個例子，可以分成兩類評估題目。

1. 即時匹配：評估剛輸入的句子是否能匹配正活躍在記憶裏的信息。如：

(4) 約翰把野餐用品放在車廂裏。
(5) 啤酒暖了，不好喝。
學生看罷兩句，立即判斷下句是否正確：
他把啤酒放在車廂裏。

2. 推理匹配：評估學生把句子意義綜合到短期記憶裏，再把最近儲存的文章內容憶取到短期記憶裏的能力。如例(3)。

四、篇章分析

讀者運用篇章結構智略 (textual schema) 與內容智略 (content schema) 去選擇文章重要的信息 (van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983)。選擇重要的信息是智略的重要功能 (Anderson, 1983)。

篇章層次的加工是對整篇文章結構的識別。據溫迪及甘舒 (van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983) 的理論，篇章是由一系列的觀念構成。個別觀念間的關係稱

為命題(proposition)，那是結構的最小單位。命題之間的關係構成微觀結構。有效處理信息就要把信息連結成較大的結構。篇章最大的結構是宏觀結構。溫迪(van Dijk, 1980)提出四種宏觀結構類型：陳述、論說、學術論文、新聞體。

學生對記敘及說明兩種文體較熟悉。學者稱記敘文體的結構為故事法(story grammars)，那是描述記敘文的元素(Mandler & Johnson, 1977)，例如包括背景、情節、人物、時間、結局。讀者處理信息時會期望找出這種結構的，例如當讀者看到「很久以前……」，他會預測這是一個故事，並且衍生連串的期望，如「甚麼人」有「甚麼事」「何時」「何地」發生在他身上。這連串的期望是關於結構的心理文法。讀者具有這方面的知識，影響他們憶述故事的內容。研究發現，不論甚麼年紀的讀者，多憶述宏觀結構的要點(Mandler & Johnson, 1977)。

關於說明文，有學者提出不同的結構，如梅雅(Meyer, 1975)歸納出枚舉、描述、比較、解難、因果關係五種。他還發現，處於結構上序的信息比下序的信息記憶較好；學生在這幾種結構的表現也會不同。

閱讀一篇文章要看讀者是否有能力運用世界知識去理解。如上文「洗衣服」的例子，讀者知道題目，就會運用他有關洗衣服的知識去閱讀。理解一篇文章的難易不只是受字詞及句子加工技能的影響，也受讀者對文章主題熟悉度的影響。個人所擁有的智略能影響理解加工，對所讀的擁有健全的智略能促進文章內容的綜合加工。個人擁有某範疇的知識，比認識少的讀者，對該範疇的文章的概念關係理解較好，所建構的文章內容表徵較連貫及有概括性(Spilich, Vesonder, Chiesi & Voss, 1979)。

評估

學生要對記敘文和說明文兩種基本的體裁要有認識。學生閱讀故事，希望他們記得以下元素：

(1) 背景：如時間、地方、故事情境。
(2) 引發事件：導致人物連串行動的事件。
(3) 人物對引發事件的反應。
(4) 追求目標的連串行動。
(5) 目標的成敗。
(6) 主要人物對目標成敗的反應。

如果是說明文，多問學生有關以下的問題：

(1) 主要概念
(2) 概括義及例子
(3) 說明的過程

(4) 主要的因果關係
(5) 文章所作的比較

有關題目及世界知識有助讀者對文章的推理。可要求學生從不完整的關於人物、情節、事件及情況的信息中推理，也判斷作者的觀點及主旨。例如：

(1) 為故事或文章建議一個最恰當的名字
(2) 作者寫這篇文章的原因是甚麼？
(3) 為甚麼文章裏的人會為主角所為感到驚奇？
(4) 為甚麼……是一個……的人？

對文章內容及結構的熟悉度應會影響學生回答這些問題的表現。

結語

閱讀是一個認知的過程，當中牽涉各種相關的技能。任何一種技能都會影響其它層次的信息處理。對任何年級的學生只集中訓練一種技能是不足取的。但為了診斷的作用，本文所建議的幾種評估方法，是教師在教學情境可以做得到的。

注：

個人儲存在記憶系統的知識結構。閱讀時，假設會影響對材料的選擇。

參攷資料

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介紹一個語音意識初級教程

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1. 引言

跟語文有關的課程，可粗分為「技能」課和「知識」課兩類：「聽、講、讀、寫」四種能力的訓練是典型的技能課，而語法、文字學、音系學（含音韻學）則是典型的知識課。這二分法本身是很有道理的，本文無意對此提出異議。

值得注意的是，即使一般意義上的知識學習也有能力方面的基本要求作為前提：色盲不能研究繪畫，音盲學不來樂理。至於語文方面的知識課，則往往以具備有關的語感作為前提：語法講求語句結構方面的語感，文字學講求的形音義及其相互關係方面的語感；至於音系學則講求語音方面的語感，即「語音意識」。如果說「聽、講、讀、寫」是外露的、關乎語文運用的能力，則這些語感就是潛藏的、關乎語文分析的能力。

不過，語法（即語句結構）語感、文字語感兩者的情況跟語音意識不能相提並論：前兩種語感跟語文運用能力有千絲萬縷的關係，若不具備一定程度的語法語感和文字語感，就連語文運用也成問題。至於語音意識，就非字母文字如中文來說，一般性的語文運用對語音意識幾乎沒有任何要求；相比之下，帶有拼音性質的字母文字如英文，文字語感本身就蘊涵了一定程度的語音意識。由此推論，香港人對自己的母語──粵語──的語音意識的強弱並無任何保證，不管某人的中文運用能力有多高。我個人在過去七年教授「語文及傳意」學位課程中的漢語（含粵語及標準漢語）音系成分所得經驗印證了這個推論。

上面說過，音系知識（甚至理論）的掌握以一定程度的語音意識為前提。一般來說，語音意識越強，越有可能把音系學學好。相反，如果缺乏這個前提而教的硬著頭皮去教、學的硬著頭皮去學，在學習方法上很有可能流於死記硬背，連基本的掌握也說不上，遑論引發深入研究的興趣。在教授上述課程的過程中，為了提高學生的語音意識，我設計了一套教程，從零開始，由易到難，循序漸進刺激學員的語音意識，以收逐步提高之效。自忖這套教程的基礎部分對上至音韻學、下至粵語拼音系統等不同層次的各種語音教學不無可用之處，特抽取這一部分內容，名之為「語音意識初級教程」，勾劃介紹於後，冀拋磚引玉。

2. 同音、異音、近音

雖然上面說過，就中文來說，一般性的語文運用對語音意識幾乎沒有任何要求，但其實，不管哪種語言，由於說話時不同的意思用不同的語音交代，掌握一種話的同音－異音關係也就成了順利運用那種話的一個先決條件。下面[1]這些聽起來歧義的詞句為什麼會引起大家的注意呢？正因它們背離了「不同的意思用不同的語音交代」這個常規，也證明了大家都無例外地且確確實實地感受到它們之間的同音關係。①

[1] 歧義－歧異－奇異
相關－雙關
行星－恆星
期終考－期中考

[2] 年年有魚　　有聲有色　　空樓　　大人要酒，細路要湯
↓　　↓　↓　　↓　　↓　　↓
餘　　升　息　　凶　　走　　劏

如果說[1]是大家要無奈地面對的同音詞的話，那麼[2]就是某些人所樂於耍弄的、因同音關係而造就的雙關語了。

同音－異音關係是每個人都具備的語音意識，從這種關係入手講語音意識，有以下幾方面好處：

——讓學員意識到語音在交際中所起的作用
——讓學員意識到自己具備這種語音意識，從而增強信心
——以「一語雙關」現象為橋樑，從「同音－異音關係」過渡到近音關係。

上面第三點所講的是：像「魚－餘」、「空－凶」等一語雙關、趨吉避凶現象，並不一定要求兩個成分完全同音，例見[3]。

[3]　八－發，　四－死，　三－生②，　髮菜－發財

上面每對例子都是不同音的，為什麼也語帶雙關呢？那是因它們雖非同音，卻是差不多同音。由此可知，音近已能語帶雙關，或如[4]般造成特別效果：

[4]　唔怕官，只怕管

對近音關係的感受，並不像同音關係般為運用語言所必需。雖然如此，上面這些差不多同音的，也就是高度近音的例子，其近音關係卻是絕大部分學員所能即時感受到的。不過，即使感受到這些近音關係，也並不意味著具備任何分析性的語音意識。要具備分析性的語音意識，其關鍵在於能對近音性的不同程度不同類型有所感受。這正是下一節要講的內容。

3. 聲、韻、調

假定學員已認識下列概念：③

[5] a. 何謂「音節」

b. 「音節」由「聲(母)」、「韻(母)」、「(字)調」組成

「八、發、死」三字皆不同音。但大家都感到「八、死」音不近。為什麼？這是因為，「八發」的韻、調均同，僅異於調；而「八死」則聲、韻、調無一相同。

又假定學員已認識下列概念：

[6] 雙聲＝聲母相同

疊韻＝韻母相同④

從下表[7]可以讓學員看到，例[3]例[4]中的近音字，都是在音節的聲、韻、調三個成分中有兩個成分相同：

[7]		雙聲？	疊韻？	同調？
a	菜財、官管、四死	✓	✓	X
b	八發	X	✓	✓
c	三生	✓	X	✓

接著下來要展示的，是那些三個成分中只有其一相同的近音類型和例字：

[8]		雙聲？	疊韻？	同調？
d	假牙	X	✓	X
e	巴閉	✓	X	X
f	開槍	X	X	✓

上面[7]與[8]所列的六種不同層次、不同類型的近音關係，在一班還沒有接受語音意識訓練的學員中，其感受能力一定會有點參差。特別是[8]的(e)(f)兩型近音關係，可能有一部分學員一時之間會不得要領，感受不到「巴」音與「閉」音之間、「開」音與「槍」音之間，何近之有。這都在意料之中，宜盡量避免對學員(不論全體或個別)表現出不耐煩。這個教程正是主要為那些語音意識較差的學員而設的。

回到刺激他們對語音的敏感度的路上，這時可向他們提出下列問題，讓他們思考，並鼓勵他們嘗試回答：

[9] $2^3 = 8$，為何上面[7]與[8]合共僅列出六個類型？

答案是：三個✓的已是「同音」而非「近音」，而三個X的則距離太遠，缺乏了被認作「近音」的基礎。以上兩種情況都要排除在「近音」的範圍內。這其實是個知性的而非感性的問題，其意義主要在加強學員的參與。

至此，學員應該對「不同音節間的某些成分相同造成近音」這個樸素的道理有所理解，但很可能尚不能完全掌握下列問題：

[10] a. 怎麼樣的異同，才是「聲母」的異同？

b.　怎麼樣的異同，才是「韻母」的異同？
c.　怎麼樣的異同，才是「字調」的異同？

4.　從字調入手

「聲、韻、調」三者中，字調比較獨特，可以首先設法對付。上面[7a]看到，「菜財、官管、四死」等每組字都是雙聲兼疊韻而僅異於調。前頭兩組都可以再添加些其調有異於原先兩字的例子：

[11]　a　啋　彩　菜　財
　　　b　官　管　鏽

[11a]的四個字僅異於調，而四個字的調都不一樣。換句話說，它們代表著「字調」這成分的四種可能性，或直截了當說：「四種不同的字調」。不過，字調的數目不止於「四」。且看以下這個游戲句子：

[12]　富夫婦扶父赴傅府。

跟[11]一樣，[12]這八個字均雙聲兼疊韻，而僅有字調上的差別。將同音字歸併後，得出六個不同的字調來：

[13]　富、夫、婦、扶、父(赴傅)、府

這六個字調已窮盡了所有相異的字調。為方便稱說，慣常用1–6六個數目字作為六個調的標籤。在[13]中，六個調的排序據它們在[12]中的出現次序。若依大多數人的習慣，六個調的次序應如[14]所示：

[14]　第一調／T1[5]：夫
　　　第二調／T2：　府
　　　第三調／T3：　富
　　　第四調／T4：　扶
　　　第五調／T5：　婦
　　　第六調／T6：　父

在這個階段，往往有部分學員立足於他們先入為主的「九調說」而認為像「色、錫、食「等」入聲字」在上述六調框架中無法容身。對於沒有這經歷的學員來說，「夫色」同調、「富錫」同調、「父食」同調是很切實的感受，根本無須特別解說；反倒是帶上有色眼鏡的「九調說」學員的特殊語感要特別照顧。入聲與非入聲(即「舒聲」)是音節的兩大類型，敏於區別兩者是一種值得追求的語音意識；但另一方面，六調說要求在調的層面上不作舒聲—入聲的區分。為了安頓和避免打擊這種「辨舒—入」的語感，可將[14]擴充為能兼容「舒—入」之辨的[15]，但要求在調的平面上要故意將「舒—入」之別忽略不顧。由於「錫」的韻母跟「色、食」的韻母不同，特改用雙聲兼疊韻的「[illegible][6]、節、截」，從而與舒聲的例子構成平行。

[15]

	A類	B類
T1	夫	擳
T2	府	
T3	富	節
T4	扶	
T5	婦	
T6	父	截

無論從[14]還是[15]看，都可知字調的本質是一個音節讀出來在音高上的高低升降。與此不同，聲母和韻母的異同則不涉音高因素而牽涉音高以外的別的因素。學員容或尚未完全掌握六個調之間的區別，但[10c]這個問題總算有了答案。

5. 從字調到韻母、聲母

當我們掌握了「怎麼樣的異同是『字調』的異同」，我們也就同時掌握了「怎麼樣的異同不是『字調』的異同」。非字調方面的語音異同，可能是聲母方面的異同，也可能是韻母方面的異同。要區分聲母和韻母，在較精巧的語言交際中時常利用到的疊韻關係是入門之鑰。[16]是一批押韻的對句，每組對句內兩個節段的末字之間有「疊韻」關係：

[16]　↓　↓
a.　多啲嚟，密啲手；少啲嚟，啱啱夠
b.　見高就拜，　見低就踩
c.　入得廚房，　出得廳堂
d.　一講曹操，　曹操就到
e.　一物治一物，　糯米治木蝨
f.　攞景，　抑或贈興？
g.　未吃五月粽，　不把寒衣送
h.　寧為鷄口，　莫為牛後
i.　受人錢財，　替人消災
j.　相不睇不發，　薑不磨不辣

就以[16a]為例，「手」與「夠」疊韻。像[8d]的「假牙」一樣，兩字讀音之所以相近，不因同調、不因雙聲，而是因為兩字的韻母相同。對這疊韻關係無感受或感受不強的，可再看看[17]的例子：

[17]　↓　↓
a.　阿崩叫狗，　越叫越走
b.　趁你病，　攞你命
c.　千揀萬揀，　揀著個爛燈盞

d. 人情還人情，數目要分明
e. 人搖福薄，樹搖葉落
f. 日頭唔好講人，夜晚唔好講神
g. 一朝得志，語無倫次
h. 有怪莫怪，唔識世界
i. 有心唔怕遲，十月都係拜年時
j. 唔怕醜，生到四十九
k. 睇你個樣，唔使燒炮仗
l. 知少少，扮代表
m. 忠忠直直，終須乞食

[17]裏有關的字的語音關係也往往像[16]的一樣被冠以「疊韻」的名目。人們可能會奇怪，為什麼[17]的近音關係在感受上要比[16]的來得強烈呢？理由很簡單：[17]的近音關係其實並非純粹建築在疊韻之上，而是既疊韻，又同調，即[7b]型「八」與「發」之間那種關係。

拿[16]和[17]中的兩批字例配合著來推敲，「聲母」和「韻母」的身分就呼之欲出了。[16]的近音字，其唯一相同成分就是韻母的所在；[17]的近音字，其唯一相異成分就是聲母的所在。在誦讀著來推敲的過程中，我們還應引導學員去體會：從時間先後的角度看，聲母在音節的最前端，而韻母則處於聲母之後。

6. 聲韻組合表的利用

假定字調這一成分已充分掌握，那麼我們在把音節析為「聲、韻、調」的組合的時候，就可率先把字調這一因素過慮掉。舉例說，「夫　府　富　扶　婦　父」都是相同的聲韻組合(可稱為「基本音節」)配合不同的調的不同成品。如此一來，我們就可以把音節分析的焦點放在聲母和韻母及兩者的組合上。請看下表：

[18]　廣州話　聲韻組合　字例

[18] 廣州話 聲韻組合 字例

韻 / 聲→ ↓	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1	B	P								D	T	[呢]					之	痴	師	衣
2	標	飄	妙							刁	挑	鳥	了	嬌	橋	囂	焦	超	消	腰
3										點	添	黏	斂	兼	鉗	謙	尖	簽	閃	閹
4										碟	貼	聶	獵	劫		協	接	妾	攝	葉
5	邊	篇	面							顛	天	年	連	堅	虔	牽	煎	千	先	煙
6	必	撇	滅							跌	鐵		列	結	揭	歇	節	切	舌	熱
7																	朱	處	書	於
8										端	屯	暖	亂	娟	拳	喧	專	川	孫	淵
9										奪	脫		劣	蹶	決	血	絕	撮	雪	月
10				夫	姑	箍	污													
11	杯	陪	妹	悔	會	潰	煨													
12	搬	潘	滿	寬	官		碗													
13	鉢	潑	沒	闊		括	活													
14	比	丕	尾	非					A	地		你	里	基	騎	嬉	J		死	
15	冰	拼	明		炯		永			丁	停	寧	另	京	傾	興	晶	請	升	英
16	逼	闢	覓			隙	域			的	剔	匿	力	激	[illegible]		跡	戚	色	益
17										堆	推	女	呂	居	驅	墟	追	吹	衰	銳
18										敦	盾		倫				樽	春	詢	潤
19												訥	律				卒	出	恤	
20	煲	舖	毛					傲	澳	刀	滔	瑙	老	高		好	租	粗	蘇	
21		碰	懞	風					甕	冬	通	農	龍	工	窮	空	中	充	鬆	翁
22	卜	仆	木	福					屋	篤	禿		錄	谷	曲	哭	粥	速	叔	郁
23	[啤]	[啤]	孭	啡			[划]			爹		[呢]		嘅	茄		姐	車	些	爺
24	餅	[平]	[命]							釘	廳		靚	頸		[輕]	鄭	[青]	[腥]	[贏]
25		劈								糴	踢		叻		劇	吃	隻	尺	石	
26										[朵]	[唾]			鋸	瘸	靴				
27												娘	良	薑	強	香	張	昌	雙	央
28										啄			略	腳	卻		雀	卓	削	約
29	波	破	魔	科	過		窩	我	屙	多	拖	糯	羅	哥		可	左	楚	梳	喲
30								外	哀	代	胎	耐	來	該	鈣	開	災	彩	腮	
31								岸	安					肝		看				
32														割		渴				
33	邦	旁	芒	方	光	狂	汪	昂	骯	當	湯	囊	狼	江	抗	康	裝	倉	桑	
34	博	樸	剝	霍	國	[擴]	獲	岳	惡	鐸	托	諾	落	各	確	學	作	[錯]	[索]	
35	蔽	批	迷	輝	歸	規	威	危	矮	低	梯	泥	禮	雞	溪	系	擠	妻	西	曳
36			踎	埠				牛	歐	兜	偷	嬲	樓	狗	溝	口	周	秋	收	幽
37	乓							[吟]	庵		氹	諗	冧	金	衾	堪	針	侵	心	音
38								噏		[耷]		凹	笠	急	級	洽	執	輯	濕	邑
39	賓	噴	蚊	芬	君	困	溫	銀	奀	墩	吞	[撚]		巾	勤	很	真	親	身	因
40	不	匹	物	忽	骨		屈	屹					甩	吉	咳	乞	質	七	失	一
41	崩		盟		轟		宏		鶯	登		能		梗	[鯁]	肯	箏	層	笙	
42	北		[嚰]						握	得						[克]	則	[測]	[塞]	
43	巴	爬	媽	花	瓜	誇	蛙	牙	亞	打	他	那	啦	加	[卡]	哈	渣	叉	沙	也
44	拜	派	買	快	乖		壞	崖	挨	大	太	奶	拉	街	[楷]	鞋	齋	猜	曬	[踹]
45	包	拋	貓					咬	拗			鬧	撈	交	靠	考	罩	抄	筲	
46								啱		耽	貪	南	藍	監		喊	斬	慘	衫	
47									鴨	答	塔	納	蠟	甲		狹	雜	插	圾	
48	班	攀	晚	翻	關		灣	雁	晏	丹	坦	難	懶	奸		慳	贊	餐	山	
49	八		[抹]	法	刮		滑	嚙	壓	達		捺	辣	曱			札	擦	殺	
50		烹	猛			[框]		硬	[罌]				冷	耕		坑	[爭]	撐	[生]	
51	百	拍			摑		或	額	軛				[勒]	格		客	窄	拆		

表[18]交代出傳統承認的20個聲母(含「零聲母」)和51個韻母如何組合成一些有字可寫的基本音節。表中每一直行是一個聲母，每一橫列是一個韻母。同一橫列的字是跟不同的聲母拼合的疊韻字，而同一直行的字則是跟不同韻母拼合的雙聲字。這個表提供了大量雙聲例子和疊韻例子，以及同一韻(例如第43號)換盡不同的聲母，和同一聲母(例如第16和19號聲母)幾乎換盡不同的韻母的例子。

學員如未能掌握聲母的異同或韻母的異同，他需要的是大量雙聲、疊韻、換聲、換韻的例子。本表正好為他們提供了所需字例。不過這些例子是拿來用耳朵聽的，而不是用眼睛看的。希望提高辨聲、辨韻能力的學員應該自己抽時間將字例分別逐行、逐列的誦讀出來，並專心地聆聽。聆聽的焦點在於：同一直行或同一橫列的字，它們相同在甚麼地方？相異又在甚麼地方？

使用表[18]的時候，得注意下列幾點：

——方括號內的字為多音字，並非每個讀音都適用於該聲韻組合。

——為增加可用字例，「字」的範圍擴大至包括單個的英文字母。

——沒有放字的組合位置，可能口語會用上。

——方框範圍為音系所不容的組合，不用花時間去嘗試或推敲。

能善用表[18]的學員，語音意識定能顯著地取得整體性的提高。接著下來，便是聲韻調細部語音意識的刺激和發展了。

7.　辨調能力

字調的性質，學員到了這個階段理應掌握。不過，對異調和同調的判斷，尚未必拿捏得準。下面[19]提供了一些字例。橫著唸，每列都是由四個同調的字構成的詞組或句子；豎著唸，每行的六個字都不同調，而且都以T1，T2……T6的順序排列。

[19]　T1　開機關槍
　　　T2　好想飲酒
　　　T3　快要爆炸
　　　T4　何妨求人
　　　T5　有你有我
　　　T6　重大任務

正像前面[14]可擴充為[15]以使照顧老把入聲和舒聲在字調層面加以區分的那種人的語感，[19]也可以基於同樣的考慮而擴充為[20]：

[20]　　　　—A類　　B類—
　　　T1　開機關槍　　即刻
　　　T2　好想飲酒　　鈪

T3　快要爆炸　　法國
T4　何妨求人
T5　有你有我
T6　重大任務　　獨立

［20］跟［15］有一個不可掉以輕心的分別：［15］的第二調B類懸空，但［20］的第二調B類則列了一個「鉅」字。面對「九調說」，［15］採取的是守勢，但求暫且把三個所謂入聲調安頓下來；而［20］則開始轉守為攻了。「鉅」使得九調說陷於困境，而本教程所假定的六調立場對「鉅」這樣的第二調B類字卻早就虛位以待了。

字調操練的首要目標是要學員快而準地判別出任何兩個不同的音節是同調還是異調。要達到或邁向這個目標，學員的聽辨練習是不可少的。誠然，［20］提供了不少同調異調的例子，較早前［14］的「夫府富扶婦父」還是聲韻相同而僅異於調的例子。不過，除非學員特別勤奮，或語音意識本來就比較強，否則光是例子的靜態提供是不夠的。學員需要的，是互動(interactive)模式的聽辨練習。基本方式是：教師講出兩個音節來，讓一組學員判斷它們是否同調，然後教師即時講出正確答案。具體的做法可因應不同的情況而定出。上述《語文及傳意》課程的語音課以八個人為一個導修組，我的做法是把問題以是非題的方式提出，學員以舉手表「肯定」、以不舉手表「否定」。例如我說：

［21］　認為「零」「一」不同調的舉手。

舉手的答對了，不舉手的答錯了。熟習後，［21］可簡化為［22］：

［22］　「零」「一」不同調。

舉手的，肯定在答「是」，不舉手的，卻有多種可能性：答「否」、未決定、不參與。若隨機找字，兩字只有六分之一機會同調。因此，「某某是否不同調」？這種提問方式以「是」為正確答案的居多。也就是說，在多數情況下，凡舉手的，都是沒有問題的；凡不舉手的，不管他在答「否」、未決定、還是不參與，都顯示出問題，教師都得留意。

用來提問的兩字組，可以預先準備，也可臨場找字。即使預先準備了，也不宜把用來提問的兩字組全部印在紙上發給學員像答問卷般在紙上回答。要取得好效果，最好能達到下列要求：

［23］　a　每次由教師把要問的兩個音節清晰地讀出來
　　　b　只讓學員聽到這兩個音節，而不讓學員看有關的兩個漢字(若有字可寫的話)
　　　c.　每聽到讀出一個兩字組後盡快回答
　　　d.　大家都能看見其他人所作出的答案
　　　e.　全組回答後，立刻告知正確答案

選些甚麼兩字組來提問呢？我認為大可不必預先精挑細選。我採用的方式是在每一導修課中把導修學員的姓名放在自己面前，截取三字姓名中的兩字來提問。比方「陳大文」就提供了「陳大」、「大文」、「陳文」三個兩字組，八個學員（若無同音字）就提供了24個兩字組。假定學員都認識同組其他學員的中文姓名，這個方式就免去了憑空讀出兩個音節來學員或會一時聽不清楚，或對某音節過分好奇等問題。

經過十來次問答後，辨調能力較差的學員便無所遁形了。操練的目的，教師的任務，就是要幫這些學員克服困難。

8. 把字調哼出來

把異調的聽成同調，怎麼辦？例如「陳大」異調，學員聽成同調，怎麼辦呢？反過來，若把同調的聽成異調，又怎麼辦呢？例如「陳文」同調，學員聽成異調，那又怎麼辦呢？

辨調有問題，最主要的原因是沒能把決定字調異同的因素——即「音高」這成分——從渾沌的音節中離析出來。有沒有辦法讓有關學員聽聽在擺脫了聲母、韻母等非音高因素後的字調是怎麼樣的呢？有。樂器可以奏出純粹在音高方面的差異，而有滑音效果的樂器（例如小提琴）更可模擬字調，奏出純粹在音高方面的高低升降。此外，吹口哨也能很好地模擬字調。不過，小提琴和口哨有這樣或那樣的不便，不切實際，不若把字調「哼」出來般無論何人何地都能輕易做到。

所謂「哼出來」，可有多種理解，有多種具體「哼」法，但教師要引導大家劃一用同樣的方式去哼，這樣才能收到好效果。這裏推薦大家用一個處於粵語音系邊緣的基本音節［hŋ］。用這個方式把「陳大文」等哼出來，就會像［24］那樣。

［24］　原字：　陳　　大　　文
　　　　哼出：　hŋ^4　hŋ^6　hŋ^4

哼出來的字調不像樂器奏出來或口哨吹出來那麼純粹，它還有類似聲母韻母的成分［hŋ］。不過，由於無論原音節的聲母韻母是甚麼都被扯平為［hŋ］這樣的近乎無意義的音，結果被突顯出來的就只有字調。如［24］所示，哼出來後，「陳」和「文」是一樣的，因為兩者字調相同；而「大」跟「陳」「文」就不一樣了，因為字調不同。把音節哼出來後，學員往往就能對字調這個概念恍然大悟。

遇到把異調聽成同調的情況，例如「陳大」異調，卻聽成同調，經過「哼出來」的步驟後，由於「陳」「文」哼出來顯然不同音，兩字的不同調就無所遁形了。

跟以上的情況相反，把同調的聽成異調，例如「陳文」同調，學員聽成異調，那又怎麼辨呢？在一般情況下，一樣可以用哼調的方法解決：[24]不但突顯出「陳大」異調、「大文」異調，也同時讓大家聽到，哼出調來後，「陳」「文」都一樣是hŋ^{4}這樣的聲音，因而突顯出「陳」「文」的同調。

不過，上一段所說的，並不常常應驗。不錯「陳」「文」都一樣是hŋ^{4}，但將中間沒有停頓的「陳文」兩字哼成同樣中間沒有停頓的「hŋ^{4} hŋ^{4}」後，兩個hŋ^{4}其實並不完全同音。此話怎說？把音節哼出來，與其說是突顯出了「字調」，倒不如說是突顯出了「音高」來得更符合事實。而問題正在於此：「音高」不但用於「字調」，還用於「語調」(intonation)。粵語的中立式語句用一種漸降語調(downdrift)，因此，「陳文」兩字的字調雖同，若「陳文」連著說，在後的「文」比在前的「陳」處於一個稍低的音高水平。

一般粵語人的字調意識比語調意識強得多，因而只會聽到「陳文」同調，根本不會受「漸降語調」的干擾。不過，字調意識本來就較差的人，尤其是那些碰巧在語言以外（例如通過音樂）具有較強的辨音高能力的人，「hŋ^{4} hŋ^{4}」聽在耳裏就難保不會認為並不同音。針對這種情況的對治方法是：除了哼出「陳文」外，還哼出其顛倒版本「文陳」。這麼一來，有關學員就會感受到[25]的a' 和b' 的同音了。

[25]　a.　陳　文
　　　a'.　hŋ^{4}　hŋ^{4}
　　　b.　文　陳
　　　b'.　hŋ^{4}　hŋ^{4}

不論a' 和b'，其中的前hŋ^{4}和後hŋ^{4}都不同音，但a' 和b' 之間卻是同音的。由此可知：

[26]　a.　（不管a' 或b'，）前hŋ^{4}和後hŋ^{4}的差異源於字調以外的、跟位置有關的因素
　　　b.　哼出「陳」來跟哼出「文」來的結果是相同的
　　　c.　「陳」「文」同調

如本節所示用「哼出來」的手段突顯出字調後，辨調能力方面的大部分問題基本上都能解決。

9.　舒聲入聲的辨別

前面第4節和第7節都用了特別措施，在圖[15]和圖[20]中區分出分別呼應舒聲和入聲的A、B兩類，貫串六個調。第4節又特別指出：舒聲與入聲是音節的兩大類型，敏於區別兩者是一種值得追求的語音意識。「舒聲—入聲」的辨別，對以下各事都有助益：

[27] a. 連繫「六調說」與「九調說」
b. 辨平仄
c. 辨韻尾

辨舒一入既然有用，那麼，與其把A、B兩類的劃分作為安頓「九調說」的臨時措施，倒不如把舒聲一入聲的區分名正言順地列入對學員語音意識要求的範圍內。

比較圖[15]和圖[20]中的A、B兩類，兩者的界綫在甚麼地方呢？換句話說，其分類基礎是甚麼？由於舒聲的字多而入聲的字少，入聲本身的性質也較突出，上述問題可轉化為「何謂入聲？」這問題。對此問題，請檢視一下以下幾種不同的答案：

[28] a. 入聲是以p、t、或k這些字母結尾的音節
b. 入聲是以塞音結尾的音節
c. 入聲是在音節之末，口腔發音通道某處（具體地說有雙唇、舌葉、舌根三種可能）成閉塞狀態的那些音節
d. 入聲是在音節之末，喉部成閉塞狀態的那些音節
e. 入聲是突兀地「收結」（即從有聲到無聲）的音節

[29] 入聲是較短的音節

跟[28a]有關，相信很多讀者會奇怪為何我遲遲沒有引入音標。我的理由如下：

[30] a. 語音意識是在聽音和發音上的辨異辨同能力，此能力並不以任何音標為前提
b. 在標音上用上相同或同類的音標是在聽辨上判斷為（音節中某成分）同音或同類的音的結果，不能倒果為因
c. 香港人名地名的慣常「英譯式」拼法，是一種偽拼音系統，造成很壞的干擾

回到[28a]，這是一種「以目代耳」的識別法。聾人、盲人、最低級的電腦都能勝任，但這跟語音意識的提高一點關係都沒有。用[30b]的道理來說，我們是因為聽出入聲音節的末尾是個塞音，才用塞音音標去標示有關的音，而不是倒過來，即「因為音節末有p, t, k這些字母，所以是入聲。」用[30a]的道理來說，即使世上沒有p, t, k等字母，甚至沒有任何音標，入聲還是可以跟舒聲區別開來的。

[28b]可有以下兩種理解：

[31] a. 入聲是以塞音這種「音標」結尾的音節
b. 入聲是以塞音這種「發音」結尾的音節

[31a]不外是[28a]的意思，不用討論。[31b]也就是[28c]的意思。[28c]才真正把學員的注意力放回語音本身的屬性上。問題是，它要求

學員對三種不同部位的塞音的發音細節均有所感受，並對它們之所以同屬塞音類也有所體會：這對部分學員來說是難以做到的。

[28d]則是從另一個角度去把握入聲音節韻尾所屬音類：無論在口腔的閉塞是p、t、還是k，都同時伴隨有喉部的閉塞[?]，這是粵語韻尾塞音的一大發音特色，但中文文獻中卻鮮有提及。正是這樣的發音特色，賦予入聲韻尾一個頗容易捉摸的標誌。問題是這時候學員對「喉塞」是甚麼也許一點也不認識，針對這個問題，可給予學員下列引導：

[32] 「喉塞」就是喉部閉塞的狀態，在語言以外也用得著，例如(被動或主動)咳嗽前、或深深吸氣後故意暫時留存大量氣體於肺部不讓呼出(例如搬動重物前或潛水前)等情況下喉部都處於閉塞狀態。

只要學員掌握了「喉塞」是怎麼樣的一種狀態，他就很有希望可以以此為著眼點輕易地把韻尾的三個不同塞音一網打盡，也即把入聲一網打盡。

[28e]又是從另一個角度去把握入聲音節。其實這個角度的著眼點還是「入聲音節韻尾都同時伴隨有喉部的閉塞[?]」這粵語韻尾塞音發音特色的一個派生現象。請看下列因果鏈：

[33] 韻尾塞音伴隨有喉塞

→這些塞音的「除阻」聽不見聲音(without audible release)

→發出一個音節的音，若韻尾是塞音，則到韻尾階段就會突然沒有了聲音。

[28d]和[28e]是互相配合的，可以兼收並蓄，讓學員對兩者都加以留意。有的學員敏於此、有的學員敏於彼。學員只要掌握其中之一，辨別舒聲入聲已無往而不利了。

[29]又是從另一個角度去把握入聲音節。[29]這命題是個很流行的說法。作為[33]的引申，我們可以這樣理解：

[34] 韻尾塞音伴隨有喉塞

→這些塞音的「除阻」聽不見聲音

→發出一個音節的音，若韻尾是塞音，則到韻尾階段就會突然沒有了聲音

→由於韻尾塞音無聲，入聲音節的有聲部分會短少了韻尾那一段

如果[29]僅以[34]的方式來理解，不失為辨識入聲的又一進路。不過，若把[29]理解或引申為下面[35]的那些基本上與事實不符的命題，就會反過來影響我們對舒聲、入聲、音長等概念的理解了。

[35] a. 入聲音節經常比舒聲音節為短

b. 入聲音節不能拉長，

10. 順次說出六個調

粵語分六調，這是學員在這一階段所已掌握的；而經過上一節「辨舒一入」的訓練後，「一調之內既可有舒聲，也可有入聲」的道理就更清楚了。此外，學員又從圖[14]知道六個調有1–6的標籤。辨識六調的異同是個基本的語音意識要求，而六個調跟六個標籤的對號則僅為一種方便設施，本身與語音意識無直接關係。雖然如此，由於六調標籤的記認很有實用價值，還是很值得我們去掌握的。

用1–6的數目去標籤字調，就等於給六個調規定了一個次序。六個調按一定的順序呈現出來，就成了一節極短的曲調。圖[14]的「夫府富扶婦父」，就是同一聲韻組合套上由規定次序的六個調所構成的小小歌曲。有的人以為把這曲唱好是辨調的先決條件，其實這是倒果為因了。唱出這曲，不外把已能辨的調一一跟1–6等標籤對上號而已。不過，像[14]這種用同一基本音節(即聲韻組合)套這首「六調曲」的練習，的確有助字調意識的提高，和暴露出一些辨調能力上的問題。例如「夫」唱出六個調，學員可能弄錯如下：

[36]

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6
正確：	夫	府	富	扶	婦	父
錯誤1：	夫	府	婦	扶	婦	父
錯誤2：	夫	府	富	扶	富	父
錯誤3：	夫	府	婦	扶	富	父

圖[36]展示的錯誤，都源於對T3和T5的辨別不夠敏感。[錯誤1]，T5重出，取代了T3。[錯誤2]，T3重出，取代了T5。[錯誤3]，T3和T5換了位置。

同性質的問題，也會出現在T2－T5之間和T3－T6之間。

對某兩調的辨別不夠敏感，不一定表示某人在語言使用中把兩調混了。如果將「夫府富扶婦父」換成[37]，每一個以粵語為母語的人都能正確地說出來：

[37]

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6
a.	三	九	四	零	五	二
b.	三	碗	細	牛	腩	麵[7]

[37]的兩款六調字串，正可利用來幫助記憶六調的順序。當這個順序不再構成障礙，就可進行同一基本音節套上(定序的)六調的練習了。首先，可視讀以下例子：

[38]	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6
	呼	虎	褲	符	婦	負
	芬	粉	訓	墳	憤	份
	因	隱	印	仁	引	孕
	幽	柚	幼	油	有	右
	衣	椅	意	移	已	二
	閹	掩	厭	鹽	染	驗
	淵	宛	怨	元	軟	願
	司	史	嗜	時	市	事
	衰	水	歲	誰	緒	隧
	威	委	畏	圍	偉	胃

這個練習的目標，是任何一個基本音節都能憑空唱出六調來。視乎學員達到這個要求的快慢，視讀的過程可縮短或整個免掉。

接著下來，[39]是一些半視讀的例子。由於有些位置無字可寫，或寫了也不好懂，特別加上注釋。設想中，學員應該不用看注釋，就能套出六調來。

[39]	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	・注釋・
	看^{1}	罕	看^{3}	寒	旱	翰	1：看護　3：看見
	冧	林*	□^{3}	臨	凜	□^{6}	*:林仔　3:□屋　6:□磚頭
	褸	樓*	□^{3}	流	柳	漏	*:買樓　3：□佢做生意
	拎	令^{2}	□^{3}	零	領	另	2：打令　3：悶悶□
	□^{1}	□^{2}	□^{3}	狼	朗	浪	1：發□嘮^{2}　2：□口出　3：□腳
	媽	□^{2}	嗎^{3}	麻	馬	罵	2：麻□哋　3：你好嗎？
	蚊	文*	□^{3}	民	敏	問	*：講英文　3：時間好□
	新	□^{2}	□^{3}	臣	□^{5}	慎	2：花□　3：（埋怨）　5：（神經有問題）
	雙	想	相^{3}	常	上^{5}	上^{6}	3：首相　5：上課　6：上午
	溫	搵	□^{3}	雲	允	運	3：（禁錮）

既然練習目標是任何一個基本音節都能憑空唱出六調來，到了一個階段，教師可隨便講出任何一個音節來，要求學員套出六個調。不過，並非每個基本音節都像[38][39]般跟任何調拼合都成為可用的音節的，請看[40]：

[40]	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	・注釋・
	靴	噓^{2}		噓^{4}			2, 4：噓^{4}　噓^{2}　聲

[hœː]跟T3, T5, T6拼合都非現成在用的音節，但這只是偶然未用的組合，學員應有能力唱齊六個調。可是，還有另一種不同的情況，見[41]和[42]：

[41]　T1　T2　T3　T4　T5　T6　　・注釋・
　　　巴　把　霸　爸⁴　＊　罷　　4：一爸
　　　畸　棋⁴　暨　奇　企　＊　　2：捉棋

[42]　T1　T2　T3　T4　T5　T6
　　　節　？　節　？　＊　截

在[41]，由於有關聲母的類屬和個別字調的組合限制使然，兩個打星號的聲韻調組合可認為是不能成立的。在[42]，一方面由於韻尾的類屬（塞音）和個別字調的組合限制使然，另一方面也由於[41]那種限制使然，打星號的聲韻調組合可認為是不能成立的；而打問號的組合也是不太正常的。面對這些情況，學員發不出那些音系所不容的組合是情有可原的，但語音意識（特別是拼音意識）較強的人一般都能通過類比而將有關音節發出音來，因而還是值得鼓勵學員去作出嘗試的。

11. 聲母操練

本文一直避免使用音標，為的是盡量避免學員以目代耳。但是，語音意識的訓練往往最後結晶為一套拼音系統的掌握。因此，在適當的階段，音標的介入還是有正面作用的。以下將圖[18]的第1–20號聲母據香港語言學學會1993年的《粵語拼音方案》配上具體字母：

[43]

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
b	p	m	f	gw	kw	w	ng	（零）	d	t	n	l	g	k	h	z	c	s	j

我們可以請學員輪流拿[aː]韻配上1–20號聲母（即b-j）作為熱身。跟字調不同，這1–20的具體次序沒有太大的意義，沒有記憶的需要。

聲母操練所採用的操練方式，基本上就是第7節《辨調能力》所介紹的操練方式，只不過把焦點改為放在聲母上罷了。至於所提問題則由[21]改為[44]：

[44]　認為「零」「一」不雙聲的舉手。

我個人的做法還是像第7節般主要在學員的姓名中找提問用字，但因應聲母不同於字調的情況，作出一些調整：第一，因雙聲的機率只有1/20，為了提高比率，故意多找雙聲的，少找不雙聲的。第二，要預先準備一些針對聲母辨識難點的字例。有關難點和所需字例如下：

[45]

	難點	所用字例
(a)	送氣－不送氣	冬天 鋼琴 碰杯 挑剔 蹺蹊 傾倒 青春 飽停
(b)	g－gw 及 k－kw	矜貴 求其 窮困
(c)	z, c, s 之圓唇與否	專職 忖測 相識

上述三項分別針對下列不同情況：

[46] a. [45a] 針對因受坊間偽拼音影響而無視送氣與否之別的情況
b. [45b] 針對因受普通話拼音影響而將gw和kw誤解為以g，k為聲母的情況
c. [45c] 針對因受英語影響而將圓唇版與不圓唇版的z、c、s誤為不雙聲的情況

把不雙聲的聽成雙聲，怎麼辦？例如「冬天」不雙聲，學員聽成雙聲，怎麼辦呢？首先，可把兩字真的改為雙聲，以資對比。教師指出：

[47] a. 把「天」改為用「冬」的聲母，成為「冬顛」，那才雙聲，或
b. 把「冬」改為用「天」的聲母，成為「通天」，那才雙聲
c. 「冬顛」與「通天」不同音，就因為聲母不同

有了對比，學員就可能明白過來了。此外，可以拿有關聲母跟不同的韻母拼合，從而突顯該聲母的身分，例如教師指出：

[48] a. 「冬」的聲母是[diː, daː, dœː]這樣的音，而
b. 「天」的聲母是[tiː, taː, tœː]這樣的音，所以
c. 兩者不雙聲

反過來，若把雙聲的聽成不雙聲，又怎麼辦呢？例如「專職」雙聲，學員聽成不雙聲，怎麼辦呢？一般來說，可用類似[48]的方法：

[49] a. 「專」的聲母 是z[iː], z[aː], z[œː]這樣的音，而
b. 「職」的聲母也是z[iː], z[aː], z[œː]這樣的音，所以
c. 兩者雙聲

但由於我們知道問題出在[46c]，我們可以更有針對性地指出：

[50] a. 不圓唇的[liː、 laː]與圓唇的[lyː、 lœː] 不影響它們之為雙聲，所以
b. 不圓唇的z[iː], z[aː]與圓唇的z[yː], z[œː]也不影響它們之為雙聲

12. 韻母操練

韻母(尤其韻腹部分)的標音比聲母標音的分歧要大，而韻母數目又相當多，一時間也無法記住，因此我們就繞過韻母的標音不提了。

韻母操練所採用的操練方式，基本上也是第7節《辨調能力》和上一節《聲母操練》所介紹的操練方式，只不過把焦點改為放在韻母上罷了。所提問題則由[44]改為[51]：

1801

[51]　認為「零」「一」不疊韻的舉手。

也像上一節一樣，為了提高疊韻出現比率，要著意多找疊韻的字組，少找不疊韻的字組；也要預先準備一些針對韻母辨識難點的字例。有關難點集中在因受坊間偽拼音影響而無視低元音韻腹的長[aː]短[ɐ]之別的情況。具體難點和所需字例如下：

[52]

坊間拼法	不疊韻字例
ai	大細
au	交手
am	擔心
an	爛瞓
ang	鄧生（作為「鄧先生」之簡）
ap	入閘
at	七八
ak	德伯

把不疊韻的聽成疊韻，怎麼辦？例如「大細」不疊韻，學員聽成疊韻，怎麼辦呢？可用上一節用過的辦法，把兩字真的改為疊韻，以資對比。教師指出：

[53]　a.　把「細」改為用「大」的韻母，成為「大晒」，那才疊韻，或
　　　b.　把「大」改為用「細」的韻母，成為「第細」，那才疊韻
　　　c.　「大晒」與「第細」不同音，就因為韻母不同

有了對比，學員就可能明白過來了。

反過來，若把疊韻的聽成不疊韻，又怎麼辦呢？例如「大怪」疊韻，學員聽成不疊韻，怎麼辦呢？一般來說，這種情況不多。以疊韻的為不疊韻，有以下幾種可能原因：

[54]　a.　因提防不辨低元音韻腹的長[aː]短[ɐ]之別而矯枉過正
　　　b.　[46b]的聲母問題反映在韻母上，即以為gw及kw的w是韻母的一部分
　　　c.　未能將字調跟韻母離析出來，以異調疊韻為不疊韻

這些誤差，或因一時之失（如[54a]）、或因較早階段的語音意識出了問題（如[54b, c]），均須對症下藥，區別處理。

13. 結語

本文粗略地勾劃出一個語音意識初級教程的基本輪廓。為免篇幅過長，許多細節都不及介紹或討論，希望讀者能舉一反三，並在基本原理框架內的廣闊空間，因應不同情況、不同教學目標，自由發揮。甘冒滑頭之譏，還是要說一句老話：運用之妙，存乎一心。

「初級教程」的提法本身就預設了一個「進階教程」的更高目標。事實上，就「語文及傳意」課程中語音課的教學目標來說，對語音意識有比上面所述更高的要求。例如：

[55] a. 韻母要切分為韻腹及韻尾
b. 要辨韻尾異同
c. 要辨韻腹異同
d. 要感知聲母的發音部位和發音方法
e. 要感知韻尾的發音部位和發音方法
f. 要感知韻腹的長短
g. 要感知韻腹的舌位
h. 要感知字調的調形

這些都是進階教程所應有的內容。

我意識到本文所介紹出來的是一個人力密集(labour-intensive)的教程。語音是口耳之學，語音意識教程之人力密集，可謂向來如此，誠不足怪。但是，這並不表示語音意識教學就只能是這個樣子。在多媒體電腦、電腦網絡、電腦輔助學習軟件、電腦中文處理等快速發展的今天，用資本投入代替大部分人力投入的願望至少並非不切實際。

當然，上述願望跟目前實況仍有一段距離，當中更明顯地缺了一個環節：還沒有人將這樣一個教程系統地、完整地寫出來。本文所勾劃的教程輪廓，就算是千里之行的第一步吧！寫出這個教程輪廓後，起碼小組導修可以由其他人來上課，而不一定由講課的人包辦。

附註：

① 據粵音，下同。
② 「生」有長[aː]（如「生仔」）、短[ɐ]（如「生育」）兩讀，作為一個「好意頭」的字取前一種讀音。
③ 至於那是通過口頭講述、講義，還是指定閱讀而達致，都不影響這個教程。
④ 嚴格來說，「聲韻」≠「韻母」，但在粵音的範圍內可不作區分。
⑤ 「字調」相當於英文tone。T1等可認為是「Tone 1」等的簡寫。
⑥ 或作「攊」，又或作「吱」，意思是「擠壓」、「噴射」或「撓癢癢」。
⑦ [37b]蒙梁仲森先生提供。

LANGUAGE THROUGH CONTENT AND CONTENT THROUGH LANGUAGE: THE ILE COURSE FOR TEACHERS USING ENGLISH AS THE MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

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Background

In 1990, Education Commission Report No. 4 made a number of recommendations regarding the Hong Kong Government's policy on the medium of instruction used in secondary schools (ECR 4 Ch.6). One of these recommendations was the elimination of the use of 'mixed code' in schools and the use of one medium only in any secondary class from S1 to S7. The Commission used the term 'mixed code' to mean the common practice of using textbooks, written work and examinations in English, with teachers using 'Cantonese to explain the lesson material to students and to conduct discussions with students', (ECR 4:100). It was recommended that in future only those students assessed through a medium of instruction grouping assessment (MIGA) in P6 as being able to study effectively through English at secondary level should do so. Parents were to be given guidance as to the appropriate medium of instruction for their child and were expected to use this in choosing a secondary school. Schools were expected to adopt either English or Chinese as their medium of instruction or to become two medium schools, with any one class using one medium consistently. With only minor amendments, the recommendations made in ECR 4 in this respect have become Hong Kong Government policy.

The Commission was aware in 1990 that its recommendation would have implications for teacher education but this topic was left to the following report, No. 5. As a minor part of a series of major recommendations for teacher education, ECR5 proposed, '.... In-service courses to help serving teachers upgrade their skills in the relevant medium of instruction.' (ECR5: 74). It was clearly the Commission's view that many teachers, by now accustomed only to using mixed code, and with many of the younger ones having been educated through it themselves, would lack the proficiency or the confidence to teach their subjects using only English or only Chinese.

The Need for Support for Schools

Experience elsewhere suggests that only a minority of children are able to change successfully from mother tongue to foreign language medium of instruction at the beginning of secondary schooling. (Much of the evidence for this comes from Canada, see Swain (1992) for a comparison of the

Canadian and Hong Kong experiences and possibilities of immersion programmes.) Yet in Hong Kong the huge majority of schools offer so-called English medium education (though in fact a mixture of languages) and parents demand it. The consequence of such social pressures is that schools are faced with a requirement, to educate many, perhaps most, students through an inappropriate medium. The principal rationale for using English as the medium of instruction for Chinese speakers in Hong Kong is to produce a high level of bilingualism. This then brings with it the various benefits students, parents and society are seeking. Plainly, the identification of those students who can achieve this through a late immersion programme is of immense importance.

If the students' ability to cope is in question then so is that of the teachers. It is not simply a question of language level though this is one factor. If students are to achieve bilingualism, then one of the responsibilities of all teachers is to develop the language competence of their students in the English of their own subjects. All teachers are, therefore, to a degree, English teachers in an English medium school and probably in a much more overt way than they need to be when teaching through the mother tongue. They need three qualities that may set them apart. They need a good standard of English for the teaching of their subject. They need to acquire the skills and strategies for teaching their own subjects through English and for helping their students develop their English. Lastly they need a positive attitude towards the use of English as a medium (Johnson, Shek and Law, 1993 p. 28).

A third major problem facing schools is that of resources. Many of the teaching materials produced for Hong Kong seem to ignore the fact that students are studying in a foreign language beyond providing unsystematic glossing of vocabulary. Few if any provide the sort of support students and teachers need by, for example, integrating language across subjects, providing opportunities for the reworking of knowledge through different means or providing a rich variety of activities that require the use of the subject language by students. The recently published Longman Bridge Programme (1994) does tackle a number of these issues for the initial three months of English medium education.

The Course Objectives and Organisation

A course which is intended to provide support for teachers must address the issues of resources, of the teachers' attitude, proficiency and skills and their understanding of the rationale for the use of English. It must also provide them with the understanding, knowledge, skills and commitment to give leadership in their own schools. The Institute of Language in Education began planning a course for teachers using English as the medium of instruction in 1993. At the same time, planning began of a course for teachers using Chinese as a medium of instruction. In December 1992 the theme of the ILE International Conference was 'Language and Content'. This brought together academics and teachers from a number of countries and papers, workshops and colloquia on a range of issues in this area were presented. A number of these were of direct relevance to the courses then being considered, notably those by Mohan, Tang, Wong, Goldstein and Liu, Reeves and Chan, Drave and Wong (see references) and influenced the overall design and parts of the content.

The Course for Teachers using English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI Course), as it emerged, has four main objectives:

1. To improve teachers' understanding of the relationship between language and learning.
2. To improve teachers' language proficiency in English for teaching their subjects and to strengthen their confidence in using English as the medium of instruction.
3. To assist teachers to develop classroom strategies for the effective use of English as the medium of teaching and of student learning.
4. To introduce teachers to language across the curriculum strategies.

The Course deals with issues which concern teachers working with S1-3 students and is, therefore, relevant both to them and to those at management level in secondary schools. Places on each EMI Course are open to teachers of all subjects. The Course is 16 weeks long and full-time, providing approximately 440 study hours. Teachers are nominated by their schools. The opportunity for worthwhile staff development, both for schools and for individuals is, therefore, considerable.

Major Features of the Course Design

The Course is intended to give teachers the chance to improve their own English and to reflect on medium of instruction issues in the light of their own experience and of the knowledge and ideas put before them. They are given opportunities to try out skills and strategies in the classroom as the Course progresses. This is achieved through three modules.

The Project Module (about 40% of the timetabled Course) requires each participant to complete three projects. Each involves planning, the development of teaching materials, teaching (in two of the three projects this takes place in school) and evaluation. Each project has a different focus, for example 'Working with texts' or 'Classroom interaction' and is prepared for a different lower secondary level. Teachers work in small, mixed subject groups. The cross-curricular links these sub-groups facilitate are a crucial factor in introducing the importance of co-ordinating an approach to language that involves all subjects. Teachers prepare materials and lessons individually for the teaching of their own subjects but are expected to plan with reference to the rest of their group so that certain aspects can be co-ordinated across subjects.

At the same time, focused language improvement work takes place (about 30% of the Course) made up of a compulsory 'core' and a range of options. As well as providing for direct language improvement, the Language Improvement Module gives teachers experience of modern language teaching techniques.

The third component of the Course is the Medium of Instruction Module (about 30% of the Course). This provides input on background issues together with the chance to develop and practise classroom skills and strategies. As all input and products are in English and the participants are expected to speak English to one another while in the Institute (and as of now frequently do), the module also provides a major opportunity for language practice. The module also provides integration by focusing on some of those aspects of the language development of students, through the teaching of content, which the teachers have recently been working on for their own language improvement. Most components of the Medium of Instruction Module are related to the needs of the content classroom and feed directly into the three projects. These provide the chance for practice and experimentation. This relationship is fundamental to the Course. The components which provide this input include ones on motivating students towards English medium education, on identifying linguistic difficulties in texts and evaluating and selecting resources, on the development of appropriate teacher language and the skills to accompany it, on student language development and dealing with errors, and on teaching content through the four modes.

The Course is not intended to make all teachers into specialist teachers of English. Rather it should help them to understand relevant medium of instruction issues and the background to the current policy. It should then help them to see what contributions they can make to the successful use of English as a medium in their own schools, both through their teaching and through working in teams with teachers of their own and other subjects. In order to achieve this, however, some understanding of what is involved in teaching and learning a language is necessary. A basic knowledge of language and content relationships through, for example, knowledge structures (Mohan, 1986, 1993, Tang, 1992) is essential. Similarly, teachers need to be aware of the typical structures of texts found in their own subjects and of how to recognise the difficulties students are likely to have with these. They have to recognise the need to promote the active use of English in the classroom as a part of the teaching and learning of their own subjects. At the same time, it was recognised as crucial during the preparation of the Course that the integrity of the teachers as specialist teachers of subjects other than English should be respected. We believed that the major challenge of the Course would be to convince the subject teachers that they needed more than simply an improvement of their own English proficiency. Only slightly less significant was the need for Institute staff to accept new ways of thinking. It was crucial that they should appreciate that, unlike the language teachers they were accustomed to working with, the EMI Course participants would probably be unconvinced that language was central to teaching and learning.

The Story so far

The first intake of 54 teachers of eight subjects came to the Institute in February 1994. Of these nearly half are teachers of mathematics, with integrated science having the next largest subject representation; six are English teachers. It is encouraging that schools have nominated a number of senior staff, who can be expected to have some influence within their schools when they return. At the time of writing (six weeks into the Course) the first block of the Course, culminating in the first project, has just been completed. What follows is, therefore, based on preliminary results of a questionnaire-based evaluation of that part of the Course together with my own impressions of how the Course is going. These are based on observation, some experience of teaching the subject teachers and discussions with them and with ILE lecturers who are also very closely involved with the Course.

One of the most striking characteristics of the group of teachers who have joined the Course is their ignorance of language policy in Hong Kong. The question of medium of instruction has been widely discussed in recent years and yet little information on the policy or the background to it has either reached or been absorbed by these teachers. Of particular concern to the ILE staff working closely with them is the teachers' initial belief that the ILE is trying to promote the greater use of English as a medium of instruction rather than the most appropriate language for each student.

We are encouraged by the standard of English the teachers possess and their commitment to self-improvement in this area. While some are struggling, they are generally able to sustain a sufficiently high level of academic discussion in English to meet the demands of the Course. They are both able and determined in many cases to maintain its use for more general purposes with one another while in the Institute, even when tutors are not present. This will certainly be the most important factor in any improvement in fluency and confidence resulting from the Course. For most participants, their principal objective in attending the Course is their own language improvement; there have already been requests for it to be allocated a greater proportion of course time. This is confirmed by the questionnaire evaluation. Some participants were surprised to find that there are any other components in the Course. (This was made very clear in details sent to schools with nomination forms.)

Despite this, the acceptance of what we are setting out to achieve, while not universal and certainly not unquestioning, is generally high. The teachers are extremely doubtful about the wisdom of the medium of instruction policy as currently being implemented and whether many of the classroom and planning strategies being proposed are practical in their schools. They are probably right to be sceptical. Many of them are aware that the other conditions for success in the use of English as the medium do not exist in their schools. Very few were consulted when their schools were deciding which medium to adopt. They are, nevertheless, thinking very seriously about language and education and the relationship between language and the content of their own subjects. The Course components have been well received and the evaluation is definitely positive.

The projects provide the most substantial examples of the teachers own commitment, their level of understanding and their ability to relate the Course to their own school and classroom practice. The projects also reveal where there are serious weaknesses in understanding either as a result of weaknesses in Course design or content, or to the fact that it is only one third over.

For their first project, the great majority of the teachers have made serious efforts to produce a unit of work which combines the teaching of their subject with at least some elements of classroom language practice, a recognition of language difficulty where appropriate, and some integration of language across subjects. It is easy to underestimate the changes in outlook and practice that this work represents for many individuals. Mathematics teachers, for example, have frequently been told over the years that their subject is 'language free' and that the more they restrict their students' work to figures the fewer difficulties they will have. It is highly encouraging, therefore, to see a series of lessons on a topic as seemingly unpromising as congruent triangles that can be described as language rich. This example also includes a sophisticated attempt to simplify a peculiarly obscure textbook in a way that should also help students' English to develop and proposes a range of techniques that will enable the teacher to explain the topic without the use of Cantonese. Some groups of teachers attempted to integrate the content of their subjects through a single theme (farming in one case). Others recognized mathematical procedures (and therefore language) that are required in other subjects (the calculation of percentages, for example) or scientific concepts that can be useful in the understanding of a topic in another subject. The fact that these attempts may not always be successful should not disguise their value. If the burden on students and teachers in English medium schools is to be made manageable then this sort of co-operation must become more frequent.

The lack of understanding of the language features that make their subjects distinct has been the most important weakness demonstrated in these early projects. Without that understanding the teachers are both unable to focus on the language of their subject in their own lessons or truly to see the relationship between language and content. The examples of language, other than vocabulary, that most have identified as 'difficult' for students or 'significant' in a lesson or in a text have been such things as tenses, interrogatives, imperatives or passives. Furthermore, it is frequently instructional language that is identified rather than content language. While in a few cases these judgements may be accurate they are generally not so and we cannot say that the teachers are yet teachers of language and content.

The difficulties the teachers have in seeing relationships between language and content in their own subjects mean that the integration of language across subjects has also produced considerable problems in these early projects. Classroom language has proved the least troublesome in this respect at this stage as any problems in this area are likely to be revealed only with teaching real classes later in the Course.

Not surprisingly, the teachers have a clear idea, accurate or not we have yet to establish, of the technical vocabulary of their subjects that students would not understand. They seem to be less secure about the sub-technical. There are many examples in the projects of vocabulary being recycled; this is done consciously and deliberately in different subject lessons planned by cross-curricular groups. They do, however, lack sensitivity to different meanings of words in different subjects and in different contexts.

Revision and Development of the Course

There are already a number of significant issues of course design and management that we know need adjustment or further development. Firstly, the success of the projects, which are so central to the Course, depends in large part on the closeness of the relationship between the Medium of Instruction Module (the 'input' from the Department) and the Project Module (the 'output' from the Course participants). Too many components are seen by the teachers, and this is backed up by the materials produced for the projects, as not contributing significantly. Either the Course structure or the content, it is not yet clear which, needs further thought.

Secondly, some consideration must be given to dealing with substantial imbalances between subject specialisms represented on a Course, which means, in particular, the high proportion of mathematics teachers. The professional relationships and understandings that are developing among teachers of different subjects have been one of the successes of the Course to date. This is confirmed by the evaluation. Even if it were administratively possible it might be undesirable to limit the numbers of certain subject specialists (almost certainly mathematics) on a Course. It would be equally unacceptable to run Courses only for teachers of one subject. It is a truism to say that in-service course participants learn more from one another than they do from the formal content but it seems especially important when they represent different disciplines. On the other hand, different subject teachers do have their own needs and priorities and these must be addressed. One aspect of this is the need for a greater concentration on individual subjects within the Course components (in addition to a wider range of teacher and student materials available for reference in the Department).

Another issue to be faced in the longer term is the need to provide an acceptable assessment of teachers' language competence for teaching purposes. At present this is beyond our means. We also have to develop our relationships with schools to provide better opportunities for participants to work with classes.

One of our concerns at the course design stage of the EMI Course was how well our own staff would adjust to the needs of teachers of subjects other than English. The development of a 440 hour course as fundamentally different in objectives and design from those that have previously constituted the work of the Department provided a major challenge to the teaching staff. This was particularly so when other major developments were also taking place in the Department and within teacher education in Hong

1810

Kong. In most cases the evaluation questionnaires indicate that, while they may need to be more clearly focused at project work, the components produced and taught so far are generally appropriate in content and in level. More informal evaluation suggests that the teachers are concerned about being 'treated like English teachers', they feel that there may be a lack among some of the staff of awareness of or sensitivity to the massive adjustments in thinking that the teachers are being asked to make. Some of the relationships intended by the Course design to be made between course components are more difficult to establish than we had expected. A Course of this type is clearly a learning experience for those teaching on it as much as for those studying.

Issues for the Future

The development of the EMI Course will, we hope, continue for several years and it would be surprising if the Course in, say, three years' time bore much relationship to the one that started in February 1994. The most significant developments may come about as a result of the evolution of the Government's medium of instruction policy. The EMI Course cannot exist alone and course developers will have to pay careful attention to, for example, the level of adoption of bridging courses at S1 and the characteristics of the Target Oriented Curriculum to be introduced at Key Stage Three.

Three issues stand out as being particularly significant. Firstly, the degree to which the Education Department monitors and then enforces the medium of instruction policy will be crucial. Secondly, changes in the nature of external examinations could have a dramatic effect on teachers' perceptions of the importance of language and the relationship between language and content. This would be so if, for example, candidates were required to explain, describe, justify or solve problems within their subject, using the language of their subject, be it English or Chinese. This would be a move away from the emphasis on displays of factual knowledge that currently predominate. Such changes would also focus parents' attention on the choice to be made in P6 in a way that has not been the case up to now. Lastly the teacher qualifications to be awarded by the Hong Kong Institute of Education, could lead to teachers being certificated to teach in one, two, or even three languages. School principals need some way in which they can tell at the recruitment stage whether a teacher is competent to teach in English. An in-service course could provide the means for those already teaching to add a certification to teach in English, and thereby demonstrate their competence. Any developments along these lines would have a dramatic effect on the nature of the Course and the attitude of the teachers towards it.

However the issue of the medium of instruction used in Hong Kong secondary schools evolves it seems certain that there will be a role for English. That said, the case for an in-service course to help teachers of all subjects use the language effectively in the classroom remains strong. Such a Course clearly belongs in an Institute of Education, from which expertise in other subject teaching can be drawn to complement and enrich that in language teaching. The understanding of the relationships between language and content that we are seeking to develop would then be made real through those providing the Course.

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REPORT ON THE INTENSIVE ENGLISH PROGRAMME FOR SIXTH FORM STUDENTS WHO HAVE STUDIED THROUGH THE MEDIUM OF CHINESE

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Background

The Intensive English Programme (IEP) for Sixth Form students who have studied through the medium of Chinese arises from a recommendation of the Education Commission Report No. 4. The recommendation is that there should be a course 'to allow students who have studied in the medium of Chinese to improve their English language skills prior to their entry into tertiary education' (para 6.6.11 in ECR4 Chapter 6, 1990). The ECR4 recommendations were endorsed by the Governor in Council in 1991.

The recommendation was made in recognition of the fact that students studying through the medium of Chinese would be exposed to considerably less English at school than students studying through the medium of English. It was suggested that measures such as an Intensive English Course for Chinese-medium students would expose them to more English and help them to meet tertiary requirements.

Working Party's Recommendation

An agreement was made between the Director of Education and tertiary institutions offering degree courses via their representative that the Education Department would help these students achieve tertiary entrance requirements in general English, and the tertiary institutes would organise English enhancement courses to assist students to develop the language and skills required for tertiary level study in their specialist subjects. In October 1991, a Working Party was set up, headed by the Deputy Director of Education, with twelve members comprising representatives from tertiary institutes. The possibility of different forms of courses were considered and it was resolved that an integrated Intensive English Programme should be organised for Sixth Form students who had studied through the medium of Chinese.

The Intensive English Programme (IEP)

It was decided that the Intensive English Programme should be seen as a whole and should contain:

- a post S6 4-week course (starting in 1993)
- a post S7 6-week course (starting in 1994).

- a Supplementary English Exam (from 1994)
- a Self-Access English Learning Package to be used during the Sixth Form (available from September 1995)
- a series of 6 seminars each year for English teachers of the students in the Programme

The British Council was contracted to organise the Intensive English Programme with assistance from the Tung Wah Group of Hospitals, and with assistance for the Supplementary English Exam provided by the Hong Kong Exams Authority. The Council is also responsible for developing the Self-Access English Learning Packages, and for organising the seminars for teachers.

The Post S6 Course

Only Chinese-medium students are qualified to participate in the two courses. This year the Certificate of Education Exam was used as an indicator as to which students were to be considered 'Chinese-medium'. To qualify a student must have sat for at least 50% of the papers in Chinese except for the subjects for which there is no choice of language (i.e. Chinese, Chinese History, English, English Literature, Buddhist Studies, Short-hand and Typing).

Since the number of students who were qualified far exceeded the number of places, further requirements were imposed: a student must have sat for 100% of the papers in Chinese (except for the subjects specified above, and for Maths and Additional Maths); and he/she must have at least 14 points in his/her six best subjects. About 1110 students were recruited into the Post S6 Course both in 1993 and in 1994.

The Post S7 Course and the Supplementary English Exam (SEE)

To be eligible for the Post S7 Course a student must have completed the Post S6 Course, and have obtained an F grade in Use of English. In May 1994, the Exams Authority arranged to have the U of E results announced earlier than in the past so that students with an F grade could immediately enrol on the Post S7 Course and prepare for the Supplementary English Exam.

Only students who satisfied the above two criteria were qualified because the Working Party felt that the Intensive English Programme should be seen as a whole. They believed that while the overall effect of a 10-week Intensive English Programme (4 weeks post S6 and 6 weeks post S7) supported by a Self-Access Learning Package could realistically be expected to contribute cumulatively towards raising a Grade F performance to Grade E, it could not be expected to bring those below Grade F to Grade E level.

Since the aim of the whole Programme was to maximise Chinese-medium students' opportunities to meet the entrance requirements of tertiary institutes, only those who satisfied the above mentioned criteria and who also satisfied the entrance qualifications in other subjects were allowed to take the Supplementary English Exam.

A 'pass' in the Supplementary English Exam was deemed acceptable to tertiary institutes as meeting.the entrance requirements in respect of English to courses for which Grade E in the Use of English was the usual requirement.

Guidelines for the Courses

In order to ensure the quality and effectiveness of the course, the Working Party stipulated guidelines for the organisation of the two courses. as follows:

- The Post S6 Course should focus on raising the motivation of students towards learning English, and on providing them with strategies that would enable them to benefit fully from their S7 studies and so do better in their U of E exam;
- The Post S7 Course should focus on upgrading the standard of English of students with an F grade in U of E but who have otherwise met the entrance requirements of tertiary institutes. This would enable the students to have a second chance to gain admission to these institutes;
- The students should have plenty of individual attention from the instructors and the overall staff-student ratio should not be less favourable than 1:10.

Progress to Date

The first Post S6 Course was run in summer 1993. About 1,780 students applied and 1,117 students were accepted. In May 1994, about 270 of these students got an F grade in U of E and became eligible for the Post S7 course. At the time this article was written, the course was still being run. By the end of the course, the A-Level Exam results would have been released and students meeting the entrance requirements of any tertiary institute would be allowed to sit for the Supplementary English Exam. If they got a 'pass' in this exam, they would be considered for admission to these institutes.

The second Post S6 Course will be run in late July 1994. About 1,800 students have applied for this course and 1,118 students have been admitted.

Six seminars have been organised for teachers of Chinese-medium Sixth Form students over the past year.

The preparation of the Self-Access English Learning Package is underway. About fifty percent of the materials have been prepared and they are being piloted at S6 level in thirteen Chinese medium schools.

An increase in funding is being sought for this course, in order to increase the number of students who might attend. However, there is no guarantee that the bid for extra funding will be successful.

Evaluation of the Programme

It is not easy to determine the effectiveness of the Programme since it was the first time that Chinese medium students sat the U of E exam. It is not possible to compare the U of E results this year with those of previous years. Hence it is difficult to measure the amount of improvement due to the Programme.

Points for Further Consideration

With the announcement of the U of E results, which has always attracted the attention of the public, the press was particularly interested in the Post S7 Course as a special measure to help students with an F grade to obtain an E grade. Initially, the press and some members of the public, including some teachers and students from English-medium schools, did not seem to appreciate the fact that the Post S7 Course was for Chinese medium students only.

When the aims of the Course and the IEP were clarified, a small number of people felt that the Programme should be extended to students from English-medium schools as well. Their argument was: students from these schools do not really use English to study content subjects and therefore do not have much more exposure to English than the Chinese-medium students.

However, this Programme is a positive discrimination measure to encourage students to study in a medium suitable for them. If a student appears to be able to benefit from being taught through Chinese only, he/she is encouraged to join a Chinese-medium school.

The IEP is one of the measures the Government has introduced to support these students to compensate for the lack of exposure to English. The IEP is an interim measure introduced at a time when only a relatively small member of students are learning through Chinese. As the number of Chinese-medium students grows, it will become difficult or even impossible to run the Programme, both because of the amount of funding necessary and the logistics—by 1996, the number of students for the Post S6 Course might go up to around 2,800, and that for the Post S7 Course to around 550. With a teacher-student ratio of 1:10 as stipulated, the number of teachers required for the summer of 1996 will be over three hundred and thirty. Recruiting this number of teachers qualified to teach on the Course would be a major problem.

According to the calculation of the Government, at present, approximately 70% of students are expected to be Chinese-medium. This would mean a huge number at S6 level. Indeed, as the number grows, a solution for the longer term is required. Assistance in English should be more integrated into the system and representatives from both secondary and tertiary levels need to agree on a feasible arrangement for the transition from Chinese-medium secondary education to English-medium tertiary education.

One possible solution might be for tertiary institutes to offer places to students who meet the entrance requirements in their results in subjects other than English. A student who gets an F grade in English should take an English proficiency bridging programme offered by the institute to enable him/her to study through English. The alternative is to have two different English exams at tertiary entrance: one for Chinese-medium students and one for English-medium students. The third solution might be to offer tertiary education in Chinese-medium as well as English-medium.

THE PRIMARY ENGLISH EXTENSIVE READING SCHEME—THE FIRST YEAR OF DEVELOPMENT

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In September 1993, the development of the Hong Kong Primary English Extensive Reading Scheme (HKERS(PRI)) began in the Institute of Language in Education (ILE). A project team consisting of one Senior Lecturer, one Lecturer and two Research and Development Officers was set up and work on developing resource materials suitable for use in the Scheme is under way. In this report we shall describe the Scheme and the work in progress.

Background

There has been a growing interest in English extensive reading programmes in Hong Kong schools in recent years. In response to growing demand, the ILE set up an extensive reading scheme for secondary schools in September 1991. This Scheme for junior secondary students is now well established and is well received by teachers and students. Feedback from teachers also showed that there was a need for a scheme at primary level: They pointed out that while it was good to have a reading scheme at Secondary One, it would be even better if there was a reading programme at primary level so that the habit could be formed and nurtured earlier. Approval was therefore obtained from the ED to implement a reading scheme at Primary 5 and 6 levels. Booklists and resource materials for the Scheme are being developed now, and the Scheme will be implemented in schools by phases from September 1995.

Definition of an Extensive Reading Programme

In our definition, 'extensive reading' means reading a large number of books for enjoyment and information. In an extensive reading programme, books of high-interest level are provided in large quantity. The pupils, working at their own pace, are encouraged to read as many books as they can. The language level of the books they read should roughly match their competence in reading so that they can read the books comfortably and quickly.

By participating in the reading programme, pupils will greatly increase their exposure to the language. Research studies on such programmes seem to indicate that such exposure helps to improve pupils' proficiency in the target language. Elley's study of a nationwide extensive reading programme in the Fiji Islands showed that the 'book flood' classes made much greater improvement in all aspects of English than the control groups using an Oral

English Syllabus based on audio-lingual approaches and the improvement was especially marked in reading (Elley and Mangubhai 1983). Similar positive language gains were also reported in two nationwide extensive reading programmes for primary pupils, one in Singapore (Ng 1989) and the other in Brunei (Ng 1992). It will be interesting to see whether a reading programme for Hong Kong primary pupils will yield similar results.

Structure of the Hong Kong Primary Extensive Reading Scheme

The Hong Kong Primary English Extensive Reading Scheme (HKERS(PRI)) is an integral part of the Primary English curriculum. Participating schools will be required to allocate class time to extensive reading so that pupils can make full use of the resources provided and will also be given regular help by their English teachers.

The schools will be given resource packages and in each package there will be approximately 300 books (both fiction and non-fiction) of a variety of genres and settings. The books will be graded into six different reading levels, with progression from the easiest to the more difficult. Each book will also be accompanied by support materials in the form of a 'Help Card' and an 'Activity Card'.

As even pupils in the same class may have different levels of English proficiency, the Scheme also includes a placement test to help teachers assess individual pupils' reading ability so that they can enter the programme at the appropriate reading level. In addition, teacher's manuals, teaching aids, guidelines and sample lesson plans to help the implementation of the Scheme, and reading charts and records to help teachers and pupils monitor progress will also be provided.

The First Stage of the Development Work

(a) A questionnaire survey on extensive reading in Hong Kong primary schools

As a first step in the development work of the HKERS(PRI), a territory-wide questionnaire survey on the current practices in Hong Kong primary schools concerning extensive reading was conducted in October 1993. Since the reading scheme is designed for Primary 5 and 6 pupils, the survey was targeted at upper primary level. The aims of the survey were to investigate the extent to which extensive reading materials and extensive reading type of activities are used at present at upper primary level. It also attempted to find out what reading difficulties pupils have and to gauge primary teachers' opinions on the place of extensive reading in the curriculum.

The questionnaire was sent by post to 435 primary schools chosen at random from the 852 primary schools in Hong Kong. 294 questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of 67.6%. A detailed analysis of the survey is presented in Yu et al (1994).

The data collected from the questionnaire provided useful information for the development and design of the HKERS (PRI). Firstly, the survey showed that most teachers considered extensive reading as useful in helping their pupils learn English. They believed that through reading English books extensively, their pupils would gain confidence and interest in reading and develop the ability to read independently. However, the survey also revealed that little emphasis is given to extensive reading in the present curriculum. Since the HKERS(PRI) will be fully incorporated into the English curriculum, it can hopefully redress the balance. In this connection, it is heartening to find that of the schools surveyed, 120 have already indicated interest in joining the Scheme, showing that there is considerable enthusiasm for such a reading programme in Hong Kong primary schools.

Results of the survey also suggest that most teachers thought reading English was difficult for their pupils. For example, they found that their pupils had serious problems in interpreting implicit ideas in the text, tackling words, and sustaining reading for a reasonable period of time. The implication is that besides providing pupils with high-interest books, we must also consider ways to prepare the pupils so that they can develop the ability to read independently.

(b) The Selection, grading and piloting of books

The most important criterion we adopted in choosing books is that they must be interesting. As Bright & McGregor(1970) pointed out, 'The most important thing is that the pupils should enjoy what they read. A book that satisfies all other criteria but fails this one is a reject.' Asher (1980) also showed empirically that children's comprehension of high-interest material was superior to their comprehension of low-interest material.

Moreover, since the Scheme is for primary schools territory-wide, the books must also cater to a wide range of reading abilities, so that the weaker pupils will find books which are easy enough to start with, and the brighter pupils will find books which are challenging to read. Besides considering the language in terms of the complexity and familiarity of structures as well as the range of vocabulary, it is also important to look at the presence of contextual and pictorial clues, amount of information load, and physical features such as length, print size, and quality of illustrations.

In order to locate suitable titles, we have vetted over 4,000 titles from local and overseas book stores, agents, publishers, the ILE Resource Centre, and primary schools that have their own collection of English books. These include books written for foreign learners of English, reading schemes for native speakers of English (e.g. Oxford Reading Tree, Ginn Reading 360), and books that are written for the leisure reading of native speakers of English. So far about 750 titles have been selected as potentially suitable reading materials to include in the Scheme. A lot of books were excluded for the following reasons:

1. Readers accompanying textbooks are written in tightly controlled language. Pupils may find them easier to read because they are more familiar with the vocabulary and structures used. However, many of these 'structured readers' often focus on language teaching rather than on the storyline or interest level and are therefore not suitable for inclusion in an extensive reading scheme. Moreover, most of them have been used in Hong Kong primary schools as class readers;
2. Books written in English simple enough for our weakest P.5 and P.6 pupils are often too childish for them;
3. Books with appealing content are sometimes too difficult for upper primary pupils to read on their own;
4. Books written for native speakers of English often contain too many colloquial and idiomatic expressions which hinder pupils' overall comprehension of the texts. The unfamiliar settings of some of these books also make them difficult to read.

In order to find out whether we were on the right track in the selection and grading of materials for the Scheme, we conducted a pilot study to gather pupils' comments on the books included in our preliminary selection in terms of interest level, level of difficulty of language, and layout. Information obtained from the pilot would be used to evaluate individual books. 732 books were involved in this pilot study.

The study took place in March 1994 in five primary schools (seven primary 5 classes, six primary 6 classes). Each class of pupils was presented with about 200 books in two categories: fiction and non-fiction. The books in each category were graded into three levels of difficulty. The pupils were invited to read books from both categories and different grade levels. They had to complete a questionnaire about the book before returning it and borrowing another one. On average each book was exposed to 160-200 pupils. About 5,000 questionnaires were collected and are now being processed.

(c) Development of support material

As discussed in 4.1, since pupils have serious difficulties in reading in English, support must be given to enable the pupils to benefit from extensive reading. In the design of the Extensive Reading Scheme, each book in the Scheme will be accompanied by a 'Help Card' and an 'Activity Card'.

The 'Help Card' provides pre-reading activities which aim at preparing and motivating pupils to read the book. For example, the general context, setting, or difficult vocabulary items which hinder overall understanding of the book are introduced in the 'Help Card'. The cards also contain activities aimed at developing reading skills and strategies to facilitate reading, like making prediction about the content of a book, using different ways to deal with different text-types, and using illustrations and contextual clues to aid understanding.

The 'Activity Card', which provides post-reading activities, serves not only as a reading record but also feedback to pupils themselves on how well they have understood the book. The activities also help them build up their skills in extensive reading, and extend their knowledge and imagination through giving response to the characters, events and ideas of the book. It is hoped that the support materials provided will make the process of reading more fruitful and enjoyable.

Conferences, Workshops and Public Enquiries

The project team has also been actively engaged in activities aimed at raising awareness of the value of extensive reading and extensive reading programmes in primary schools. This is done through presentations at seminars and workshops. In November 1993 two sessions on extensive reading were run for Primary teachers of English participating in the ILE Refresher Course. In the two-hour plenary session the participants were introduced to the definition and aims of extensive reading and the need for extensive reading programmes in the curriculum. A few teachers expressed concern about allocation of class time to the Scheme and the implications for the teaching schedule of English, but it was generally perceived that extensive reading should be given greater emphasis in the curriculum. The participants were also introduced to the particular design of the Primary Extensive Reading Scheme, including the resource package, teachers' and pupils' tasks in the Scheme and related implementation procedures. In the two-hour workshop session the participants were given some hands-on experience in developing and evaluating support material for extensive reading. They were invited to inspect a sample of books potentially usable for extensive reading and design workcards to accompany a book they would choose for their pupils. At the reporting back session they presented and evaluated the materials produced.

In December 1993 the ERS team presented a paper entitled 'English Extensive Reading in the Primary Curriculum—Current Practices and New Initiatives' at the International Language in Education Conference. The findings of the survey conducted by the team in October 1993 were presented and the implications for the development of the Primary English Extensive Reading Scheme were discussed. There was also a mini-display of children's books. The audience, including teachers, teacher educators and publishers from Hong Kong and overseas, expressed great interest in the Scheme.

In March 1994 the ERS team was invited to give a talk on extensive reading programmes at the Salvation Army Teachers' Conference. In the talk, both the resource package for the HKERS(PRI) and the operation of the Scheme were described and discussed.

The ERS team has also received enquiries from individual schools, teachers and parents about the Scheme, mostly about the implementation schedule and the selection of books.

Future Development

As mentioned earlier, the HKERS(PRIMARY) will be implemented by phases in schools from September 1995. More development work will need to be done before that date. In the coming year the following will be undertaken:

1. Revision of workcards developed this year and review of booklists in the light of further piloting;
2. Development and trialling of the placement test;
3. Development of a teacher education package, including teacher's manual, teaching aids and guidelines to help schools to implement the Scheme as well as sample lesson plans and schemes of work. These include, among others, using big books to introduce to pupils the features of different parts of a story book and to demonstrate various reading strategies;
4. Development of reading charts and records to help teachers and pupils monitor progress;
5. Preparation and conduct of induction courses for headteachers and teachers from schools interested in joining the Scheme;
6. Procurement of books in the Scheme and the production of workcards and documentation ;
7. Development of evaluation instruments to evaluate the effectiveness of the Scheme and to improve its materials and operation.

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THE HONG KONG VOCATIONAL ENGLISH PROGRAMME

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Introduction

The Hong Kong Vocational English Programme, or HKVEP, is a new training/certification scheme based on a partnership between the Hong Kong Government and the London Chamber of Commerce and Industry Examinations Board (LCCIEB). Since May 1993, a Unit has been housed at the Institute of Language in Education with responsibility for co-ordinating the Programme.

The HKVEP is, to put it simply, an attempt to introduce *standardised curriculum and assessment frameworks* into the teaching of English for Business in Hong Kong. Its goal is to act as a quality yardstick offering employers and the person in the street a way of making enlightened choices when considering courses in Business English.

The HKVEP is not a course, nor is it a set of courses. Rather, it is, we hope, a considered framework within which high quality courses in Business English can be conducted by approved language training providers in the Territory.

Certain language training providers have been invited to join the scheme in this early stage of the Programme. At the moment, collaboration is underway with two of the most well-known and respected language training providers in the Territory, The British Council and the Centre for Professional & Business English at Hong Kong Polytechnic. Ultimately, it is anticipated that a number of other institutions will also be invited to participate in the scheme.

As one of the requirements of the Programme, approved training centres, or 'Programme Centres', as they are termed, submit courses to the HKVEP Unit for validation. The purpose of validation is to ensure that courses conform to the *curriculum and assessment frameworks* elaborated within the Programme. Courses are validated and certification offered at four increasingly demanding Stages focusing on language activities that range from simple to complex. We believe that meaningful certification can, and should, be offered to those with very limited language skills. Where certification is tied to actual language performance in very limited tasks as it is at the lowest Stage of the Programme, certification is both feasible for the students and attractive to students' employers.

Given the above, it is clear that the four Stages of the Programme cannot be contiguous. Rather, we envisage that students will take HKVEP certificates *throughout their working lives*.

Curriculum, Assessment and Certification Frameworks

As mentioned above, the HKVEP is an attempt to systematically quality assure *curricula, assessment mechanisms and the certification of courses* in vocationally-oriented English.

The purpose of the HKVEP is to validate courses that focus on *useful* and *practical* work-related language activities, and to offer certificates to those who have demonstrated performance in these activities. The term 'activities', as used within the Programme, is synonymous with 'tasks'.

Students' performance in the range of language activities covered by their HKVEP course is assessed periodically throughout their course according to clearly defined performance criteria. This is a far cry from the traditional final examination-based assessment mode that is so common in Hong Kong. We believe that the assessment framework inherent in the Programme leads to a clearer view of students' performance in English.

Certification is largely the responsibility of the London Chamber of Commerce & Industry Examinations Board, and is similar in structure to the Board's *Foreign Languages at Work (FLAW)* scheme. In order to be eligible for certification, students must register and pay a small registration fee to the Board.

Certification has two parts. The first is a certificate that shows the *average level of* performance across the board in the course the student followed. The second part is an itemised *Profile of Performance*, showing exactly how the student performed in the assessed language activities covered by the course. It is hoped that these profiles will be welcomed by employers as useful proof of their employees' language skills.

Activity Types

Here, I should like to look in more detail at how decisions were made as to what constituted appropriate activities to be assessed at each of the four Stages of the Programme.

The following broad areas of language use (or Activity Types) have been elaborated:

- Conversation for (Social &) Business Purposes
- Correspondence for (Social &) Business Purposes
- Understanding and Using Information presented in spoken/ written form
- Presenting information in spoken/ written form
- Project work (involving integrative use of a range of the above)

Clearly, *Conversation* and *Correspondence* both involve a high degree of interaction with other people. *Understanding/using information* and *Presenting information,* on the other hand, are seen as rather more one-sided activity types. Lastly, *Project work* is an integrative Activity Type calling upon a wide range of language skills.

To illustrate the type of range of language activities which each of these Activity Types encompasses, let us consider just one Activity Type—'Conversation for (Social &) Business Purposes'. This Activity Type, might include job interviews, conversations with contractors on site visits, conversations with clients, office social chat, answering telephone enquiries, making travel arrangements and so on.

Characteristics of Activities

In order to differentiate between the four Stages of the Programme, it was necessary to distinguish some of the parameters that determine the *inherent difficulty of activities*. We know, intuitively, for example that it is more daunting to make a presentation in front of 20 unfamiliar people on a complex technical subject than it is to do so informally in front of two or three familiar colleagues on a familiar topic. We tried, therefore, to single out some of the characteristics that marked activities as more or less demanding. Subsequently, these characteristics serve to inform judgment as to which activities should be practised and assessed at each of the four Stages of the Programme.

The characteristics that were distinguished were:

- range of ideas understood and expressed (narrow—broad)
- range of topics (work-related—work-related/social)
- range of interactants (1:1—1:1, small/large group)
- range of formality of relationships (formal—formal/informal)
- range of information to be synthesised (narrow—broad)
- range of problem complexity (simple—complex)

Having mapped out a range of characteristics that could, by and large, be applied to Activity Types at each of our four Stages, we were then able to decide on the range of real-world Activities that were appropriate for each Activity Type at each Stage of the Programme, and for each Stage produce a *Profile of Core Activities (Appendix I contains profiles of core activities for Stages I and IV)*.

To this Profile, Programme Centres were able to add other, elective activities which would be included on the basis of the specific needs of students. The balance of core activities and elective activities helps us to achieve comparability between certificates while, at the same time, ensuring that course providers can also meet students' needs in the way they want to.

Conclusion

This paper has traced the development of the Hong Kong Vocational English Programme until December 1993. It has focused on the curriculum framework of the Programme, with its task-centredness, and has also shed light on the assessment and certification frameworks of the Programme.

The official launch of the Programme is scheduled for May 1994, when an Agreement between the Hong Kong Government and the London Chamber of Commerce & Industry Examinations Board will be signed. However, there are already in excess of 1 000 students taking part in the pilot implementation of the Programme.

If current indications prove reliable, it is anticipated that the Programme will have a significant impact on the quality of vocationally-oriented English language training in the Territory in the coming years.

Hong Kong
Vocational English
Programme

HKVEP

CORE ACTIVITIES AT STAGE 1

ACTIVITY TYPE	*CORE ACTIVITIES*
Conversation for (social &) business purposes	talking about self and job
	basic social conversation
Correspondence for (social &) business purposes	completing standard business letters or faxes
Understanding & using information presented in spoken form	understanding simple factual information
	following simple spoken instructions
Understanding & using information presented in written form	understanding simple memos
	following simple written instructions
Presenting information in spoken form	presenting basic factual information
	reporting simple events
Presenting information in written form	form-filling
	writing simple messages
Project work	Course specific

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Hong Kong
Vocational English
Programme

CORE ACTIVITIES AT STAGE IV

ACTIVITY TYPE	*CORE ACTIVITIES*
Conversation for (social &) business purposes	talking to clients
	advanced social conversation
Correspondence for (social &) business purposes	writing complex social/ business letters
	writing complex business faxes
Understanding & using information presented in spoken form	understanding complex presentations
	taking minutes
Understanding & using information presented in written form	understanding complex written texts
	understanding and revising company-specific literature
Presenting information in spoken form	giving a formal presentation
	participating in meetings
Presenting information in written form	writing company-specific literature
	writing short reports
Project work	Course specific

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WHAT ARE PUPILS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS LANGUAGE LEARNING THROUGH (A) COURSEBOOK-BOUND ACTIVITIES AND (B) COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES?

Course No.: EP941
Group 2 Claudia Lai Pui Ting
Group Tutor: Anne Gordon

Introduction

The primary syllabus (CDC, 1981) states that the learner's needs and interests should be of primary concern in language teaching. However, various problems in my school (and probably in Hong Kong) prevent teachers from giving pupils ample opportunities to use English to communicate for some meaningful purpose related to their lives.

These problems include the pressure of exams which emphasise the formal aspects of the language, the demand of parents and school for good examination results, and coursebooks which often do not promote pupils' interests and purposeful use of the language.

Teachers cannot do anything about problems concerned with exams, parents' demands and school aims, but they can do their best to overcome the problem of the coursebook by using communicative activities instead of coursebook-bound activities. Communicative activities (Pattison, 1987) give pupils a social and personal reason to speak, and they have an information gap to be filled or an area of uncertainty to be made clear.

The Problems of Coursebooks

My investigation aimed to examine the problems of my school's coursebook and to see whether communicative activities help promote interest and purposeful use of the language.

Most primary coursebooks emphasise written, formal exercises rather than meaningful use of language. They often cannot meet the needs and interests of pupils, so teachers have difficulty maintaining interest and sustaining motivation. Pupils do not always when and how to use the language learnt in real-life situations.

Teachers therefore should not be disciples of coursebooks and follow every activity suggested. Sometimes they do provide practical ideas for teaching, but teachers should analyse the textbook and supplement them with, or adapt coursebook activities into, communicative activities.

But can communicative activities increase pupils' interest in learning English and promote purposeful use of the language? Will pupils find them enjoyable and useful? Will they cause too much noise in group work or pair work? Will brighter pupils dominate speaking roles and weaker ones find it a burden to talk with others and so fail to finish tasks? Do pupils prefer coursebook activities to communicative ones?

Plan of Action

The class I took was 6C in my own school. It has 30 pupils of average ability but they are nice, obedient and willing to learn. They are used to the teacher using 95% English in English lessons.

I used the school's scheme of work for five periods, based on Unit 23 of *Integrated Primary English*. The language structure to be taught was:

I am sorry/pleased/happy to+infinitive

I am sorry/pleased/happy to+infinitive+noun clause with 'that'

A communicative activity was made with minimum adaptation from certain coursebook activities. Pupils were exposed to one communicative activity and one coursebook activity for the same teaching objective in each of three lessons (two of them double periods).

Afterwards pupils were given questionnaires in Chinese and English asking them to compare the communicative activities and the coursebook activities. There were also interviews with bright, average and weak pupils.

I completed a self-evaluation form after each lesson and observation was also done by a fellow teacher and my ILE tutor.

Results and Discussion

In the first lesson a lot of time was spent on pairing and instructions. Pupils seemed to enjoy the communicative activity more: weaker ones tried their best and no bright ones dominated. It was not as noisy as I expected. However, they did not have enough time and some instructions were not clear enough.

Pupils found the communicative activity more interesting (23–4), easier (17–10), more enjoyable (23–4), more useful (17–10) and felt it involved more thinking (19–8). Some weaker pupils said it was nice to talk to classmates in English and they preferred to have more speaking than written work.

In the second lesson, pupils appeared more motivated with the authentic materials (newspaper cuttings) used in the communicative activity. They were active and eager in expressing their opinions and communicating with one another. They appeared bored by the coursebook activity and their spirits dropped spontaneously. They also found it difficult.

Pupils found the communicative activity more interesting (29–0), easier (24–5), more enjoyable (29–0), and more useful (21–8), though a slight majority found the coursebook activity involved more thinking (16–13).

In the third lesson the communicative activity seemed a little difficult for the pupils, with pair work within two big groups, and the tape I recorded was of poor quality. The coursebook activity was easier, with a good tape from the publisher and the dialogue in the textbook; however, it involved a lot a writing which they didn't seem to enjoy.

Questionnaire results were unexpected: pupils still found the communicative activity more interesting (25–2), more enjoyable (21–6), more useful (24–3) and felt it involved more thinking (17–10), but they did find it more difficult (16–12). It seems they prefer to have a certain degree of difficulty and thinking involved. (The overall questionnaire showed 23 of them felt activities should not be too easy.)

Another question indicated that pupils found the second and third communicative activity more related to their lives than the coursebook one, the first scoring the same as the coursebook one. They also had greater confidence in using English for the second and third communicative activities than for the coursebook ones.

The overall questionnaire showed they most liked group work and work with the whole class, and least liked working alone.

Conclusions

This classroom investigation convinced me that communicative activity is necessary to facilitate effective and meaningful learning. Learning activities should always be relevant to the interests and needs of the pupils. Teachers should not stick to everything in the coursebook but be sensitive to the suitability of the materials. Coursebook activities sometimes have their value, but adaptation and supplementation are necessary. A certain degree of difficulty and thinking is needed but if activities are too difficult, brighter pupils will dominate. Group work and pair work should be given more often and noise levels are acceptable.

It is inevitable that more time is spent to make the lessons interesting and successful, so I would conclude that it is better to make the best use of the available materials in the coursebook and make adaptations with the available time. Teachers should also gather materials already available at the ILE and other educational centres.

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1842

IS IT EFFECTIVE TO PRACTISE THE SIMPLE PAST TENSE IN PRIMARY 4 THROUGH DOING ACTIVITIES?

Course No.: EP941
Group 1: Jennie Au Chun Yu
Group Tutor: Dave Carless

Background

Most Hong Kong Cantonese-speaking pupils have problems with English tenses. Many primary school teachers of English think the best strategy is to tell pupils, in Cantonese, the rules of English tenses, but pupils find that learning tenses is boring. They have to be aware of the change in the verb forms in relation to the subject as well as the time of events. They need time to choose which part of the verb or which auxiliary verb to use, whereas in Cantonese we just add a single word or two to indicate different tenses.

Investigation Question

My 4D pupils in Hennessy Road Government Primary AM School learnt the simple past tense a few months ago. However, because of the tight syllabus, many pupils forget the rules and correct usage due to insufficient practice.

I decided to investigate whether it was effective to practise the simple past tense in Primary 4 through classroom activities. By "effective" I mean pupils showing interest and getting enjoyment from the task, being involved in the activities, and understanding and using English appropriately. I felt more practice could facilitate pupils' production of the target tense, and enhance their concept of the language so they could acquire mastery: internalising it and speaking more naturally and fluently.

I chose classroom activities as the strategy for practising the simple past tense in order to motivate and arouse pupils' interest. Wright (1984) suggests that games sustain learners' interest and Klippel (1987) stresses that activities should train students to use their knowledge of the foreign language flexibly. Rinvolucri (1984) says one of the advantages of games is that everyone is working at once and the teacher is free to find out what students actually know.

Investigation Plan

The pupils were used to the traditional teaching ways, so they seldom had activities during lessons. I decided to use the cartoon character Buggs Bunny throughout all five investigation lessons. The content in the lessons was all situational and the four lessons were coherent, each building on what the previous one had taught. The following table shows my plan for language items to be practised and activities to be carried out:

Lesson	Language Item for Practice	Activities
1	What did you/he do yesterday/this morning? I/he ________ . (regular verbs ending in '-ed')	Playing with puppets Pair work (dialogue) Singing songs Creating lyrics for songs
2	What did you/he do last Sunday? I/he ________ (regular verbs)	Listening to tape Whole class activity (like Simon Says) Playing with puppets Playing board game Snakes & Ladders (pair work)
3	Did he ________ last Sunday? Yes, he did. He ________ (positive answers only)	Listening to tape Playing jig-saw cards Playing with puppets Singing songs
4	Did he ________ last Sunday? No, he didn't. He did not ________ . (negative answers first) He ________ . (then exact answer)	Listening to tape Whole class activity (paper cut-outs) Playing with puppets Playing board game Stepping Stones (group work)

I gave the pupils a 5-minute pre-test at the beginning of the first lesson and the same test at the beginning of the fifth (last) lesson as a post-test. Besides oral practice through activities, a series of four worksheets were designed for written practice as consolidation towards the end of each of the four lessons. In the second half of the fifth lesson an evaluation form was used to collect pupils' views on the various activities. Observation forms were also designed for a fellow teacher and my ILE tutor to use, and a self-evaluation form for myself.

Results and Discussion

Some activities were more successful than others. All the children liked playing with the puppets. Buggs Bunny came into every lesson and even the shy, passive pupils were willing to take part and acted as Bunny. As a result they were motivated to practise the target structure without noticing it. Even those not nominated to play Bunny wanted to ask him questions. They enjoyed the activity and used full sentences with simple past tense.

Because pupils seldom sing in English, some were shy and reluctant to sing out loud with me but they enjoyed making up their own lyrics for the "London Bridge" tune. This allowed them to practise the target tense in written form. They then enjoyed singing what they had written with my electronic piano accompaniment, and they completed the song sheet quickly.

I found pupils did not enjoy listening to tapes much. This might have been affected by the noisy environment outside the school and an unsuitable voice I had chosen for Buggs Bunny.

I found that playing board games (Snakes & Ladders and Stepping Stones) was the most effective of all the strategies I had planned. Pupils were co-operative, they helped and interacted with each other using the simple past tense while playing and they encouraged each other to use the correct language form. I heard some Cantonese when they were excited but I did not consider it a serious matter. Many pupils, including the problem child in my class, asked for a photocopy of the board games when lessons were over.

Pupils enjoyed the whole class activities (a Buggs Bunny version of Simon Says and jig-saw cards). They were eager, followed instructions properly, and participated actively. They sometimes made errors but I gave them hints to bolster their confidence.

In pair work dialogue, pupils were curious to find out what each other had done that morning and the previous day.

They did not do the worksheets as well as I had anticipated, but results were affected by carelessness.

The results of the tests, however, were extremely encouraging. Scores improved from an average of 54% in the pre-test to an average of 84% in the post-test, an average progress of 30%. This indicates that after four lessons' practice of the simple past through classroom activities, pupils made significant and good progress.

The pupils' evaluation showed they all enjoyed the activities, and considered the board games, playing with the puppet and the whole-class activities the most useful practice. Although 12 out of 39 did not find it easy to understand English throughout the lessons, a majority of 27 did.

Conclusion

The way pupils practised the target language in these lessons was entirely different from the traditional teaching method, but the results were encouraging. Pupils participated actively and with enjoyment, they interacted and co-operated with each other, they showed understanding and were able to use full sentences in the past simple tense confidently and naturally. They showed significant progress in the post-test. Therefore I concluded that play activities are effective for practising the simple past tense in Primary 4. This might not be the same for other tenses or other language items, but there may be other activities that are equally effective.

Having experimented with this unusual method of teaching, I myself have also benefitted and learned a lot. I believe play activities are a better method of conveying language skills to pupils. I recommend colleagues try this in their own schools—but remember that good preparation is essential for success.

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AN ANALYSIS OF CLASSROOM VERBAL INTERACTION IN ENGLISH LESSONS AND HOW IT AFFECTS LANGUAGE LEARNING FOR COMMUNICATION

Course No.: EP941
Group 6: So Chi-ping, Lydda
Group Tutor: Shirley Chan

Introduction

The CDC Primary English Syllabus (1981) states that 'meaningful use of the language for purpose of communication represents an essential element in successful language learning (p. 21)' and that 'the learner should be given the maximum opportunity to use English as the medium of interaction with others (p. 24)'. However, some people complain that our children cannot communicate with others in English efficiently. So what has happened to the teaching and learning process in our classrooms?

Investigation Question

Rivers (1987: 4) states that 'students achieve facility in using a language when their attention is focused on conveying and receiving authentic messages (that is, messages that contain information of interest to speaker and listener in a situation of importance to both). This is interaction.' If interaction then is the key to teaching language for communication, three questions arise:

1 What kinds of interaction are ongoing in our classrooms?
2 How do our children learn English?
3 What kind of language-learning situations are they in now?

Investigation Plan

I adopted the Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC) to categorise the interaction patterns in classrooms and analyse them. This codes classroom talk with the numbers 1 to 10 and can be summarised as follows (adapted from Allwright and Bailey, 1991: 202):

1837

TEACHER TALK	INDIRECT INFLUENCE	1 Accepts feeling of student 2 Praises or encourages student 3 Accepts or uses ideas of student 4 Asks questions
	DIRECT INFLUENCE	5 Lectures 6 Gives directions 7 Criticizes or justifies authority
STUDENT TALK		8 Student response 9 Student initiation 10 Silence or confusion

I used the FIAC to look at the following questions:

a What percentage of class time does the teacher talk?
b What percentage of class time do the pupils talk?
c What kind of immediate feedback does the teacher give to pupils after they respond?
d What behaviour does the teacher use to elicit pupil response in the class?
e To what extent are pupils asked to respond to narrow, predictable questions?
f To what extent are pupils given the opportunity to give their own ideas?
g What behaviour does the teacher use more extensively in communicating?

Research Method

The research was carried out by direct classroom observation of five lessons in a Primary 4 class of 38 students at Cheung Wong Wai Primary School in Tai Wai.

The observer sat at the back of the classroom and coded the interaction taking place every three seconds. The record of an observed lesson was a series of numbers, like 10-6-10-8-2-4-9-5-7-6-6-9-2-3-10 .... The same number was repeated when one type of talk went on for more than three seconds. However, if more than one interaction appeared in the three-second time period, the observer recorded all of them in the order they occurred.

The frequency for each type of talk was calculated and also the frequency of different 'transitional interaction chains'.

Results and Discussion

In the first lesson, in which pupils responded to 'Wh-'questions on a text, the two highest categories of talk were 8 (21.7%) and 4 (14.2%). Teacher talk (categories 1-7) was 65.8% and pupil talk (categories 8 & 9) was 23.8%. There were few chances for pupils to initiate responses (2.1%).

The second lesson taught 'How' questions and revised simple past tense form. The highest categories were 5 (33.0%) and 8 (23.2%), but the responses were merely 'teacher-response-feedback'. Teacher talk was 62.8% and pupil talk 27.2%.

The third lesson was an ETV lesson and 42.2% of the time was spent watching in silence. Of the remaining time, teacher talk was 37.9% and pupil talk 19.9%, including the highest amount of pupil initiated talk (category 9) in the five lessons (7.4%).

In the fourth lesson the teacher told a story and asked questions. Then pupils had an activity re-arranging the story's order. Teacher talk was 77.3% and pupil talk 12.3%.

The fifth lesson was revision of the simple past. The highest categories were 5 (23.0%) and 6 (19.2%). Although category 8 was 18.1%, the answers were still controlled and limited. Pupil initiation was a poor 2.2%.

The five most frequent interactional chains were 4-8-4, 5-8-5, 8-4-8, 8-5-8 and 8-3-5.

Chains 4-8-4 and 8-4-8 were mainly the teacher asking questions with predictable answers, and little thought required. It is a pity there were not more 8-3-5 chains where the teacher accepts the pupil's ideas. There were even instances of the teacher not accepting a pupil's response when the pupil was correct and the teacher wrong.

Conclusion

From the study, we can conclude that there is two or three times as much teacher talk as student talk. The five most frequent transitional interaction chains show that our children learn English by answering teachers' questions and listening to teachers' lecturing. Few discussions or problem-solving tasks take place. Interaction between pupils themselves is not enough. Most of the teacher's questions were display questions which did not induce pupils to talk more.

From this investigation I understand more deeply that teaching does not equal learning. It is not necessary for the teacher to talk for the whole lesson. Pupils should be motivated to involve themselves in the language learning process. Materials provided should be more authentic. Learning situations should relate to their own experience. These factors can help enhance the effectiveness of communication activities, of which there should be more: discussions, games, competitions and problem-solving tasks. Teachers should also ask more open-ended questions to encourage pupils to express their own ideas.

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CAN THE INTRODUCTION OF PROCESS WRITING ENHANCE POSITIVE ATTITUDES TORWARDS WRITING AMONG PRIMARY PUPILS?

Course No.: EP941
Group 7: Lam Yuen-mei
Group Tutor: Jennie Chan

Introduction

The main focus of my classroom investigation was to introduce process writing to my P6 class in Tai Po Government Primary P.M. school and to see if there was any discernable change in the attitude of the pupils towards writing.

The students are accustomed to 'paper and pencil' writing exercises in which they copy words or passages, write dictations, do grammar and comprehension exercises and engage in guided writing. These exercises are mainly mechanical drills for reinforcing memory, neatness and accuracy rather than the means for genuine exchanges of information or for the expression of ideas. The one place for students to present their ideas is in guided writing, but even here the pupils are restricted either to producing the correct sentence pattern to fit particular picture cues or to manipulate the words in the questions set, to produce a correct answer.

Because of their limited language proficiency, children are not ready to express themselves freely according to common belief and so linguistic accuracy aided by various cues is the major concern of learning.

It was my concern with the pupils' point of view about writing that led me to this piece of action research.

Investigation Question(s)

Calling on the work of P. Czerniewska (1992) which emphasizes process rather than product, and the development of the writer rather than the text, I wanted to see the effect on the attitudes of my students if they were introduced to the process approach to writing. My specific questions were.

1. Would the students feel able to write without the help of the usual 'aids'?
2. Would they enjoy writing more if they were allowed to express themselves freely?
3. What kind of writing programme would I use to foster a more positive attitude towards writing?

Investigation Plan

To measure attitude changes in student preferences for the language skills, self-evaluation of these language skills particularly of their writing skills and their reaction to process writing, I designed and administered two sets of questionnaires before and after the course.

Due to the limited amount of teaching time available (5 lessons), the usual five stages in process writing were reduced to three—pre-writing, drafting and re-drafting. For the pre-writing stage large pictures were used as cues for students to build up word banks which they then used to draft and revise descriptions of the pictures. The same technique was applied to story writing but with the addition of a criteria list for a story.

Throughout, I demonstrated each writing stage for the students who then practised the techniques on their own in groups of three to four, thereby allowing for group discussion, peer teaching and editing.

Instead of marking and grading the student writing, I looked for ways of providing formative feedback so that the students become aware that their achievements were being valued.

I also had the help of my tutor and a colleague who kindly filled in observation sheets for me.

Results

In addition to the questionnaires and texts produced by the students, I analysed data obtained from the observation sheets used by a colleague and my ILE tutor who sat in on the teaching sessions.

Despite some grammatical weaknesses (noun-verb agreement, use of tenses), the writing products revealed expressive and meaningful texts enriched by creative attempts to attribute statements to characters, the use of a range of grammatical devices (different sentence types, adjectives) and attempts of write their own ending to the story.

From classroom observation it was noted that the various stages of writing proved helpful to students in building up their finished product. Peer teaching was noticed and for the story writing constant reference was made to the criteria listed. Though new to them, the students were able to handle the demands of process writing which, in turn, generated considerable student enthusiasm.

This enthusiasm is reflected in the questionnaire findings which provided very positive results. There was, for example, a 31% increase in the preference for writing, a 26% increase in those who thought they were best at writing, especially in free-writing.

Conclusion

This experience has made clear that focusing on grammatical accuracy kills motivation. It also indicates that the process approach is a more meaningful way to encourage positive attitudes towards writing and I would not hesitate to introduce this approach into the primary classroom.

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ACTION RESEARCH REPORT SUMMARY THE LEARNING AND TEACHING OF TENSE AND ASPECT IN HONG KONG LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Course No.: ES941
Group 5: Wu Si Cheong, Gilbert
Cheung Yui Cho, Patrick
Lee Ka Kui, K.K.
Leung Kwok Wing, Joseph
Group Tutor: Gertude Tinker Sachs

Introduction

As an end-of-term project of the ILE Refresher Course for Teachers of English in Secondary Schools, this action research was done in four weeks. Despite the serious time constraint, the project was smoothly carried out though we could not claim much reliability from our findings.

Rationale

1. Hinkel (1992) reports the order of acquisition of temporal references and aspectual implications of adult Chinese ESL learners in 8 different tenses. This study attempts to examine if there are any significant differences in the order of acquistion for young Chinese ESL learners with different learning abilities, motivation and learning environemnt.
2. Zhou (1992) denounces the effect of formal instruction on the learning of tense and aspect. Task-based activities were carried out in this study to see the effectiveness of task-based approach in the learning of tense and aspect.
3. O'Malley et al. (1987) underlines the importance of L1 information in L2 learning. This study also examines the effect of time markers which also exist in Chinese in the learning of English tense and aspect.
4. No previous research has been documented on the learners' responses in the task-based approach which claims to be learner-centred. This study hopes to throw light on this respect from learners with low L2 proficiency, low motivation and disciplinary problems.

Design of the Study

The study consists of 3 phases, namely the pretest, the experimental teaching and the post-test.

Pre-test: Subjects from two Form 2 classes in 3 different Tai Po secondary schools with different banding were chosen. Sentences used in Hinkel's (1992) study formed the framework of the test items. All test items were further simplified in simple language structures and Chinese translation was added to the tense and aspect descriptors in the multiple choice questions. There were two sets of test items, one with time markers and the other without.

Experimental Teaching: Task-based activities were tried out in Assembly of God Hebron Secondary School with students of low learning abilities, low L2 proficiency, low motivation and disciplinary problems, with the conviction that if a task-based approach works there, it will certainly work in other more favourable classroom settings in the teaching of tense and aspect. Four group members paired up to teach four 35-minute experimental lessons for each of two Form 2 classes. Task-bsed activities were planned. Lesson plans were written to standardize and monitor teaching procedures in classrooms.

Post-test: To examine the effect of task-based learning on the learning of tense and aspect and the effect of focusing on time markers in teaching tense and aspect, the same sets of test items were distributed to the experimental classes for the post-test after 4 days of experimental teaching.

Results

This study reconfirms Hinkel's (1992) findings in the order of temporal references in different tenses, the findings of Dulay and Burt (1974) in the natural sequence of children's L2 acquisition and findings of Bailey et al. (1974) are no obvious differences between adults and children in the acquisition order of past -ed and progressive -ing. However, obvious differences have been found between adults and children in the acquisition order of aspectual implications.

No significant effects of instruction on the acquisition of tense and aspect have been found as the effectiveness of task-based activities was not fully explored in such a short experimental teaching period. Nevertheless learners gave positive responses to the interest and helpfulness of task-based approaches in their learning. In addition, no clear indication of the effect of equivalent L1 time markers in the acquisition of L2 tense and aspect was found.

Conclusion

Though we could not have any strong claims for this action research in view of various limitations, we enjoyed the process of finding answers to our day-to-day teaching problems.

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1845

Comparison of Order of Acquisition of Temporal References with Hinkel's (1992) findings

	Hinkel's (1992) findings	WSCSS		NTHYKSS		AGHSS (Pre-test)		AGHSS (Post-test)	
	Chinese adult ESL learners N = 70	Class 1 N = 40	Class 2 N = 42	Class 3 N = 39	Class 4 N = 40	Class 5 N = 41	Class 6 N = 41	Class 7 N = 42	Class 8 N = 41
	Right now / at the moment of speaking								
Present Progressive	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1
	In the present and in the past								
Present Simple	7	4	7	3	5	3	6	3	6
Present Perfect Progressive	5	7	6	7	6	7	7	4	7
	In the past								
Present Perfect	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	5	8
Past Progressive	4	5	4	6	7	5	4	7	5
Past Simple	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	1	2
	Before another past event								
Past Perfect Progressive	6	6	5	4	4	4	5	6	4
Past Perfect	3	3	3	5	3	6	3	8	3

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ACTION RESEARCH REPORT SUMMARY PROMOTING CREATIVE WRITING THROUGH STIMULATING ACTIVITIES

Course Number: ES941
Group 5: Wing-Hung Chan
Eliza Chiu
Mary Tsui
Group Tutor: Gertrude Tinker Sachs

Introduction

'Motivitating students in Hong Kong to write in English can be a daunting task,' Henry Hepburn (1992)

In discussion of our action research topic the members of our group unanimously agreed that writing should top our priority list amongst the four skills.

Our hypotheses are as follows:

1. Through exposure to various forms of writing, namely: poems, songs and stories, students can become aware that the teaching and learning of writing in a foreign language may be an enjoyable and fulfilling experience.
2. Stimulating language activities can be an effective means to release tension and reduce the anxiety experienced by L2 learners in L2 classrooms.

Problem Identification

In our experience as teachers, we found writing to be a very difficult task for students in Hong Kong. The problems they encounter are as follows:

1. Psychological—Writing is a one-way communication and no recipient is involved. There are often no immediate responses and feedback given.
2. Linguistic—Writers have to make a personal effort to ensure that they can be well understood. They have to be careful in the choice of lexical items, syntax and linking devices.
3. Cognitive—Writing is acquired through a process of instruction. Students have to master the written form of the language and to learn certain syntactic items which are less used in verbal communication.

Procedures

Before the experimental teaching, a pre-teaching questionnaire was distributed. The purpose of the questionnaire was to find out the students' attitude towards English and the skills they feel least competent in. The questionnaire also asked about students' experiences in song appreciation, writing lyrics, poem appreciation, poem writing, story reading and writing at both primary and secondary levels.

During the lessons, teachers observing the lessons were given observation forms to find out students' involvement in various activities such as group discussions, reading and writing tasks and their performance in carrying out the given activities.

After the lessons, students were given a questionnaire on their reaction to the presentation of the lessons, their participation and their degree of interest.

Findings and Reflections

From the findings of the pre-teaching questionnaire on students' experience in learning English, a very high percentage of students (72%) say that they like English and 41% of the students indicate that they often enjoy their English lessons at school.

However, when the data of pre-teaching and post-teaching are compared, there is a significant change of students' attitude towards writing poems, songs and stories.

To sum up, before the experimental teaching students' attitude towards writing was negative; however, after being exposed to the poems, stories and songs and taking part in the activities, students' interest in learning them and writing them were promoted.

Reflections on Hypotheses

During the experimental teaching students had, for the first time in their lives, written their own poems, lyrics and endings of stories. In the course of the activities, most students were actively involved in all the tasks assigned. They completed the tasks so spontaneously that they were not even aware of the fact that they were actually carrying out the creative writing tasks which, according to our pre-teaching questionnaire results, they consider the most difficult task of language learning.

Conclusion

This action research has shown us that the stimulating activities used in our experimental teaching provide a wide range of expressive writing tasks through which students were enabled to develop an ever-improving capability to communicate, to think and to put their expressions and ideas forward. The activities have successfully promoted students' interest in writing.

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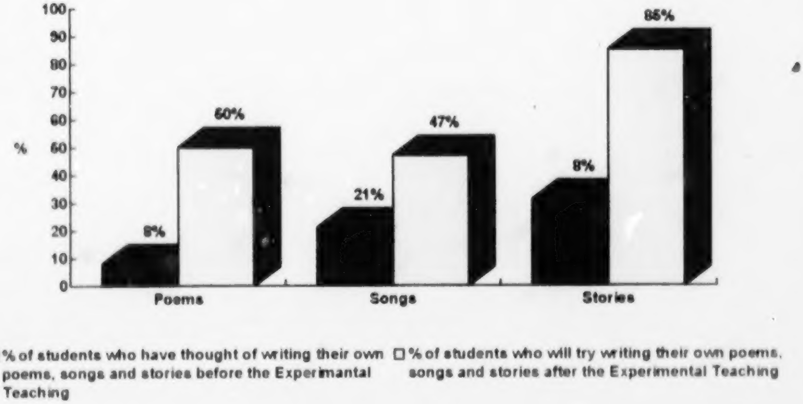
Students' attitude towards writing poems, songs and stories before and after Experimental Teaching



1850

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ACTION RESEARCH REPORT SUMMARY
LOWERING THE AFFECTIVE FILTER DURING SPEAKING ACTIVITIES

Course No.: ES941
Group 8: Lau Mei Chu Amy
Yau Man Lin
Tse Ngan Suet Han Donna
Leung Sze Kam Margaret
Group Tutor: Maria Axler

Introduction

Speaking is the weakest language skill of Hong Kong students and teachers often tend to overlook the provision of opportunities for students to practise speaking. Two of the possible reasons are large class sizes and little emphasis on speaking in Certificate Examinations. It is, however, the students' fear of speaking English in front of their peers (Wong 1984) and teachers' discouraging remarks about students' oral abilities that contribute to an affective filter that inhibits Hong Kong students. The purpose of this research was to explore some ways of lowering the students' affective filter by building up their self-confidence.

Identification of problems

The most common and obvious symptoms observed are:

i. Frequent requests for using Cantonese before any attempt to communicate in English.
ii. Stammering or speaking in a very soft voice when they have to speak in English.
iii. Changing answers when requested to repeat, even though their answers may be correct.
iv. Poor intonation and inappropriate stress resulting from the interference of Cantonese patterns.
v. A lack of vocabulary and expressions.

Methods adopted in overcoming the problems in speaking activities

Experimental Teaching

A series of 4 lessons on the theme 'Relationship' was designed and conducted (see scheme of work in Appendix I) based on the following principles, and students' responses observed.

A comfortable setting

The conventional Hong Kong classroom setting may create a threatening alienation effect on students as the teacher faces the whole class as an authoritarian figure. Thus, we tried to use a more relaxing setting by asking students to sit in a semi-circle when we conducted the drama activity. We also arranged them in groups when they participated in discussions. As a result, they felt more comfortable since they could cooperate with each other in a small group when completing a task.

Group learning

A supportive learning atmosphere is important for lowering the affective filter in speaking activities. According to Donaldson (1978) and Mercer and Fisher (1993), children may be able to accomplish activities within familiar or supportive contexts which they cannot do in unfamiliar or unsupportive situations. It is believed that peer learning, in the form of group work, can best achieve the aim of creating a positive learning environment. Fisher (1993) has further explained why peer or group learning has such positive impact on learning. He claims that 'activities which encourage a true sharing of ideas amongst essentially equal partners are likely to be a fruitful way of encouraging children to test out their assumptions and develop their thinking.'

Teacher support

Teachers also play an important role in creating a positive learning environment by raising students' self-esteem. We paid special attention to the use of simple language so that students could follow the instructions without difficulties and understand that they did not need difficult expressions to communicate. We were also aware of the importance of giving verbal encouragement in the process of teaching/learning.

Arouse motivation by providing authentic situations

We adopted a thematic approach (Relationship) in this project and designed a series of activities leading to the final product of paraphrasing the lyrics and singing the songs for Father's Day and writing and reciting Cheers on Friendship.

A topic which is of interest to students can encourage active student participation. Sandilands (1990) claims that discussion subjects should correspond to students' interest. She then suggests ten ways to get students involved successfully in discussions, and among them, the use of songs and videos can always stimulate their interest. In providing a variety of stimulating and relevant input, we used a song and a TV commercial as audio-visual aids.

Raise students' awareness of the language

Without sufficient linguistic competence, students cannot express themselves clearly. The need to provide relevant language patterns is unquestionable. It is especially necessary in lower forms as they have a limited command of the language; therefore, we provided the necessary vocabulary about the quality of friendship for the students before the discussion task.

Questioning Techniques

We were particularly careful in designing open, referential or exploratory questions in order to facilitate longer or more elaborate answers. 'Desired' question types may not be able to elicit 'desired' verbal responses from student (Wu 1993) . Other factors, such as students' attitudes towards questioning and their answering behaviour in the classroom, and the questioning strategies used by the teacher, need to be considered. In the questioning strategies, we were always aware of giving them more encouragement and allowing them more room for making mistakes.

Cognitive input for discussions

Without knowledge of the subject content, students find it difficult to actively take part in discussions. We approached the problem by carefully selecting and designing activities which were related to their daily life experience. We provided audio-visual aids and samples of the assigned tasks. For example, we used wallpictures and songs to stimulate ideas and prepared some rewritten lyrics and Mother's Day cards as samples.

Conclusion

We observed that the students were more and more comfortable and involved in the speaking activities. First, the setting was unconventional and the atmosphere relaxing, so students could participate in all activities in the absence of pressure. Second, a wide variety of activities, such as songs, games, video and drama, were included in the lessons. Students felt free to enjoy the fun of learning and speaking English in different situations or contexts. Third, the teachers were very friendly and had a high awareness of giving verbal as well as material encouragement (in the form of prizes). Hence, the threat of rebuke or punishment from teachers was minimized. The teachers took the lead to dramatize certain scenes, therefore students could feel freer to express or get involved in activities. The use of group work provided much support for students as the safety of numbers was guaranteed. As a result, they were less afraid to attempt new things, to appear 'funny' or 'special' in class or to make mistakes in group presentations.

Recommendations

Timing is very important in learning and teaching. Teachers should not squeeze every minute for what they wanted to teach without paying attention to the needs of students.

The interest of students in the task is another very important consideration. Teachers should observe students' responses to determine whether to develop or change a topic. To make the lessons more interesting, teachers should prepare various speaking activities in a thematic way.

Teachers can have each group report their conclusion or explain why they have not come to one. The focus of attention should be on the ideas expressed rather than the linguistic accuracy. Critical thinking can be fostered in this way without frustrating the students.

Further writing exercises can be derived from the discussion task. The students can reflect on their performance in the discussion and express their feelings or insight. Linguistic accuracy can be given more attention here. But over-marking can still be discouraging and bring about negative backwash to students. So focus-marking is more desirable and constructive remarks should be given at the end of marking. If possible, the teachers can point out the students' good work in group discussion. This can surely impress the students, making them know that their work is always noticed and appreciated.

A friendly environment is crucial to both learning and teaching. It is better for teachers to meet the target class and build up a good relationship with them before the research begins. This helps to reduce the students' fear of having strangers teach or observe them in the class. However, time constraint and administrative problem often make such arrangements difficult. Therefore, there must be some interesting activities for both the teachers and students to relax and warm up with at the beginning of the lesson. Then they can teach and learn effectively and comfortably.

Feedback is always important for improvement. At the end of the research, there should be a feedback session for teachers and students to exchange opinions about the lessons and give advice to each other. This will enable both parties to look at the lesson from different perspectives and make modifications for further development.

There are constraints in everyday classroom situations and the suggestions made above may sound difficult; however, they are all worth trying and can surely help to create a comfortable learning environment which is vital to effective teaching and learning.

SCHEME OF WORK

Theme: Relationship

Task title	Objectives	Vocabulary	Skills	Teacher's activity	Ss's activity	Aids	No. of period
Parental love	Ss can share their experience of parents' love in oral English		Extracting information from audio-visual materials	(1) Play TV advertisement & song (2) Prepare Ss for group discussion	(1) Guess relationship shown on TV (2) Tell how the singer expresses his love	T.V. advertisement and a song	1
Children's love for parents	Ss are able to express their love to parents with a song		Express their love for parents by rewriting lyrics	(1) Initiate group discussion (2) Conduct singing contest	(1) Group discussion & presentation (2) Pair work (3) Rewrite lyrics & perform	Wall picture, sample songs	1
Good qualities of friends	Ss know that learning & speaking English can be fun	Positive adjectives of character	Speaking with expression	(1) Involve Ss in dramatization of good qualities of friends	Act in the drama by following Ts	Stickers, paper tree and paper fruit	1
The need for friends	Ss have more confidence in learning & speaking English		How to write a cheer	Divide Ss into groups & prepare them for cheer & bookmark writing	write a cheer expressing need for friends on bookmarks	Paper basket and bookmarks	1

KEY: Ss-Students Ts-Teachers

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ACTION RESEARCH REPORT SUMMARY
HOW TO IMPROVE STUDENTS' FORMAL DISCUSSION SKILLS THROUGH A SERIES OF PREDISCUSSION ACTIVITIES

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Problem Identification

Speaking is important as a means of social interaction; however, it is often overlooked by teachers of English in local schools. In order to finish the syllabus according to schedule, many teachers tend to dominate the lessons and deliberately spend most of their time in class teaching grammar. Without sufficient practice, students perform badly when it comes to speaking even though they have a sound knowledge of grammar and vocabulary.

There is a need for students to interact with one another in order to encourage language production. Students can contribute more to a speaking activity if content closely related to real life situations is provided. Consequently, we decided to adopt a systematic approach to teach formal discussion skills. We anticipated that our target students would have a fundamental concept of how to present and respond to views in a formal discussion after a series of well-structured prediscussion activities.

Experimental Teaching

We set our target on Secondary Four students as they could be the first group affected by the syllabus change in 1996 when role-playing and discussion activities are incorporated in the Oral Paper in the Hong Kong Certificate in Education Examination. The school we chose was Tang Shiu Kin Victoria Technical School in Wanchai. Most of the students of the school are from Band 2 and the remaining is a mixture of Band 1 and 3. As we assumed that they were not used to formal discussions, we had four major objectives in carrying out the experimental teaching:

i. To develop language enrichment materials to try out in class;
ii. To illustrate to students the basic discussion skills they need in a formal discussion;
iii. To find out to what extent the students can improve their abilities in discussion after language input is provided and a structured prediscussion programme is organized for them;

iv. To help them overcome any feelings of fear, embarrassment and insecurity which might arise due to a lack of practice.

Plan of activities for experimental teaching

Day One	one lesson
Activity one:	guessing game on a variety of noises for stimulation
Activity two:	questionnaires on how noises affected the students
Activity three:	pair work—a small-scale discussion about noise problems
Activity four:	mini reports on what each pair had discussed

Day Two	one lesson
Activity one:	teach basic discussion skills used in a formal discussion
Activity two:	play a video showing a model discussion
Activity three:	expose students to common expressions used in a formal discussion (using flash cards)

Day three	double lesson
Activity one:	consolidate students' language skills (sample tape of presentation skills played)
Activity two:	group discussion (students formed groups of 4 or 5)
Activity three:	group reports by group secretaries
Activity four:	feedback from teacher (using flash cards)
Activity five:	prize giving (for encouragement)

Overall Evaluation

We evaluated whether the objectives of our Action Research had been achieved through lesson observation. An "Observation form on students' performance during group discussions" and a "Students' self-evaluation form" were used during and after the lessons. (Please see Appendices 1 & 2).

In general, we found our students co-operative and attentive. Most of them showed enthusiasm and were willing to use English for classroom discussion.

The teaching aids prepared were useful as students used some of the expressions they had learnt during discussions and the video was successful in arousing students' interest. The guessing game and pair discussions also played an important role in preparing the students for the group discussions. In the report session, some students tried to challenge one another.

The students' self-evaluation shows that they enjoyed the discussion and gained more confidence in involving themselves in similar activities.

Recommendations

1. Audio-visual aids, like videos, audio tapes and flash cards provide a good source of sensory stimulation for language input. Teachers need to be familiar with their use to avoid any unnecessary technical problems.
2. As small classroom space might affect the overall smooth running of the lesson, it is better to conduct discussion activities in larger rooms like the hall or gymnasium. Students will be more enthusiastic about sharing their views if they are allowed to move about more freely.

Appendix 1

Observation Form on Students' Performance

Put a tick (   ) in the space provided to show if a student has performed the following actions:—

1. contributed an idea
2. encouraged others to say something
3. did something else while someone was talking
4. interrupted others so as to state one's own opinions
5. tried to smooth out problems
6. summarized what other people had said
7. refused to talk in English
8. led the discussion
9. asked people to explain what they meant
10. talked about something irrelevant to the topic
11. didn't listen to other people's ideas
12. any other comments

Appendix 2

Students' Self Evaluation Forms

How far have you contributed to the discussion?

1. Did you enjoy the discussion?
   Yes ________ no ________

2. Did you remain silent?
   Yes ________ no ________

3. Did you contribute any ideas?
   Yes ________ no ________

4. Did you give your classmate a chance to say something?
   Yes ________ no ________

5. Did you interrupt anyone?
   Yes ________ no ________

6. Did you find the materials for discussion a bit too difficult for you?
   Yes ________ no ________

7. Is there any way you could help the discussion to run more smoothly?
   —by actively participating in the discussion ________________
   —by not interrupting? ________________
   —by listening more carefully to others? ________________
   —by encouraging others to contribute? ________________

8. In what way(s) do you think you have improved after the four lessons on discussions skills?
   —you are more willing to talk ________________
   —you understand the importance of using gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, etc to reinforce your points.
   ____
   —you are more confident to express ideas and respond to others' opinions.
   ____
   —others, please specify
   ____

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